

Thinking Fast and Slow in Disaster Decision-making with Smart City Digital Twins

Many cities are vulnerable to disaster-related mortality and economic loss. Smart City Digital Twins can be used to facilitate disaster decision-making and influence policy, but first they must accurately capture, predict, and adapt to the city's dynamics, including the varying pace at which changes unfold.

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1 Cities are increasingly subject to stressors such as heat waves,
2 hurricanes, wildfires, rising sea levels, tsunamis, windstorms,
3 and epidemics. Close to 60% of cities with a population greater
4 than 300,000 are facing high risk of exposure to cyclones, floods,
5 droughts, earthquakes, landslides, and volcanic eruptions with a
6 high degree of vulnerability to disaster-related mortality and
7 economic losses [1]. Local governments, planners, and policy
8 makers play a critical role in managing and reducing such risks,
9 and strengthening cities' resilience and response capacity. To
10 this end, cities are leveraging data, technological advancements,
11 and computational capabilities to facilitate disaster decision-
12 making. However, effective data-driven decision-making—
13 whether it is during preparation or recovery, during moments of
14 crisis, or in the midst of an ongoing disaster—requires a robust
15 capacity for capturing the city's dynamics. This entails
16 recurrently sensing and modeling the state of infrastructure, the
17 human activities unfolding over and enabled by the
18 infrastructure, and their complex interactions, thereby predicting
19 the states of stability and change (i.e., evolution of urban
20 systems). Although the widespread proliferation of sensor
21 installations in cities and the availability of unprecedented levels
22 of data about human-infrastructure interactions brings the
23 promise of improved decision-making, our computational
24 approaches in capturing, predicting, reacting, and adapting to
25 changes in the state of our urban systems need to mirror the pace
26 of change for that promise to be realized.

27 Fast and Slow Urban Dynamics

28 Change processes in urban human-infrastructure systems do not
29 occur on a single timescale, but as a mix of slow incremental
30 changes in the physical structure of cities (e.g., transport
31 construction with an average lifetime of decades) with a range
32 of fast fluctuations (e.g., daily mobility) influencing the way
33 these changes unfold [2]. Similarly, control responses to these
34 changing phenomena are only needed at certain cycles and are
35 driven by the urgency of applicable decisions to be made. For
36 example, managing highway throughputs, modeled for routine
37 operations, demands a slower pace of decision-making than
38 during emergency evacuations when throughput capacities are

39 impacted by the emergency event (e.g., flooding during a
40 hurricane).

41 As conceptually illustrated in Figure 1, fast and slow change
42 processes in the real world are reacted to by fast and slow control
43 responses. Data-driven disaster decision-making is analogous to
44 Daniel Kahneman's Nobel Prize-winning research on human
45 decision-making and the two—fast and slow—systems that
46 support human decisions [3]. Kahneman's theory suggests that
47 human cognition is governed by two systems: system 1, fast
48 mode of thinking driven by intuition and heuristic processes, and
49 system 2, slow, more analytical, mode of thinking. However,
50 data-driven disaster decision-making is driven both by the
51 decision maker's thinking process, and by the quality of the data-
52 driven model in use in capturing fast and slow change processes
53 in the real world. Therefore, it is crucial that our computational
54 models evolve to account for fast and slow urban dynamics.

55 *[insert Figure 1 approximately here]*

56 When Change is Fast

57 Capturing and modeling the real world becomes particularly
58 critical when the change processes are fast. In developing
59 predictive models for slower change processes (e.g., climate
60 prediction on the scale of years to decades), we tend to rely on
61 slow retrospective data with lower levels of uncertainty. As the
62 pace of change increases (e.g., flooding on the scale of minutes
63 to hours), we are faced with higher levels of uncertainty coupled
64 with curtailed response times. In other words, when change is
65 fast (e.g., in the event of an earthquake), rapid response relies on
66 the quality of fast decision-making. This is informed by the
67 speed of capturing and predicting states of change in the real
68 world through real-time and predicted data, as we can no longer
69 only rely on retrospective data. Timely predictions of weather
70 variables (that is, cloud coverage, precipitation, snow, wind
71 speed, temperature, humidity, visibility loss, lighting, and so
72 forth), for example, can enable short-term weather—especially
73 severe weather—predictions. Predictions on the scale of minutes
74 and hours are essential in informing early warning systems,
75 enabling rapid emergency response, and initiating timely
76 communication with communities. In 2020 alone, 60,714 such

77 events in the US resulted in 585 deaths and 1,708 injuries [4].
78 Such predictions can inform decisions on weather related
79 accidents and could result in fast decisions that save more lives.

80 Smart City Digital Twins

81 A promising data-informed computational approach to modeling
82 and predicting a range of phenomena in urban areas is the
83 emergence of Smart City Digital Twins (SCDTs) [5]. SCDTs are
84 “living digital replicas of a city that are continuously updated
85 with real-time data and analytics on interactions between
86 humans, infrastructure, and technology” [6] that can offer more
87 holistic views of the changes that take place in a city. They
88 couple real and simulated versions of city infrastructure systems
89 to track states of spatiotemporal flux and create synergistic
90 feedback loops between the two systems, offering the promise
91 of a real-time decision-making support system for smart cities.
92 As it evolves in parallel with the real system, a SCDT enables
93 hyperlocal decision-making through monitoring, assessment,
94 and “*what if*” scenario prediction and adaptation across urban
95 systems [5, 7]. However, such capacity requires the digital twin
96 to be progressively cognizant of the pace and magnitude of
97 change processes across urban human-infrastructure systems at
98 varying timescales. Planners, policy makers, and government
99 officials are not only faced with a dyadic fast- and slow-decision-
100 making, but also with a range of in-between layers of transitional
101 states across all phases of the emergency management cycle (i.e.,
102 mitigation, preparedness, response, recovery [8]). While
103 planners may be well prepared to make decisions on slow
104 changing phenomena (related to preparedness and devising
105 mitigation strategies), control decisions made during fast
106 changing response times can very well generate new feedback
107 loops of human-infrastructure interactions that would challenge
108 the reliability of previous decisions made. Once the pace of
109 decision-making goes beyond the threshold of urgency and the
110 influencing factors become dynamic, a SCDT needs to be able
111 to adapt and autonomously capture and predict across a dynamic
112 range of changing phenomenon, which will depend on whether
113 the conditions require preparing for, reacting to, or recovering
114 from a disaster event.

115 Model Synthesis and Nowcasting

116 Synthesizing disaster dynamics across multiple timescales in
117 SCDT decision-making models is critical in providing timely
118 responses to various disaster control measures such as
119 fluctuating demand for infrastructure services, allocation of
120 assets, and managing risks. Synchronization of a SCDT, ideally
121 done in real-time, crucially relies on the availability of
122 uninterrupted data from the real system. Heterogeneous urban
123 data that progressively feed the SCDT are obtained at mixed (fast
124 and slow) frequencies, often with substantial latencies, which
125 complicate the data fusion process. Dynamic association of
126 SCDTs with the city at both levels of data fusion and predictive
127 model generation, while incorporating all the endogenous and
128 exogenous variables across fast and slow timescales, is complex.

129 Current understanding of the research community on how digital
130 twins should best integrate heterogeneous data generated at
131 mixed frequencies to model city evolutionary dynamics is
132 limited. In order for the modeling efforts to be based on a more
133 complete understanding of urban dynamics across mixed
134 frequencies of changing phenomena, and driven by the desired
135 (fast) pace of decision-making, we must advance our
136 understanding of the multi-timescale nature of digital twin
137 dynamic modeling.

138 Among dynamic models accounting for multiple timescales, a
139 number of studies have shown that mixed frequency nowcasting
140 models [9]–[12] are capable of handling irregularities of
141 heterogeneous data (i.e., mixed frequencies and latencies) in
142 real-time and recursively updating predictions. Nowcasting,
143 increasingly used in meteorology, economics, and healthcare,
144 refers to an objective, near-term (often ranging from +0–6-hrs)
145 estimate of current states, or short-term forecasting. It relies
146 heavily on the availability of rapidly updated, high-resolution
147 observations. However, current nowcasting models have limited
148 representation of physical processes and the object of interest is
149 often low frequency variables such as quarterly gross domestic
150 product (GDP) growth. We lack scientific research investigating
151 the applicability and scalability of nowcasting approaches in
152 developing integrated predictive models of SCDTs for dynamic
153 disaster decision-making across both fast and slow timescales.

154 Vector auto regressive (VAR) models [13], for example, are
155 widely used in macroeconomics to jointly model the dynamics
156 of economic variables. Despite the dependency of each variable
157 on past patterns of all other variables, patterns of correlation of
158 the forecast errors in these models remain unconstrained. Such
159 overparameterization becomes problematic in the already high
160 dimensional setting of SCDTs, with both static and dynamic
161 variables. Bayesian VARs (BVARs), incorporate a naïve prior
162 model that assumes random-walk evolution for all variables.
163 However, the challenge of making inferences on the model’s
164 parameters in the face of data irregularities (i.e., missing data,
165 mixed frequency, and so forth) when nowcasting with large
166 BVAR models remains.

167 Dynamic Factor Models (DFMs) [11] assume that observations
168 of different variables in time are driven by a few unobserved
169 dynamic factors, and features specific to each variable are
170 captured by errors. These models handle the mixed-frequency
171 data by initiating the model at the highest available data
172 frequency and treating the lower frequency data as a filtered
173 version of latent high-frequency data that are missing at certain
174 intervals using likelihood-based methods and Kalman filtering
175 techniques [11]. More complex models integrated with Machine
176 Learning (ML) algorithms are particularly suitable for
177 improving the DFM by handling data with a larger number of
178 possible regressions [14], although these models are more
179 effective for slower timescale (e.g., seasonal) predictions. In
180 capturing disaster dynamics at a city scale, these models need to
181 both scale to encompass the increasing dimensionality and to
182 control for exogenous variations along with their long vs. short-

lived effects. High dimensionality is often addressed by model approximation, which may compromise the ability to capture interdependencies of human-infrastructure interactions.

More recently, researchers have established promising mathematical foundations for digital twin modeling and coupling dynamical systems based on probabilistic graphical models integrated within data-driven analysis and decision-making feedback loops [15]. However, in order to achieve scalability for SCDTs, we are still challenged by the need for improved parameterization inclusive of appropriate exogenous controls, reduced order modeling, and model assumptions to be relaxed.

Concluding Remarks

Change processes across urban human-infrastructure systems occur at not a single, but a range of temporal scales and we are faced with the challenging task of modeling a range of dynamic associations between SCDTs and the real city infrastructure. Building on existing models that can, with limitations, capture irregularities of scale and mixed frequency data (e.g., BVAR/DFM models), future research on digital twin modeling should advance in the direction of multi-timescale prediction as a critical next step in supporting dynamic disaster decision-making. The bottleneck in this direction is encompassing increasing dimensionality while capturing mixed frequency data and controlling for exogenous controls with varying temporal effects. Investigating computational methods by which digital twins can best integrate heterogeneous data generated at mixed frequencies to model city evolutionary dynamics is central to this effort. Inevitably, dynamic modeling of SCDTs also escalates into the spatial dimension. Identifying the most relevant spatial scale and aggregation by which disaster dynamics and real world change processing need to be captured is yet another poorly explored area of research. Future research should expand computational modeling efforts in all three dimensions of time, space, and frequency, investigating ways to control for both endogenous and exogenous change processes in urban systems. Understanding the multi-spatiotemporal scale nature of SCDT dynamic modeling is a first step towards providing timely responses to various control measures in urban disaster and risk management.

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Author Contributions

N.M. and J.T. conceived and designed the research, wrote the first draft, edited the manuscript, contributed to revisions, and approved the manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Fast and slow disaster decision-making dynamics.

a, Fast (e.g., earthquake, tsunami) and slow (hurricane, wildfire) onset disaster events result in change processes in real cities that vary in terms of the pace and duration of change. **b**,

289 Heterogeneous data needs to be captured at mixed-frequency and
290 integrated into Smart City Digital Twin (SCDT) models in real-
291 time at the corresponding frequencies that change processes are
292 taking place. Both fast and slow modes are integrated into the
293 same SCDT model, which is progressively updated in parallel
294 with changes in the real world. **c**, A SCDT informs decision-

295 makers who must use a combination of fast and slow thinking to
296 adaptively devise interventions at various levels of urgency. **d**,
297 Decision-makers generate time critical decisions that impact the
298 real environment and the cycle continues as new interventions—
299 and ultimately new policies/strategies—generate new, iterative
300 change processes in the real world.

