



1 Unbalanced relationship between flood risk perception and flood
2 preparedness from the perspective of response intention and socio-
3 economic factors: a case study of Nanjing, China

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10 **Abstract**

11 Although risk perception and flood preparedness were crucial in flood
12 management, perceived flood risk was not always translated into flood preparedness. It
13 was essential to investigate the potential association between risk perception and flood
14 preparedness. This study focused on Nanjing as the research region, designed
15 questionnaire survey and explored the influence relationship between risk perception
16 and flood preparedness. Participants showed the medium perception of food risk and
17 higher flood preparedness. Higher risk perception was observed in individuals with
18 regular exercising, the elderly, low education level and long living time. Higher flood
19 preparedness occurred among groups of females, the elderly and high education level.
20 Individuals relied more on threat appraisal to perceive risk, which failed to trigger high
21 enough coping appraisal. Inadequate risk perception led to a strenuous transform into
22 flood preparedness with unbalanced relationship. Groups with distinct socio-economic
23 characteristics exhibited varying preferences to achieve risk perception and flood
24 preparedness. Females relied more on flood knowledge to perceive flood risk. Path
25 analysis suggested that threat appraisal transformed into flood preparedness under the
26 effect of response intention and social-economic features. Groups with high education
27 level or bad health were more likely to perceive risk and engage in preventive behavior.
28 These findings could provide critical insights into intervention strategies for enhancing
29 public flood preparedness in flood management.

30 **Keywords: Flood risk perception, flood preparedness, response intention,**
31 **influence path, flood risk mitigation**



32 **1. Introduction**

33 Natural disasters caused immense damage and irreversible losses with global
34 climate change (Guo, Wu, & Wei, 2020). Floods still remained the most prevalent and
35 severe disaster worldwide and occupied the dominated composition in a total of 432
36 disaster events in 2021. Due to rapid urbanization and concentrated population and
37 assets (Deng, Wang, Wu, & Lai, 2022; Dong et al., 2022), urban areas became more
38 susceptible and vulnerable to flood events (P. Wang, Li, & Zhang, 2021). It was
39 predicted that climate change and heavy rainfall were more frequent and intense with
40 high reliability (Rifat & Liu, 2022; Steinhausen et al., 2021), and significantly increased
41 urban flood risk, especially in developing countries (Zhu et al., 2021). Despite the
42 substantial financial investment and mitigation efforts, floods continued to pose a
43 serious threat to human society in the foreseeable future (Thongs, 2019; Ke Zhang et
44 al., 2022). It was imperative to adopt effective flood management for sustainable
45 development.

46 In response to flood events, it was unadvisable to completely take traditional
47 structural measures (Rasool, Rana, & Ahmad, 2022), such as dikes and dams. Risk
48 perception acted as non-structural measures and received considerable attention in
49 current research (Ahmad & Afzal, 2020). Flood risk perception reflected risk
50 acceptance and revealed feelings, opinions and judgements regarding direct or potential
51 hazards (Rana, Jamshed, Younas, & Bhatti, 2020; Yang, 2019). According to Protection
52 Motivation Theory (PMT), cognitive process determined self-protective motivation
53 (Khani Jeihooni, Bashti, Erfanian, Ostovarfar, & Afzali Hasirini, 2022), and threat



54 appraisal and coping appraisal were the important components of risk perception
55 (Roder, Hudson, & Tarolli, 2019). Limited understanding of flood risk perception led
56 to failures in flood management practices (Ahmad & Afzal, 2020). Successful flood
57 management highly depended on the implementation of mitigation measures, because
58 people were both flooding victims and implementors of disaster mitigation policies (Z.
59 Wang, Wang, Huang, Kang, & Han, 2018; Yin et al., 2021). Flood preparedness acted
60 as individual protection action and reflected response behaviors during floods,
61 including preventive and adaptive behavior (Sado-Inamura & Fukushi, 2019).
62 Subjective expected utility theory assumed that people assessed likelihood and
63 consequences of alternative choices (Rufat & Botzen, 2022). Individuals would seek or
64 wait for sufficient information to support the action of responding to flooding (Dootson,
65 Kuligowski, Greer, Miller, & Tippett, 2022; Rufat & Botzen, 2022). Adequate flood
66 preparedness ensured that people could adjust their behaviors more rationally and
67 effectively, making minor changes to mitigate adverse impacts from floods (Valois et
68 al., 2020).

69 Flood risk perception was believed to promote flood preparedness, but high
70 perceptions of risk could not always translate to disaster preparedness (Schlef, Kaboré,
71 Karambiri, Yang, & Brown, 2018). There was not direct and simple relationship
72 between risk perception and flood preparedness as expected. Some studies found the
73 results contradictory to the popular opinion that high perception of flood risk caused
74 high flood preparedness (Rasool et al., 2022) and suggested the weak relationship
75 between risk perception and flood preparedness (Valois et al., 2020), even without



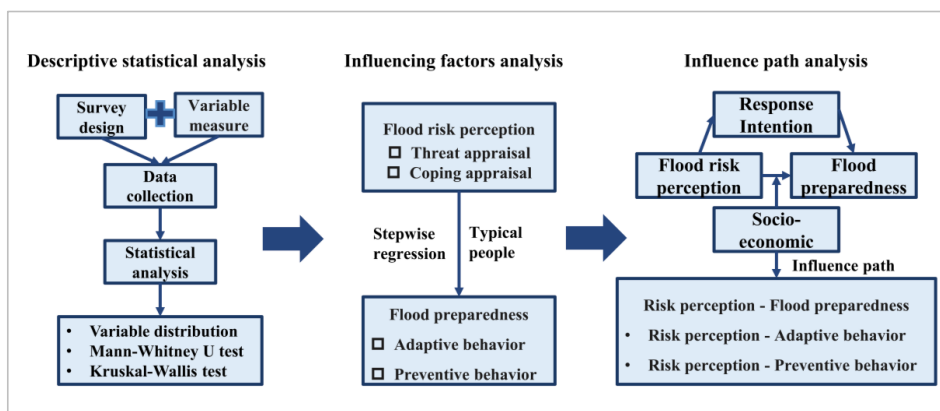
76 direct link (Ao et al., 2020; Wachinger, Keilholz, & O'Brian, 2018). High risk
77 perception even motivated people to avoid or ignore willfully specific actions under
78 uncertain circumstances (Wachinger, Renn, Begg, & Kuhlicke, 2013). There was no
79 consensus on how risk perception affected and predicted preparedness behavior (Huang
80 & Lubell, 2022; Taylor, Dessai, & Bruine de Bruin, 2014). Connection between risk
81 perception and preparedness appeared more strenuous in practice (Valois et al., 2020),
82 due to the ignorance of the existence of unknown intermediary (Ao et al., 2020; Yong
83 & Lemyre, 2019). Theory of Planned Behavior anticipated how people behaved in
84 specific situation and connected behavior with individual control, with intention being
85 the predictor of behavior (Ghanian et al., 2020; Kurata, Prasetyo, Ong, Nadlifatin, &
86 Chuenyindee, 2022). For individual cognitive decision-making, intention served as the
87 intermediate link between perception and behavior (Soetanto, Mullins, & Achour,
88 2017), and ample social-scientific evidence supported the positive relationship between
89 risk perception and intention to respond, not actual behaviors (Harlan, Sarango, Mack,
90 & Stephens, 2019; van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019).

91 Individuals with different backgrounds got involved in flood management,
92 perceived flood risk in various ways (Rasool et al., 2022) and developed personal
93 intention to follow risk response (Kurata et al., 2022). Socio-economic features were
94 the most controversial driving factors of risk perception (Shah et al., 2020) and flood
95 preparedness (Ao et al., 2020), with relevant studies reporting mixed and inconsistent
96 results (Rufat & Botzen, 2022). Socio-economic features determined the social group
97 to which people belonged and affected individual perception and action towards



98 hazards (Harlan et al., 2019). But most studies only estimated simple correlations and
99 included socio-economic factors as control variables in regression analysis (Rufat &
100 Botzen, 2022). Moreover, most research mainly focused on influencing factors of risk
101 perception and flood preparedness (Ao et al., 2020; Sun & Sun, 2019; Ullah, Saqib,
102 Ahmad, & Fadlallah, 2020). The few attached importance to influence path between
103 flood risk perception and flood preparedness (Wachinger et al., 2018). Existing research
104 has extensively examined risk perception and flood preparedness in developed nations,
105 but the potential linkages between flood risk perception and disaster preparedness was
106 under-explored, particularly in developing countries (Scaini, Stritih, Brouillet, & Scaini,
107 2021; Keshun Zhang, Parks-Stamm, Ji, & Wang, 2021). Effective policies for flood
108 management could benefit from a more integrated intervention framework that
109 connected risk perception with flood preparedness.

110 Despite the continuous flood protection efforts, Nanjing has experienced
111 increasingly severe flood damage in recent years. This study examined flood risk
112 perception in Nanjing, and investigated transformation relationship between risk
113 perception and flood preparedness from the perspective of response intention and socio-
114 economic factors. This study aimed to: (1) identify the distribution characteristics of
115 risk perception and flood preparedness; (2) analyze the influence effect of different
116 factors combined with social-economic feature; (3) reveal the influence path between
117 risk perception and flood preparedness. **Fig. 1** illustrated the comprehensive framework
118 of the study.



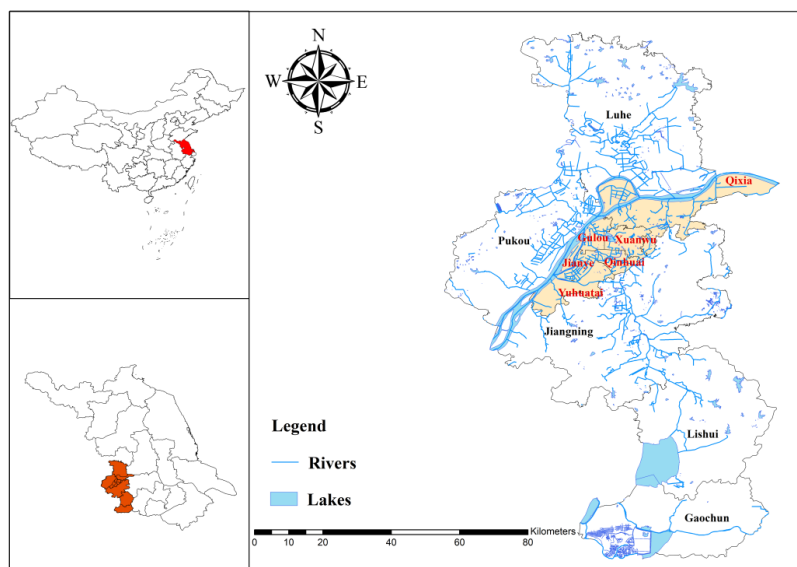
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Fig. 1. Overall framework of this study.

121 **2. Material and methods**

122 **2.1 Study region**



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Fig. 2. Study area

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Nanjing was located in the middle and lower reaches of Yangtze River in eastern China, with a municipal area of 6587.02 km². The city belonged to a typical subtropical and monsoon climate region, characterized by distinct seasonal changes and abundant



128 rainfall. Nanjing had jurisdiction over 11 urban district, 95 streets and 6 towns by 2021.
129 As one of national key flood control cities, Nanjing confronted with the conflict of rapid
130 urbanization and increasing floods (H. Zhang et al., 2021). Nanjing was estimated to
131 exhibit higher flood risk across various flood return periods (P. Wang, Li, Yu, & Zhang,
132 2021), especially in the central urban districts surrounding the Yangtze River (Li et al.,
133 2022). Consequently, this study focused on six districts (**Fig. 2**) of urban center to
134 explore the relationship between flood risk perception and flood preparedness for
135 fostering flood resilient cities.

136 **2.2 Survey design and variables measure**

137 This study developed a semi-structured questionnaire through Likert scale to
138 investigate flood risk perception in Nanjing. The survey primarily consisted of four
139 parts: (1) Socio-economic condition; (2) Flood risk perception; (3) Flood preparedness;
140 (4) Response intention. Comprehensive and detailed description of the questionnaire
141 was provided in **Supplementary material**. The first section collected information
142 about participants' socio-economic condition, including gender, age, district, education
143 background, living time, physical condition, exercise situation and life style
144 (particularly bad habits, such as smoking). Based on PMT, the second part measured
145 flood risk perception by examining both threat appraisal and coping appraisal.

146 Flood preparedness encompassed both adaptive and preventive behaviors in the
147 third section. Adaptive behavior involved a series of measures aimed at mitigating and
148 adapting to floods, while preventive behavior focused on actions taken to prevent and
149 reduce negative effects during flood events. The fourth section included a survey on



150 response intention and consisted of factors influencing flood risk perception and
151 preparedness. Additionally, flood risk knowledge referred to the level of grasping flood
152 related knowledge among local residents, while flood risk worry evaluated individuals'
153 fear and concern about floods. Furthermore, flood experience reflected the frequency
154 of exposure to flood disasters. Government trust revealed the degree of confidence in
155 government flood management, while flood disaster education measured the diversity
156 of education resources available for residents regarding floods. **Table 1** presented the
157 collected indicators and variables from the questionnaire survey.

158 **Table 1**

159 Indicator and variable measurement.

Indicator	Variable	Range
Flood risk perception	Threat appraisal	(1,5)
	Coping appraisal	(1,5)
Flood preparedness	Adaptive behavior	(1,5)
	Preventive behavior	(1,5)
	Flood risk knowledge	(1,5)
	Government trust	(1,5)
Response intention	Flood risk worry	(0,1)
	Flood experience	(0,1)
	Flood disaster education	(0,1)
	Gender	(1,2)
Socio-economic factors	Age	(1,7)
	District	(1,6)
	Education level	(1,5)
	Living time	(1,5)
	Health condition	(1,5)



Life style (0,1)

Exercise situation (0,1)

160 **2.3 Data collection**

161 This study conducted a survey in six districts of Nanjing: Gulou, Xuanwu, Jianye,
162 Qinhuai, Qixia and Yuhuatai district respectively. We implemented the preliminary test
163 of online questionnaire before officially issue to minimize the participants'
164 misunderstanding and confusion. Survey results were collected from interviewees and
165 the questionnaire was adjusted based on online feedback to reduce bias. We then
166 performed face-to-face questionnaire surveys in densely populated streets of Nanjing
167 from April 24, 2021 to April 30, 2021.

168 Interviewers received excellent survey skills training before formal interview, and
169 were organized into six groups with at least two members in each group. A group leader
170 was appointed to distribute and collect questionnaires, supervise and record the entire
171 process, and ensure the rationality and effectiveness of data acquisition. Each
172 interviewer introduced and emphasized the objectives of this questionnaire survey at
173 the beginning. Strictly following the principle of voluntary participation and
174 confidentiality, respondents were given enough time to review questionnaire content
175 adequately, and had the option to withdraw from survey at any time. Complete
176 questionnaire comprised 52 questions and required 15–20 minutes for completion
177 approximately. To encourage and appreciate for participation, interviewers presented
178 self-made gifts to respondents after finish. Eventually, this study distributed 844
179 questionnaires and obtained 737 valid questionnaires after excluding 107 invalid ones
180 with an effective rate of 87.32%.



181 2.4 Statistical analysis

182 By exporting the collected data to SPSS software, this study calculated each
183 indicator by averaging the corresponding variables, and conducted descriptive analysis
184 to reveal the distribution features of different indicators and variables. Mann-Whitney
185 U and Kruskal-Wallis statistical tests were nonparametric statistical test used to
186 compare the value of variables between two and several independent groups
187 respectively. We employed these tests to compare the average score of indicators and
188 variables and explore whether there were the statistically significant differences in
189 distribution. Correlation analysis were used to examine the influence factors of flood
190 risk perception and flood preparedness. Furthermore, this study implemented the
191 stepwise regression approach to reveal the impact of different factors on risk
192 perception and flood preparedness. Finally, we performed Model 5 in PROCESS
193 macro program of SPSS to capture the influence path between flood risk perception
194 and flood preparedness. All statistical analyses were conducted at a significance level
195 of 0.05.

196 3. Results

197 3.1 Descriptive statistical analysis

198 Cronbach's α (0.894) and KMO value (0.891) both exceeded 0.7 in this
199 questionnaire and illustrated the high reliability and validity. **Table 2** presented the
200 descriptive analysis about basic information of participants. Among 739 respondents,
201 there was a gender distribution with 43.8% males and 56.2% females. Most people
202 were aged from 18 to 25 years (27.5%), followed by 31-40 years (20.8%), 41-50 years



203 (14.5%), 26-30 years (12.5%), over 60years (11.9%), 51-60 years (11.4%) and below
204 18 years (1.4%). The majority of participants came from Jianye district (26.2%),
205 followed by Qixia (23.2%), Gulou (21.8%), Yuhuatai (11.7%), Xuanwu (10.2%), and
206 Qinhuai District (6.9%). Education level was mostly undergraduate (45.6%), middle
207 school (16.3%), high school (19.7%), postgraduate and above (11.5%) and elementary
208 school (6.9%). Regarding their residence duration, most participants lived in Nanjing
209 for above 10 years (51.4%), 1-3 years (17.0%), 3-5 years (11.9%), 5-10 years (11.9%),
210 and below 1 years (7.7%). More than half of respondents stayed in excellent health
211 (49.5%), better (34.7%) and general health (13.6%), while few people reported very
212 poor (0.4%) and poor (1.8%) health. The majority didn't smoke (81.1%) and 18.9%
213 showed the habit of smoking. Over half often engaged in regular exercising (61.2%)
214 and 38.8% lacked adequate exercise.

215 **Table 2**

216 Profile of socio-economic feature in respondents.

Characteristic	Description	Frequency	Rate
Gender	Male	323	43.8
	Female	414	56.2
Age	≤18 years	10	1.4
	18-25 years	203	27.5
	26-30 years	92	12.5
	31-40 years	153	20.8
	41-50 years	107	14.5
	51-60 years	84	11.4
	≥60 years	88	11.9



	Gulou	161	21.8
	Jianye	193	26.2
District	Qixia	171	23.2
	Qinhuai	51	6.9
	Xuanwu	75	10.2
	Yuhuatai	86	11.7
	Elementary school	51	6.9
Education level	Middle school	120	16.3
	High school	145	19.7
	Undergraduate	336	45.6
	Postgraduate and above	85	11.5
	Less than 1 years	57	7.7
Living time	1-3 years	125	17.0
	3-5 years	88	11.9
	5-10 years	88	11.9
	More than 10 years	379	51.4
	Very poor	3	0.4
Health condition	Poor	13	1.8
	General	100	13.6
	Better	256	34.7
Life style	Excellent	365	49.5
	Smoking	139	18.9
	Not smoking	598	81.1
Exercise situation	Regularly exercising	451	61.2
	Not exercising	286	38.8

217 **Table 3** showed the score of each variable and indicator. Flood risk perception kept
 218 at a medium level with the average score of 3.57. Residents exhibited a high level of
 219 threat appraisal and a medium level of coping appraisal. The average level of flood



220 preparedness was relatively high (4.05), and local participants demonstrated the high
 221 level of adaptive behavior (4.25) and medium level of preventive behavior (3.85).
 222 Furthermore, a medium level of flood risk knowledge and government trust was
 223 observed among respondents (2.73 and 2.94). There was also a low level of flood
 224 experience and flood disaster education (0.45 and 0.46). Flood risk worry showed a
 225 medium level (0.50), while participants had a relatively low level in response intention
 226 (2.73).

227 **Table 3**

228 Descriptive statistics of each indicator and variable.

Name	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Flood risk perception	1	5	3.57	0.68
• Threat appraisal	1	5	4.10	0.61
• Coping appraisal	1	5	3.03	1.07
Flood preparedness	1	5	4.05	0.76
• Adaptive behavior	1	5	4.25	0.79
• Preventive behavior	1	5	3.85	0.87
Response intention	1	5	2.87	0.79
• Flood risk knowledge	1	5	2.73	1.25
• Government trust	1	5	2.94	0.50
• Flood risk worry	0	1	0.50	1.15
• Flood experience	0	1	0.45	0.25
• Flood disaster education	0	1	0.46	0.50
Gender	1	2	1.56	0.50
Age	1	7	4.01	1.74
District	1	6	2.92	1.63
Education level	1	5	3.39	1.10



Living time	1	5	3.82	1.41
Health condition	1	5	4.31	0.80
Life style	0	1	0.19	0.39
Exercise situation	0	1	0.61	0.49

229 **3.2 Distribution test**

230 **Table 4-7** presented significant results from Mann-Whitney U test. In gender
 231 category, there were significant differences in adaptive behavior, preventive behavior,
 232 flood preparedness, flood risk worry and government trust. Males' mean rank was
 233 340.71, 336.66, 338.06, 343.22 and 392.47, while females demonstrated the mean rank
 234 of 391.07, 394.23, 393.14, 389.11 and 350.69 respectively. Women exhibited a higher
 235 level in flood preparedness, adaptative and preventive behavior, and flood risk worry,
 236 while men had a higher level of government trust. Regularly exercising people had
 237 higher levels of threat appraisal and flood risk perception, with average ranks of 389.37
 238 and 385.47, compared to those who did not exercise (336.88 and 343.02). Furthermore,
 239 individuals with flood risk worry exhibited higher levels of flood risk perception, flood
 240 preparedness and response intention, with mean rank of 387.33, 397.41 and 479.18.
 241 Groups with flood experience showed higher levels of flood risk perception and
 242 response intention (416.08 and 507.11).

243 **Table 4**

244 Mann-Whitney U test in gender.

Category	Gender		Z-value	P-value
	Mean rank			
	Male	Female		
Adaptive behavior	340.71	391.07	-3.22	0.00



Preventive behavior	336.66	394.23	-3.65	0.00
Flood preparedness	338.06	393.14	-3.49	0.00
Flood risk worry	343.22	389.11	-3.35	0.00
Government trust	392.47	350.69	-2.65	0.01

245 **Table 5**

246 Mann-Whitney U test in exercise situation.

Category	Exercise situation		Z-value	P-value
	Mean rank			
	Regularly exercising	Not exercising		
Flood risk perception	385.47	343.02	-2.64	0.01
Threat appraisal	389.37	336.88	-3.28	0.00

247 **Table 6**

248 Mann-Whitney U test in exercise situation.

Category	Flood risk worry		Z-value	P-value
	Mean rank			
	Yes	No		
Flood risk perception	387.33	350.42	0.02	0.02
Threat appraisal	398.91	338.68	-3.86	0.00
Flood preparedness	397.41	340.20	0.00	0.00
Adaptive behavior	386.47	351.29	0.02	0.02
Preventive behavior	401.09	336.47	0.00	0.00
Response intention	479.18	257.32	0.00	0.00

249 **Table 7**

250 Mann-Whitney U test in flood experience.

Category	Flood experience		Z-value	P-value
	Mean rank			
	Yes	No		



Flood risk perception	416.08	330.62	0.00	0.00
Coping appraisal	419.43	327.88	0.00	0.00
Response intention	507.11	256.41	0.00	0.00

251 **Table 8-11** displayed significant results from Kruskal-Wallis statistical test.
 252 Among age groups, individuals aged 31 to 40 showed a higher level in threat appraisal
 253 than those aged 18 to 25. Coping appraisal levels were lower in the 18-25 age group
 254 compared to those aged 51-60 and ≥ 60 years. Preventive behavior was lower among
 255 people aged 51-60 than those aged 18-25 and 31-40, respectively. People aged 51-60
 256 possessed more flood risk knowledge than those aged 18-25. Government trust was
 257 higher among individuals aged under 18 and 41 to 50 than aged 51 to 60. Flood disaster
 258 education level was higher in the 41-50 age group than in 18-25 age group. Flood risk
 259 perception was higher among individuals aged 51-60 and over 60 years than those aged
 260 18-25. Flood preparedness was higher among individuals aged 31 to 40 than those aged
 261 51 to 60 years, while response intention was higher within people aged 51-60 years than
 262 those aged 18-25.

263 **Table 8**
 264 Kruskal-Wallis test in age.

Category	Age							Sig.(p)
	Mean rank							
	≤ 18	18-25	26-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	≥ 60	
Threat appraisal	–	325.28	–	389.43	–	–	–	0.000
Coping appraisal	–	324.17	–	–	–	447.88	410.81	0.000



Preventive behavior	373.19	388.55	–	402.44	–	298.23	–	0.000
Flood risk knowledge	–	328.55	–	–	–	442.48	–	0.001
Government trust	543.8	–	–	–	414.45	312.82	–	0.005
Flood disaster education	–	397.46	–	–	305.3	–	–	0.004
Flood risk perception	–	321.87	–	–	–	418.44	405.55	0.000
Flood preparedness	–	–	–	414.17	–	315.46	–	0.009
Response intention	–	333.9	–	–	–	425.55	–	0.021

265 In terms of education level (**Table 9**), the average rank of threat appraisal for
 266 postgraduate and above was lower than that of high school and undergraduate. Coping
 267 appraisal for postgraduate was lower than that of middle school, high school and
 268 undergraduate. People with an undergraduate education exhibited a higher mean rank
 269 of preventive behavior than those in middle school. People with middle school and high
 270 school education possessed a higher level of flood risk knowledge than that of
 271 postgraduates and above. There was a higher level of flood disaster education at the
 272 undergraduate level than that of middle and high school. Individuals with postgraduate
 273 and higher levels of education showed a lower level of flood risk perception than those
 274 in middle school. Additionally, individuals with the undergraduate degree demonstrated
 275 a higher level of flood preparedness compared to those in middle school.

276 **Table 9**



277 Kruskal-Wallis test in education level.

Category	Education level					Sig.(p)
	Mean rank					
	Elementary school	Middle school	High school	Under-graduate	Postgraduate and above	
Threat appraisal	–	–	383.63	382.05	296.02	0.000
Coping appraisal	–	399.48	399.89	366.10	291.75	0.001
Preventive behavior	–	330.55	–	403.93	–	0.001
Flood risk knowledge	–	393.72	398.97	–	300.49	0.009
Flood disaster education	–	325.10	335.67	395.81	–	0.003
Flood risk perception	–	382.68	406.71	–	298.69	0.000
Flood preparedness	–	330.47	–	400.63	–	0.004

278 Moreover, people residing for over 10 years had the higher mean rank of coping
 279 appraisal than those living for less than 1 year, 1-3 years and 5-10 years. Living for less
 280 than 1 year brought a low level in coping appraisal than residing for 3-5 years.
 281 Individuals with residence duration of over 10 years grasped more flood risk knowledge
 282 than living time of less than 1 year, 1-3 years and 5-10 years. Mean rank of flood
 283 experience was higher for individuals residing for over 10 years than those living for
 284 less than 1 year, 1-3 years, and 3-5 years. People with over 10 years living time had a



285 higher level of flood risk perception and response intention than those residing for less
 286 than 1 year and 1-3 years. In **Table 11**, as physical health improved from better to
 287 excellent, there was the increasing trend in the mean rank of threat appraisal and flood
 288 risk perception. People with excellent health exhibited a higher level in preventive
 289 behavior than those with general health. And general and better health conditions had
 290 the lower mean rank of government trust than excellent health.

291 **Table 10**
 292 Kruskal-Wallis test in living time.

Category	Living time					Sig.(p)
	Mean rank					
	< 1 years	1-3 years	3-5 years	5-10 years	>10 years	
Coping appraisal	246.36	317.28	354.16	337.88	415.18	0.000
Flood risk knowledge	259.13	311.44	–	33.33	414.90	0.000
Flood experience	326.33	330.26	329.12	–	402.82	0.000
Flood risk perception	275.73	318.74	–	–	409.12	0.000
Response intention	–	319.23	–	322.77	406.30	0.000

293 **Table 11**
 294 Kruskal-Wallis test in health condition.

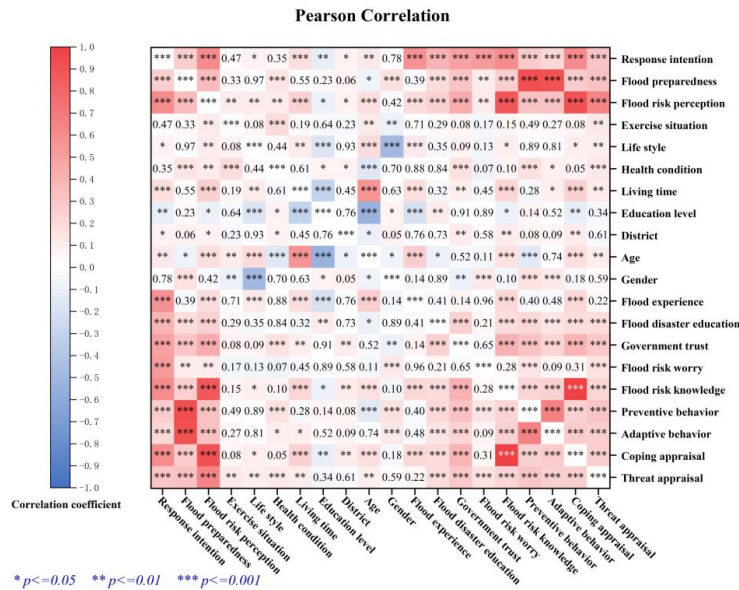
Category	Health condition	
	Mean rank	Sig.(p)



	Very poor	Poor	General	Better	Excellent	
Coping appraisal	–	–	–	329.43	400.45	0.000
Preventive behavior	–	–	326.03	–	399.35	0.001
Government trust	–	200.35	308.91	–	392.22	0.000
Flood risk perception	–	–	–	342.38	390.58	0.009

295 **3.3 Correlation analysis**

296 In **Fig. 3**, flood risk knowledge was significantly and positively related to coping
 297 appraisal and flood risk perception. There was the moderately positive and significant
 298 correlation between government trust and flood risk perception. Flood risk worry, flood
 299 disaster education and flood experience showed significant and weakly positive
 300 relationship with risk perception. Among socio-economic factors, gender exhibited no
 301 significant correlation with flood risk perception, and other variables were weakly
 302 related to flood risk perception. Government trust was significant and moderately
 303 positive correlated with flood preparedness, while flood risk knowledge, flood risk
 304 worry, flood disaster education and flood experience showed weakly related to flood
 305 preparedness. Only district, education level, living time, life style and exercise situation
 306 were unrelated to flood preparedness. Gender, age and health condition were weakly
 307 correlated to flood preparedness. Flood risk perception was significantly and positively
 308 related to response intention, but flood preparedness showed lower correlation with
 309 flood risk perception and intention response.



310

311

Fig. 3. Pearson correlation analysis.

312 **3.4. Influencing factors of risk perception**

313 **Table 12** presented the results of stepwise regression analysis. We selected all
 314 variables for regression analysis in model 1, and found that flood risk perception
 315 showed significant and positive effect while other variables exhibited relatively lower
 316 effects. Model 2 demonstrated a high goodness of fit (adjusted $R^2=0.788$) after
 317 removing socio-economic variables, and flood risk knowledge also maintained a higher
 318 influence (0.827) on flood risk perception. In model 3, the exclusion of flood risk
 319 knowledge resulted in a low goodness of fit (adjusted $R^2=0.246$). But government trust,
 320 flood experience, flood disaster education and flood risk worry significantly and
 321 positively influenced risk perception, indicated by increased regression coefficients.
 322 The effect of flood experience on risk perception shifted from insignificant to
 323 significant. Although flood risk knowledge significantly promoted risk perception, it



324 also inhibited and decreased the positive effects of other factors. Faced with insufficient
 325 flood risk knowledge, maintaining trust in government and recalling past flooding
 326 experience were crucial for enhancing flood risk perception.

327 **Table 12**

328 Stepwise regression analysis results of flood risk perception.

Variable	Standardized coefficient		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Flood risk knowledge	0.814***	0.827***	-
Flood risk worry	0.074***	0.067***	0.100**
Government trust	0.093***	0.094***	0.396***
Flood disaster education	0.060***	0.053***	0.146***
Flood experience	-0.010***	0.010	0.168***
Gender	0.057**	-	-
Age	0.067**	-	-
District	-0.027	-	-
Education level	0.010	-	-
Living time	0.010	-	-
Health condition	0.056**	-	-
Life style	0.057**	-	-
Exercise situation	0.038*	-	-
R ²	0.803	0.790	0.250
Adjusted R ²	0.800	0.788	0.246
F	227.270	549.538	61.083

*** P < 0.001, ** P < 0.01, * P < 0.05

329 This study categorized participants based on socio-economic feature to explore the
 330 impact of different factors. **Fig. 4** only listed the significant results of regression
 331 analysis and more detailed information was provided in **Supplementary materials**.

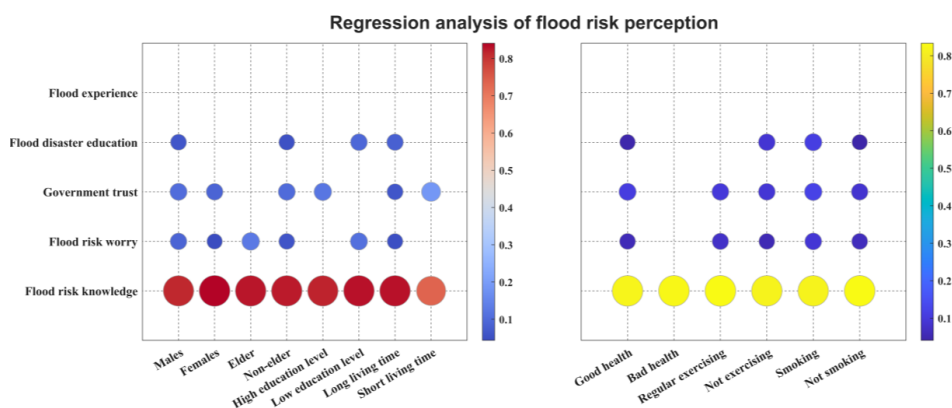


332 Among males, flood risk knowledge, flood risk worry, government trust and flood
333 disaster education positively affected flood risk perception, with standardized
334 coefficients of 0.815, 0.087, 0.105 and 0.062 respectively. In females, flood risk
335 knowledge, flood risk worry and government trust exhibited significant effects on risk
336 perception, with standardized coefficients of 0.841, 0.043 and 0.090 respectively. Flood
337 risk knowledge showed a greater impact among females, while flood risk worry and
338 government trust had a higher influence in males. Among the elderly, flood risk
339 knowledge and worry significantly affected flood risk perception with influence
340 coefficients of 0.828 and 0.128 respectively. Flood risk knowledge, flood risk worry,
341 government trust and flood disaster education showed significant effects (0.823, 0.059,
342 0.101 and 0.056) among young and middle-aged individuals. Compared with the non-
343 elderly, the elderly exhibited a higher influence of flood risk knowledge and worry on
344 risk perception.

345 In people with high education level, flood risk knowledge and government trust
346 significantly and positively affected flood risk perception (0.817 and 0.124). However,
347 for individuals with low education level, flood risk knowledge showed a higher impact
348 (0.831), and flood risk worry and flood disaster education significantly influenced risk
349 perception, with standardized coefficients of 0.109 and 0.093 respectively. For
350 individuals with a short living time, only flood risk knowledge and government trust
351 showed significant positive effects (0.734 and 0.187) to flood risk perception. But
352 among people with long living time, flood risk knowledge had a greater impact on risk
353 perception (0.829), while government trust exhibited a lower effect (0.064).



354 Additionally, flood risk worry and disaster education also showed significant effects
355 (0.051 and 0.083).



356

357

Fig. 4. Regression analysis of flood risk perception.

358 For individuals in good health, only flood risk knowledge significantly affected
359 risk perception (0.821). Among people in bad health, flood risk knowledge showed a
360 greater effect (0.824), and flood risk worry, government trust and flood disaster
361 education also affected risk perception with standardized coefficients of 0.059, 0.107
362 and 0.046. For individuals who regularly exercised, flood risk knowledge, flood risk
363 worry, government trust and flood disaster education showed significant positive effects
364 (0.817, 0.056, 0.091 and 0.090) on risk perception. However, among groups without
365 exercising, flood risk knowledge, flood risk worry and government trust showed a
366 lower impact, with standardized coefficients of 0.833, 0.076 and 0.097. For people with
367 bad habit, flood risk knowledge, flood risk worry, government trust and flood disaster
368 education showed significant effects (0.815, 0.093, 0.118 and 0.111) on risk perception.
369 But among groups without bad habit, the effect of flood risk knowledge was lower
370 (0.831), while flood risk worry, government trust and flood disaster showed a greater



371 impact on risk perception with standardized coefficients of 0.063, 0.086 and 0.041.

372 **3.5. Influencing factors of flood preparedness**

373 **Table 13** listed the stepwise regression results of flood preparedness. Threat
374 appraisal had a significant and positive influence (0.213), followed by government trust
375 (0.178), flood risk knowledge (0.140), flood disaster education (0.08) and flood risk
376 worry (0.07), while only flood experience exhibited a negative effect (-0.09). Lower
377 influence of threat appraisal on flood preparedness suggested that high risk perception
378 may be associated with insufficient flood preparedness behavior. This study also
379 considered socio-economic features as group categories, and explored the influence
380 effects of different factors (**Fig. 5**). **Supplementary materials** provided more detailed
381 information about stepwise regression.

382 In the high risk-perception groups, threat appraisal significantly and positively
383 affected flood preparedness (0.226), followed by flood disaster education (0.213), flood
384 risk worry (0.162), government trust (0.123), flood risk knowledge (0.103). Only flood
385 experience had the negative effect (-0.171). For the low risk-perception groups, threat
386 appraisal had a higher influence (0.309) on flood preparedness, but other factors were
387 not significant. Among individuals with low response intention, only threat appraisal
388 and government trust had significant positive effects on flood preparedness (0.211 and
389 0.172). For people with high response intention, the effect of threat appraisal and
390 government trust increased and reached 0.216 and 0.193 respectively, while flood risk
391 knowledge, flood disaster education and flood experience also exhibited significant
392 influences (0.217, 0.106 and -0.112). High response intention improved the influence



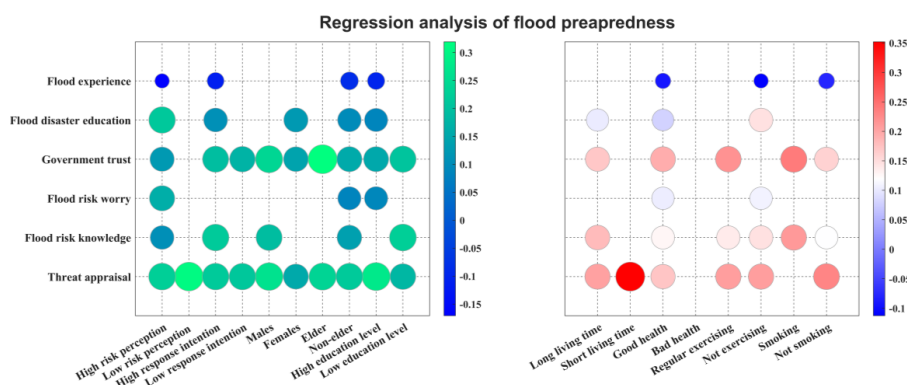
393 effect of threat appraisal and government trust and led to significant effects of other
394 different factors.

395 **Table 13**

396 Stepwise regression analysis results of flood preparedness.

Variable	Standardized coefficients	p-value
Threat appraisal	0.213	0.000
Flood risk knowledge	0.140	0.000
Flood risk worry	0.072	0.034
Government trust	0.178	0.000
Flood disaster education	0.075	0.032
Flood experience	-0.078	0.024
R ²	0.184	
Adjusted R ²	0.177	
F	27.439	

397 Among males, threat appraisal, flood risk knowledge and government trust had
398 significant effects on flood preparedness (0.263, 0.192 and 0.240). In females, threat
399 appraisal, government trust, and flood disaster education significantly affected flood
400 preparedness (0.154, 0.141, and 0.123). The effect of threat appraisal was crucial in
401 males compared to females. Among the elderly, only threat appraisal and government
402 trust had significant and positive effects on flood preparedness (0.237 and 0.319). But
403 in non-elderly individuals, the influence of threat appraisal and government trust was
404 lower (0.217 and 0.155). Furthermore, flood risk knowledge, flood risk worry, flood
405 disaster education and flood experience significantly affected flood preparedness, with
406 standardized coefficient of 0.136, 0.028, 0.096 and -0.086 respectively.



407
408

Fig. 5. Regression analysis of flood preparedness.

409 In people with high education background, threat appraisal, flood risk worry,
410 government trust and flood experience significantly affected flood preparedness
411 (0.276, 0.088, 0.152 and -0.102). But among individuals with low education, the effect
412 of threat appraisal and government trust declined and reached 0.180 and 0.205
413 respectively. Flood risk knowledge also had a positive influence on flood preparedness
414 (0.226). Among individuals with long living time, threat appraisal, flood risk
415 knowledge, government trust and flood disaster education showed significant and
416 positive effects on flood preparedness (0.204, 0.180, 0.169 and 0.102). But for those
417 with short residence duration, only threat appraisal exerted a significant effect (0.352).

418 For people in bad health, threat appraisal and flood risk knowledge exhibited
419 relatively higher effects (0.602 and 0.292), but none of the variables were statistically
420 significant. Among groups in good health, although only flood experience had the
421 negative effect (-0.091), all variables affected flood preparedness significantly and
422 positively. In people without exercising, threat appraisal, flood risk knowledge and
423 government trust showed significant and positive effects on risk perception (0.207,



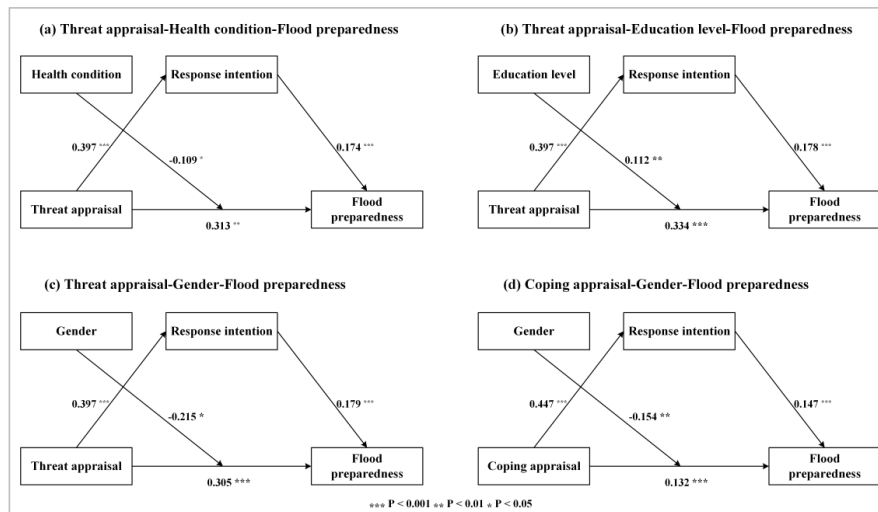
424 0.147 and 0.116). But among groups with regular exercising, the effect of threat
425 appraisal and government trust improved and achieved 0.208 and 0.218 respectively,
426 while the influence of flood risk knowledge decreased with standardized coefficients
427 of 0.137. For individuals without bad habit, threat appraisal, flood risk knowledge and
428 government trust had significant effects on flood preparedness (0.229, 0.119 and 0.161),
429 while only flood experience exhibited a negative influence (-0.078). However, among
430 people with bad habit, the effect of flood risk knowledge and government trust
431 improved, and both significantly and positively affected flood preparedness (0.210 and
432 0.238)

433 **3.6 Influence path of flood preparedness**

434 This study examined the moderating and mediating effect and explored the
435 influence path between flood risk perception and flood preparedness. **Supplementary**
436 **materials** presented more detailed illustration. Risk perception, flood preparedness,
437 response intention and social-economic factors acted as independent, dependent,
438 mediating and moderating variables respectively. In **Fig. 6(a)**, health condition played
439 the negative moderating role between threat appraisal and flood preparedness. Threat
440 appraisal had significant and positive effects on response intention (0.397) and flood
441 preparedness (0.313), while response intention also positively influenced flood
442 preparedness (0.174). Under the influence of health condition and response intention,
443 the direct effect of threat appraisal on flood preparedness was greater than indirect effect.
444 The slope of low, medium and high moderation changed obviously and tended to be
445 gentle in **Fig. 7(a)**. With the increasing moderation effect, health condition interfered



446 with the influence of threat appraisal on flood preparedness. In **Fig. 7(b)**, as health
447 condition worsened (M-1SD), threat appraisal exhibited a significant and positive
448 prediction effect on flood preparedness (Slope =0.400). The prediction effect of threat
449 appraisal gradually weakened with improved health condition. Threat appraisal showed
450 a positive prediction effect (Slope =0.238), as health condition became good (M+1SD).
451 Improvement in health condition reduced the positive effect of threat appraisal on flood
452 preparedness.



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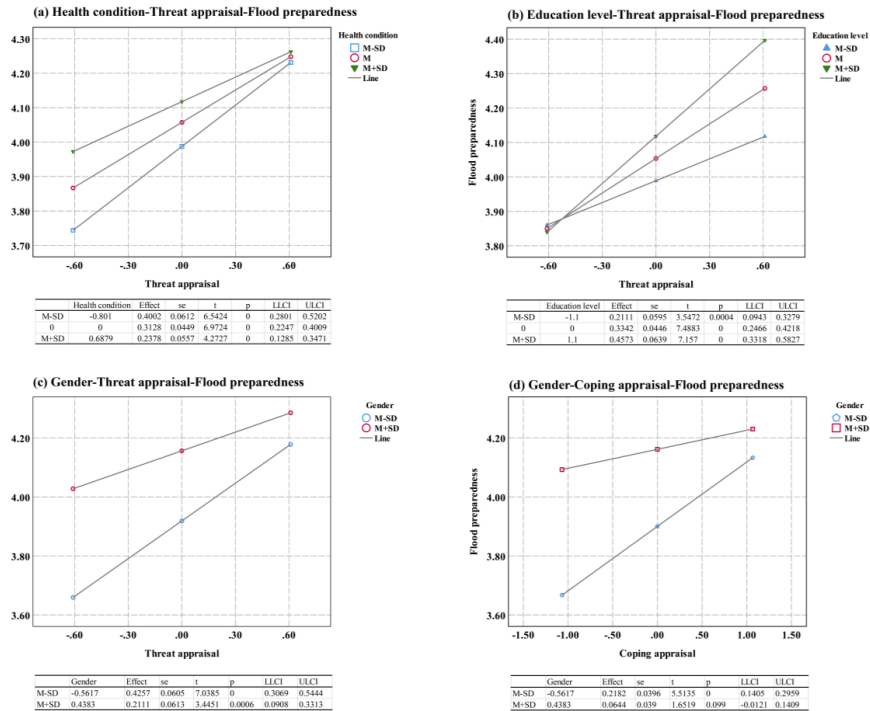
Fig. 6. Influence path of flood preparedness.

455 Relationship between threat appraisal and flood preparedness was positively
456 moderated by education level. Threat appraisal showed significant and positive effects
457 on response intention and flood preparedness (0.334) in **Fig. 6(b)**. Response intention
458 also demonstrated a positive effect on flood preparedness (0.178). Direct effect of threat
459 appraisal on flood preparedness was greater than indirect effect under the impact of
460 education level and response intention. Slope test revealed that, in **Fig. 7(b)**, when



461 education level was low (M-1SD), threat appraisal showed a positive prediction effect
462 on flood preparedness (0.211). When education level was high (M+1SD), threat
463 appraisal also significantly and positively predicted flood preparedness with greater
464 prediction effect (0.457). As education level improved, there was an ascending trend in
465 the predictive effect of threat appraisal.

466 Gender also played the negative moderating effect between threat appraisal and
467 flood preparedness **in Fig. 6(c)**. Threat appraisal exhibited positive effects on response
468 intention and flood preparedness (0.305), and response intention also had a positive
469 effect (0.179). With the influence of gender and response intention, direct effect of
470 threat appraisal on flood preparedness was more substantial than indirect effect. **In Fig.**
471 **7(c)**, for individuals with male gender (M-1SD), threat appraisal positively predicted
472 flood preparedness (0.426). For individuals with female gender (M+1SD), threat
473 appraisal positively still showed a significant and positive prediction effect (0.211).
474 Predictive effect of threat appraisal on flood preparedness was essential in the male
475 group compared to females.



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Fig. 7. Moderating effect on flood preparedness.

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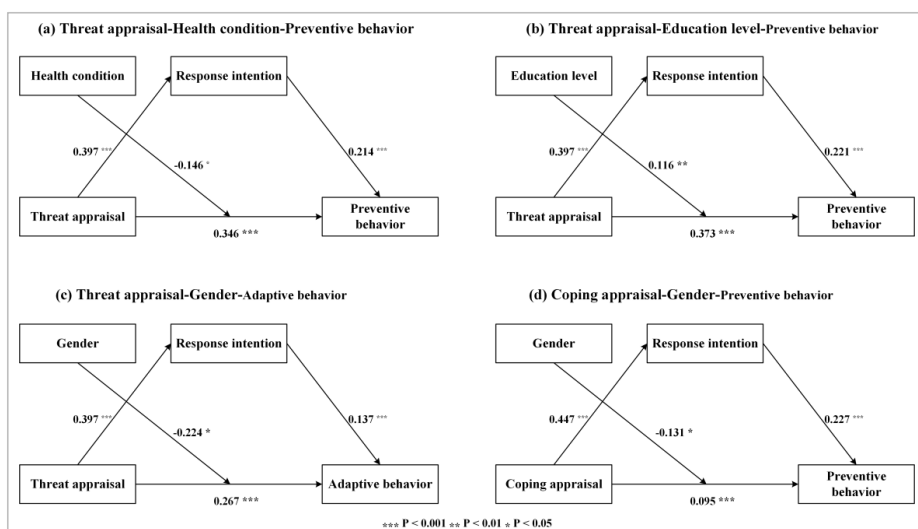
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Gender negatively moderated the relationship between coping appraisal and flood preparedness. In Fig. 6(d), coping appraisal positively influenced response intention (0.447) and flood preparedness (0.132). Response intention also showed a positive effect on flood preparedness (0.147). Under the influence of gender and response intention, coping appraisal exhibited a greater direct effect on flood preparedness than indirect effect. In Fig. 7(d), when gender was male (M-1SD), coping appraisal positively predicted flood preparedness (0.218). When gender was female (M+1SD), coping appraisal represented a positive but insignificant prediction effect (0.064). Coping appraisal had a lower predictive effect on flood preparedness among females.



487

488

Fig. 8. Influence differences on adaptive and preventive behavior.

489

This study also explored the behavior differences of flood preparedness influenced by flood risk perception, response intention and social-economic factors. Health condition played a negative moderating effect between threat appraisal and preventive behavior, and response intention showed the moderation effect in **Fig. 8(a)**. Threat appraisal could transform into preventive behavior under the influence of response intention and health condition. Slope test (**Fig. 9(a)**) revealed that prediction effect between threat appraisal and preventive behavior diminished with improved health condition. Additionally, education level displayed a moderating effect between threat appraisal and preventive behavior (**Fig. 8(b)**). Threat appraisal could transform into preventive behavior under the influence of education level and response intention. But prediction effect reduced as education level increased based on slope test (**Fig. 9(b)**).

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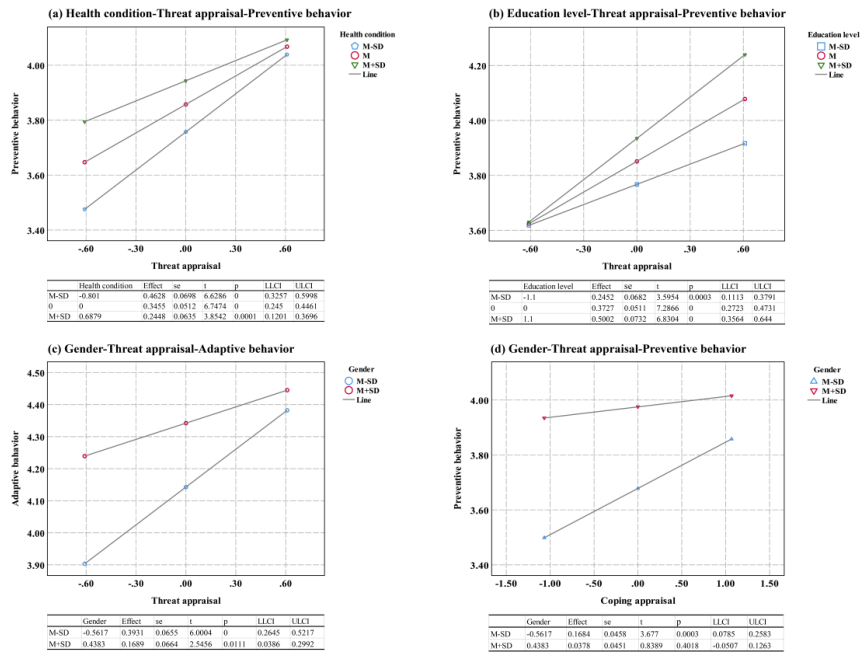
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Gender played a moderation effect between threat appraisal and adaptive behavior.

Threat appraisal could transform into adaptive behavior with the effect of response and



502 gender (**Fig. 8(c)**). When gender was male (M-1SD), threat appraisal demonstrated a
 503 stronger positive prediction effect on adaptive behavior (0.458) in **Fig. 9(c)**.
 504 Furthermore, coping appraisal could transform into preventive behavior under the
 505 mediating effect of response intention and the moderation effect of gender (**Fig. 8(d)**).
 506 When gender was male (M-1SD), coping appraisal predicted positively preventive
 507 behavior (0.168) in **Fig. 9(d)**. When gender was female (M+1SD), coping appraisal had
 508 a weak and statistically insignificant prediction effect on preventive behavior (0.0378).
 509 Risk perception was more likely to be translated into preventive behavior among males.



510

511 **Fig. 9. Moderating effect on adaptive and preventive behavior.**

512 **4. Discussion**

513 This study revealed no significant difference in risk perception between genders,
 514 but females demonstrated a higher level of flood preparedness, consistent with previous



515 research (Rana et al., 2020; Rasool et al., 2022). Individuals who regularly exercised
516 exhibited higher risk perception, because adequate physical activity enhanced their
517 response and judgment capabilities, and thereby made cognitive activities more active.
518 The elderly, particularly those aged 51-60 and above 60, showed higher risk perception
519 yet lower flood preparedness. Often regarded as socially vulnerable groups, the elderly
520 were more probably perceived higher risk (Harlan et al., 2019), and due to insufficient
521 energy and reaction, they struggled to undertake practical behaviors in response to
522 hazards. Higher risk perception was observed on groups with low education level, while
523 those with high education level showed a higher level of flood preparedness. People
524 with lower educational degree, typically associated with lower social status, were more
525 inclined to engage in occupations that are dangerous or risky (Bollettino et al., 2020;
526 Kiani, Najam, & Rana, 2022), which incentivized them to proactively perceive flood
527 risks. But highly educated people sought diverse information about disasters and
528 prepared adequately for floods (Rana et al., 2020). Long living time made people
529 become acquainted with local conditions, leading to a positive perception of flood risk.
530 People who experienced and worried about flood displayed the higher risk perception
531 and made adequate preparation for floods in our findings. Past flood experiences tended
532 to trigger risk perception and a greater intention to take adjustment action (Ao et al.,
533 2020). Individuals were more likely to declare higher risk perception and preparedness,
534 when floods were associated with negative emotions or memories (Rufat & Botzen,
535 2022).

536 Enough high threat appraisal could trigger coping appraisal (Schlef et al., 2018),



537 which both caused the higher protection motivation and promoted the mitigation
538 measures (Kurata et al., 2022). Despite finding the high threat appraisal and the medium
539 coping appraisal, threat appraisal might not reach the necessary threshold that
540 effectively triggered coping appraisal, and coping appraisal showed no effect on flood
541 preparedness in our results. Individuals tended to rely on threat appraisal to perceive
542 risk and failed to generate an adequate coping appraisal, leading to insufficient risk
543 perception. Therefore, risk perception struggled in translating into flood preparedness,
544 resulting in the unbalanced relationship with flood preparedness. The influence of threat
545 appraisal on flood preparedness was greater in groups with low risk perception
546 compared to those with high risk perception. The transformation of low risk perception
547 into flood preparedness could be attributed to the relatively stronger effect of threat
548 appraisal on flood preparedness. The association between high risk perception and low
549 flood preparedness could arise from the weak effect of threat appraisal on flood
550 preparedness. However, due to the significant influence of other factors, such as
551 government trust, individuals were more likely to be better prepared for floods among
552 groups with high risk perception.

553 Various social-economic characteristic influenced individuals' preferences for
554 different ways to achieve risk perception and flood preparedness, based on regression
555 analysis. Females had higher flood worry and depended more on flood knowledge to
556 perceive risk than males, possibly owing to the general cognition that women were
557 more vulnerable and sensitive (Eryılmaz Türkkân & Hırca, 2021). But flood worry
558 showed lower effect on risk perception than that in males. It was suggested that females



559 should keep calm, and improve risk perception through flood knowledge. The elderly
560 relied on both flood knowledge and worry for risk perception. Although they exhibited
561 a greater influence of government trust on flood preparedness, lower level of
562 government trust could potentially hinder their flood preparedness efforts. People with
563 low education level preferred flood knowledge for risk perception, and were advised to
564 bolster their trust in government to improve flood preparedness. Individuals with longer
565 residency durations relied more on flood knowledge for risk perception, while those
566 with short living time, unfamiliar with local floods, depended more on government trust
567 for risk perception and favored threat appraisal to achieve flood preparedness. Groups
568 with poor health relied more on flood knowledge for flood preparedness, as adequate
569 risk knowledge could compensate for physical functional limitations. Individuals with
570 regular exercising group showed a preference for threat appraisal in preparation for
571 floods. Moreover, individuals with bad habits, considered psychologically fragile and
572 sensitive, preferred flood risk worry and knowledge, and government trust for risk
573 perception.

574 In our study, risk perception, including both threat and coping appraisal,
575 demonstrated a direct influence on flood preparedness, and response intention also
576 exhibited a mediating effect. Socio-economic factors, especially education level and
577 health condition, played a moderating effect between risk perception and flood
578 preparedness. People with high education level could better deal with complicated
579 information and act promptly during the time lag between action and outcome (Dootson
580 et al., 2022). As health condition improved, there was a negative predictive effect of



581 threat appraisal on flood preparedness. Though people reporting good health displayed
582 confidence with physical function, overconfidence could hinder the translation of risk
583 perception into preparedness (Bollettino et al., 2020), and these groups should attach
584 importance to timely feedback in response to floods. Among males, despite the low
585 level of flood preparedness, threat and coping appraisal were stronger predictors of
586 flood preparedness. With the effect of response intention and socio-economic factors,
587 risk perception could transform into flood preparedness, and caused the differences of
588 preventive and adaptive behaviors. People with high education level would more
589 probably perceive risk and engage in preventive behavior against flooding. Groups with
590 bad health were more likely to perceive flood risk, and adopt preventive measures.

591 This study revealed the influence of socio-economic factors on risk perception and
592 flood preparedness. But we only found the influence path in part of factors and results
593 may not be generalized in all the socio-economic characteristics. Rationality and
594 reliability of influence path need further empirical validation in future studies. With the
595 climate change, the adoption of different behaviors was significantly influenced by how
596 individuals perceived and evaluated risk (Bodoque, Díez-Herrero, Amerigo, García, &
597 Olcina, 2019). When risk events were associated with adequate benefits, individuals
598 tended to exhibit a preference for adaptive behaviors (Keshun Zhang et al., 2021).
599 Consequently, comprehensive analysis of benefits and costs was crucial in
600 understanding risk perception and preparedness.

601 **5. Conclusion**

602 We designed and conducted a questionnaire survey to explore influence



603 relationship between risk perception and flood preparedness. Participants exhibited the
604 medium perception of food risk and demonstrated higher flood preparedness. High
605 levels of risk perception were observed on groups of regular exercising, the elderly,
606 flood experience, low education level, long living time and flood worry. Higher floods
607 preparedness was more prevalent among groups of females, the elderly and high
608 education level. Individuals tended to rely predominantly on threat appraisal to perceive
609 risk, and failed to trigger the adequate coping appraisal. This process resulted in a
610 challenging translation of risk perception into flood preparedness, accompanied with
611 unbalanced relationship. Groups with distinct social-economic features showed
612 different preferences to realize risk perception and flood preparedness. Females relied
613 more on flood knowledge to perceive risk and were suggested to keep calm and enhance
614 risk perception through flood knowledge. Elderly individuals and people with low
615 education level also depended on flood knowledge for risk perception, while lower
616 government trust possibly hindered taking flood preparedness. Path analysis indicated
617 that threat appraisal could transform into flood preparedness, influenced by response
618 intention, education level, or health status condition. Groups with high education level
619 or bad health would more probably perceive risk and engage in preventive behavior.
620 This study provided essential strategies for promoting flood preparedness in response
621 to floods. Future research should consider the benefits and costs associated with risk to
622 reveal the heterogeneity of preparedness behaviors.

623 **Author contribution**

624 **Yabo Li:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. **Peng Wang:**



625 Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision.

626 **Declaration of interests**

627 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
628 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
629 paper.

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