

Integrated Regional Resilience Assessment Platform for Interdependent Systems

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ABSTRACT


Computer simulations are critical for assessing the resilience of civil infrastructure to natural hazards. To support efficient and comprehensive analyses that account for interdependencies among infrastructure systems, an integrated platform that spans the full resilience evaluation process, from damage to recovery, is essential. This paper presents such a platform by linking SimCenter's R2D tool, together with embedded infrastructure system operation simulators, to the recovery simulator pyrecodes. Compared to state-of-the-art post-disaster recovery simulation tools, the proposed platform offers three key advantages: first, it employs high-fidelity traffic flow and potable water delivery simulators to improve the accuracy of resource allocation and the representation of system interdependencies in recovery simulations; second, it streamlines continuous system performance evaluation for interdependent systems considering the change in both resource supply and demand, thereby facilitating quantitative assessment of system resilience; and third, it provides an integrated open-source framework that supports reconfiguration and extension, enabling the continuous incorporation of newer and more advanced regional-scale simulators and allowing flexible levels of simulation fidelity across infrastructure systems. Thus, the proposed simulation platform establishes a unique and foundational framework for future integrated regional resilience modeling and assessment. The integration is achieved through two application programming interfaces (APIs): one connecting regional damage and recovery simulators, and the other linking the recovery simulator with infrastructure-specific service generation and dispatch (operation) simulators. The resulting open-source platform provides a user-friendly interface for hazard, exposure, vulnerability, and recovery analysis, as well as resilience quantification. The platform's utility is demonstrated in a case study of a California community subjected to an M_w 7.0 earthquake, where damage and recovery of buildings, bridges, tunnels, roadways, and water distribution pipelines are simulated. The case study illustrates the ability of the tools to quantify resilience comprehensively with high spatial and temporal resolution. Although only one case study and two system operation simulators are presented, the APIs are designed to integrate a broad range of hazard, exposure, damage, recovery, and operation simulators (e.g., PyPSA and pandapower for power system modeling), beyond those featured here.

1. Introduction

Assessing the resilience of civil infrastructure to natural hazards at a community or regional scale is critical for developing emergency response plans, prioritizing retrofit and mitigation measures, and setting insurance premiums. Computer simulations play a central role in enabling such resilience assessments.

Community- and regional-scale resilience assessment research generally falls into four categories: hazard analysis, exposure analysis, vulnerability analysis, and recovery analysis. Several research-oriented simulation tools are available for each of these categories. For example, OpenSHA [22], OpenQuake [36], EQSIM [28], and ADCIRC [26] are widely used for hazard simulations related to earthquakes and storm surges. While OpenQuake and EQSIM also support vulnerability analysis, they primarily model infrastructure components (e.g., buildings and bridges) individually, with limited capability for system-level performance assessments and no recovery modeling. To evaluate post-disaster system-level performance (e.g., transportation service provision), proprietary infrastructure models are often

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12 employed based on the results of individual component analyses. Recent advances in tools such as IN-CORE [24] and
13 SimCenter's R2D [29] have integrated hazard analysis, exposure modeling tools (e.g. BRAILS++ [14]), and system-
14 level infrastructure vulnerability analysis, allowing simulation of damage and loss of interdependent infrastructure
15 systems immediately after a hazard event. Additionally, pyrecodes [12] has been developed by researchers at ETH
16 Zurich as an open-source software tool for post-disaster recovery simulations.

17 Despite the increasing need for community resilience assessment (e.g., [37]), an integrated open-source, modular
18 platform that spans all four analysis categories at the regional scale, and particularly one that allows the readily
19 integration of newly developed and higher fidelity simulators for the hazard, the structures, and the infrastructure
20 systems, is still lacking. Furthermore, recovery simulators are rarely coupled with infrastructure operation simulators,
21 making it difficult to assess the dynamics of infrastructure performance during post-disaster recovery using physically
22 rigorous simulators. The absence of such an integrated simulation platform limits the realism and comprehensiveness
23 of current community disaster resilience analyses. For example, building and household recovery subject to repair
24 priority and recovery resource constraints (e.g., financing and reconstruction crews) were simulated in [47, 45, 16, 3].
25 However, the post-disaster damage and reduced serviceability of infrastructure systems were not taken into account.
26 Similarly, the restoration of a water system following an earthquake was simulated in [40], but the interdependency
27 between the water system and housing and other infrastructure was not considered, and the post-disaster water demand
28 was assumed to remain constant relative to the pre-earthquake level. Roadway accessibilities of hospitals and buildings
29 considering bridge damages were evaluated in [13, 15], while functional recovery of buildings with disruptions to
30 cross-dependent utility networks was simulated in [27]. However, these studies relied on simplified transportation
31 and utility network functionality evaluations using topological analysis or discrete-event analysis, while infrastructure
32 performance analysis based on traffic flow theories or hydraulic laws remained absent.

33 This paper aims to address these gaps by integrating different hazard, exposure, vulnerability and recovery
34 simulators, which may have originally been designed to function as stand-alone applications, into a unified framework
35 for regional resilience assessment. The key enabling component is a set of application programming interfaces (APIs)
36 that connect SimCenter's R2D damage simulator, pyrecodes recovery simulator, REWET potable water distribution
37 simulator, and the Residual Demand traffic flow simulator into a unified platform. The APIs are carefully designed
38 to balance computational efficiency, stability, and flexibility, so that a wide range of infrastructure system operation
39 simulators can be employed to simulate recovery resource allocations, thereby facilitating decision-making with
40 unprecedented resolution. Although only two infrastructure simulators are discussed in this paper, the proposed APIs
41 establish a flexible framework that can be transported to simulation tools beyond those presented herein. Compared to
42 existing recovery simulators, the proposed simulation platform is tightly coupled with infrastructure system operation
43 simulators, enabling more realistic system performance assessments than the topological- or dependency ruleset-based
44 analyses commonly used in recovery simulations in the literature. Integrating system operation simulators also
45 enhances the accuracy of resource allocation and distribution analysis, which enables the evaluation of quantitative
46 resilience metrics characterized by the amount of unmet demand throughout the recovery process. Compared to existing
47 damage and system operation simulators, this tight coupling with the recovery simulator enables continuous evaluation
48 of system performance while accounting for variations in system demand and cross-system interdependencies during
49 the recovery process, thereby providing more quantitative and intuitive system-level resilience metrics.

50 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 introduces the integrated simulation workflow,
51 which includes a background introduction to the damage simulator R2D and recovery simulator pyrecodes, as well as
52 the APIs that enable their integration. Section 3 presents a case study that demonstrates the application of the proposed
53 simulation platform. Finally, the advantages of the proposed simulation framework are discussed.

54 **2. Resilience Assessment Platform Integration**

55 The framework of the developed simulation platform is modularized into five main modules: a hazard analysis
56 module, an exposure analysis module, a vulnerability analysis module, a recovery analysis module, and a resilience
57 quantification module (see Fig. 1). Specifically, the hazard analysis module quantifies the intensities of natural hazards
58 that may affect a region, while the exposure evaluation module develops inventories of infrastructure that may be
59 impacted by these hazards. The vulnerability analysis module includes structural response, damage, and loss analysis,
60 which assesses the physical condition of the infrastructure immediately following natural hazard events. The hazard,
61 exposure, and vulnerability modules together form the traditional risk assessment workflow, producing damage and
62 loss metrics. For the purpose of the integrated computational platform presented in this paper, these three modules are

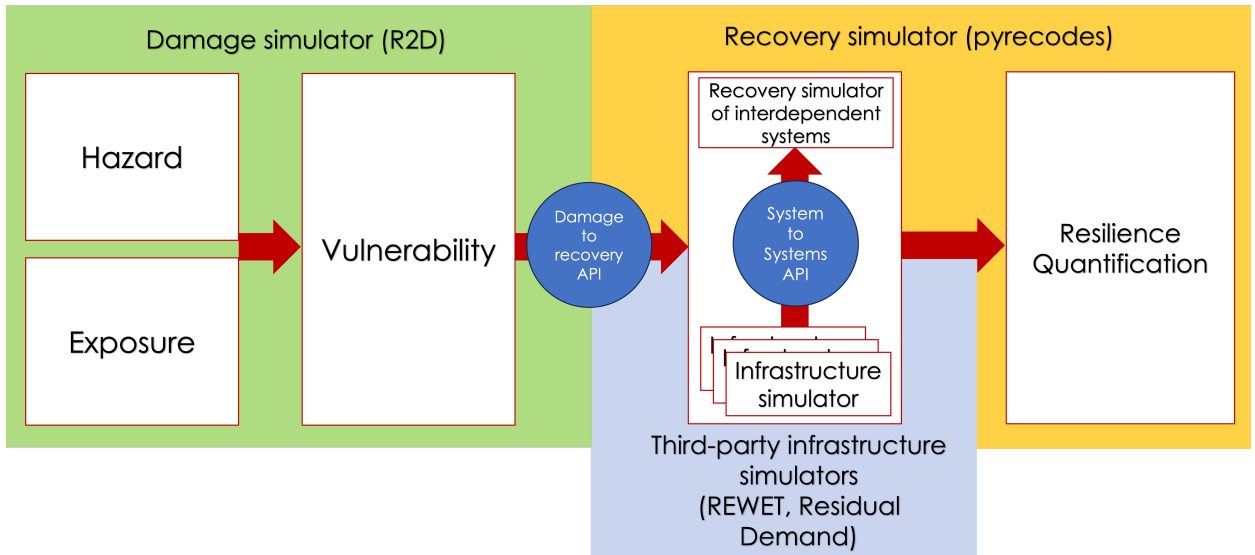


Figure 1: Computational framework of the proposed integrated resilience assessment platform facilitated by the damage-to-recovery API and system-to-systems API

collectively labeled the 'Damage simulator' (the green block in Fig. 1), as its primary output relevant for the regional resilience assessment is physical damage to infrastructure components.

The recovery analysis module simulates the recovery of interdependent systems from damage, while the resilience quantification module provides metrics that characterize the recovery process and system resilience. The performance of individual infrastructure systems within the regional "system of interdependent systems" recovery simulator can be assessed using an infrastructure-specific service generation and dispatch (operation) simulator. For the purposes of the integrated regional resilience assessment platform presented here, the recovery module, resilience quantification module, and the associated infrastructure operation simulators are collectively labeled as the 'Recovery simulator' (the yellow block in Fig. 1).

One of the main contributions of this paper is the development of two Application Programming Interfaces (APIs) that facilitate (1) the integration between the damage and recovery simulators and (2) the integration of infrastructure-specific simulators into the regional recovery systems-of-interdependent-systems simulator. These APIs enable the creation of realistic simulations of infrastructure system operation and resource distribution during recovery, leading to more reliable assessments of recovery and resilience.

The integrated computational platform presented here combines the risk assessment framework from the R2D software [29], developed by the NHERI-SimCenter, representing the damage simulator, with pyrecodes [12], representing the regional recovery simulator. Additionally, the recovery simulator is enhanced through the integration of two infrastructure operation simulators: REWET for the potable water supply system and Residual Demand for the transportation network. The remainder of this section is organized as follows. Section 2.1 and 2.2 introduce the existing functionality of the damage simulator, R2D, and the recovery simulator, pyrecodes, which are the bases for this work. Section 2.3 presents the interface developed in this paper, which links the damage and recovery simulators. Section 2.4 reviews how component- and system-level interdependencies are modeled in pyrecodes and highlights current limitations. Finally, section 2.5 introduces the general API that integrates infrastructure simulators into the regional recovery system-of-systems model, and sections 2.6 and 2.7 present two examples of interfacing the traffic flow simulator, Residual Demand, and the water simulator, REWET, with the presented platform.

2.1. R2D damage simulator

This paper adopts the hazard, exposure, and vulnerability analysis methods from the existing version of the R2D software [29], shown in the green 'Damage simulator' block in Fig. 1. To facilitate hazard analysis, two tools have been developed in R2D: an earthquake ground motion tool and a hurricane wind speed tool. The earthquake ground motion tool integrates earthquake rupture forecasting models, empirical ground motion models, and spatial correlation

93 models to generate earthquake ground motion intensity measure (IM) samples at user-defined locations. The hurricane
94 wind speed tool enables users to define a hurricane track and landfall parameters, and use an analytical wind speed
95 model [38] to generate wind speed realizations. Additionally, R2D supports importing intensity measures from other
96 hazard analysis tools, such as USGS ShakeMap [44] and ADCIRC [26], using common GIS formats. For a full list of
97 hazard analysis tools in R2D, see [31].

98 Exposure analysis in R2D involves defining an inventory of infrastructure systems that may be affected by the
99 studied hazard and estimating the hazard intensity at each infrastructure component through geospatial analysis.
100 Region-specific asset information must be collected with sufficient granularity and scope to meet the requirements for
101 vulnerability and recovery analysis. A variety of open data sources, such as those summarized in [4], can be utilized to
102 create the inventory. To streamline this process, an inventory creation tool, BRAILS++ [14], can be run using R2D's
103 graphical interface.

104 Vulnerability analysis in R2D comprises both structural response analysis and damage analysis. Any structural
105 analysis tool accessible through Python can be used for structural response analysis within R2D. Subsequently, a
106 damage and loss (DL) analysis is performed, determining the damage of the infrastructure components based on the
107 estimated structural responses. This DL analysis is achieved using the open-source Python package Pelicun3 [51],
108 which uses either a built-in DL model database or user-defined DL databases. Using the built-in DL models, R2D
109 can perform vulnerability analysis at a high spatial resolution using FEMA's HAZUS methodology under the impact
110 of earthquakes, hurricanes, and floods. Alternatively, R2D also includes higher-fidelity analysis models, e.g., [25] and
111 [48], that evaluate story-level damage states for buildings under earthquake effects. Other modeling methodologies can
112 be implemented with additional user input and relatively simple programming, thanks to R2D's open-source, modular
113 design. A full list of features available in R2D can be found at [30].

114 2.2. pyrecodes recovery simulator

115 The pyrecodes regional recovery simulator, shown in the yellow 'Recovery simulator' block of Fig. 1, models
116 the recovery of individual infrastructure components while capturing system-level interdependencies through the
117 simulation of resource flows among components. Pyrecodes requires component damage states as input, which are
118 provided by the API linking to the 'Damage simulator' (see section 2.3). At the component level, recovery is represented
119 as a sequence of activities (e.g., demolition, construction) and impeding factors (e.g., inspection, design, permitting)
120 that influence recovery times [11]. This sequence is conditioned on the component's characteristics (e.g., occupancy
121 type, construction type) and its initial post-disaster damage. Each impeding factor and recovery activity is characterized
122 by the preceding activities that must be completed before the activity can begin, along with the activities' duration
123 and resource demands. A suite of resource supply and demand parameters is also defined for each component. A
124 component's demand is categorized into operational demand and recovery demand. Operational demand (e.g., water
125 and electricity) must be satisfied for the component to remain functional, while recovery demand (e.g., materials,
126 funding) must be met before recovery activities can begin. The supply represents the resources a component contributes
127 to the community (e.g., a building provides shelter). A component's ability to supply resources depends on whether its
128 operational demand is met and whether it has reached a predefined recovery stage.

129 At the system level, pyrecodes simulates the interdependencies among components at each time step of the
130 recovery process by modeling component interaction as the flow of resources among components. The interdependency
131 modeling is detailed in section 2.4.

132 Several resilience calculators are available in pyrecodes, providing different system recovery and resilience metrics.
133 These metrics are obtained by aggregating simulated component-level recovery trajectories allowing for scenario-based
134 system recovery time assessment, unmet resource demand, or NIST's resilience goals [7, 9]. The resilience calculators
135 can also be extended to include risk-based metrics [8].

136 2.3. Damage-to-recovery API

137 The damage simulator estimates the condition of all components immediately after a hazard event. The resulting
138 damage and exposure information, which includes component characteristics relevant to recovery, is transferred to the
139 recovery simulator through the damage-to-recovery API, as illustrated in Fig. 2. This API operates in two steps: first, it
140 converts and saves the damage and exposure data into a JSON file, and second, it parses this file into a format that the
141 recovery simulator (i.e., pyrecodes) can process, enabling it to assign damage states and component characteristics to
142 interdependent infrastructure systems. This interface enables an end-to-end framework spanning from hazard analysis

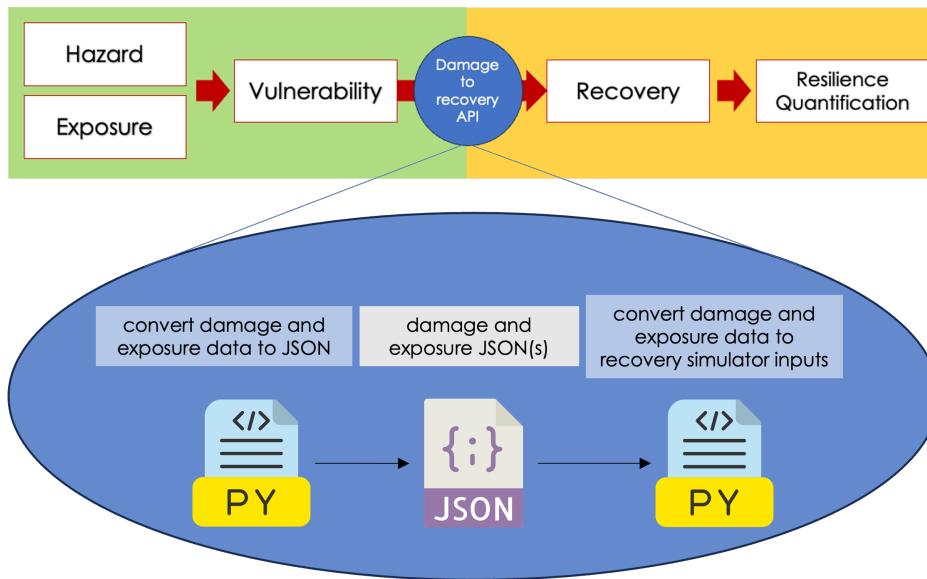


Figure 2: Damage-to-recovery API

143 to recovery analysis, providing a user-friendly simulation workflow that can support resilience-metrics-based risk
 144 assessment, sensitivity analysis, and network optimization.

145 2.4. Interdependency modeling in pyrecodes

146 Fig. 3 shows the pyrecodes recovery simulation algorithm in detail on the left. Once the damage is assigned to
 147 components, the recovery simulation starts as a time-stepping loop where, at each step, three actions are taken. First,
 148 the supply and demand of all components are updated considering their damage state at the time step. Then, resources
 149 are distributed among components using resource distribution models to determine whether the components' recovery
 150 and operation demands can be met by the supply available at the time step. Components with sufficient recovery
 151 resources can proceed with their recovery activities, while components that do not receive enough resources will wait
 152 for the next time step. The simulation continues until all components have completed their recovery activities or a time
 153 step limit is reached.

154 The resource distribution models in pyrecodes are simple and based on the connectivity between localities,
 155 components' supply capacities and demand and a user-defined priority relationship [9]. This resource distribution
 156 approach has been shown to effectively model recovery resource constraints, dynamic component interdependencies
 157 and cascading effects, and the impact of infrastructure systems on buildings' functional recovery [11, 9, 10]. However,
 158 resource distribution models in the existing pyrecodes ignore or simplify physical and technical laws related to the
 159 operation of infrastructure systems (e.g., water head equilibrium and quantity conservation, electricity voltage and
 160 current limits, etc.). Furthermore, system-level performance metrics, such as average travel time delay and water
 161 delivery quantities to households, are often desired for evaluating the resilience of infrastructure systems but cannot
 162 be provided by the current implementation of pyrecodes.

163 To address these limitations, the system-to-systems API shown in Fig. 3 was created. This API facilitates the
 164 integration of better infrastructure-specific simulators into the recovery simulation. These infrastructure simulators
 165 model the operation of infrastructure systems and provide the information on the ability of a given infrastructure
 166 system to provide resources to components of various other infrastructure systems at different time steps of the recovery
 167 simulation.

168 Recent developments in R2D have enabled the operation simulation and performance evaluation for damaged
 169 water distribution networks [34] and damaged transportation networks [49] immediately after natural hazard events
 170 and during recovery. To enable dynamic infrastructure assessment and more reliable system interdependency modeling,
 171 these system operation simulators are incorporated into the recovery simulation framework, as detailed in section 2.5.

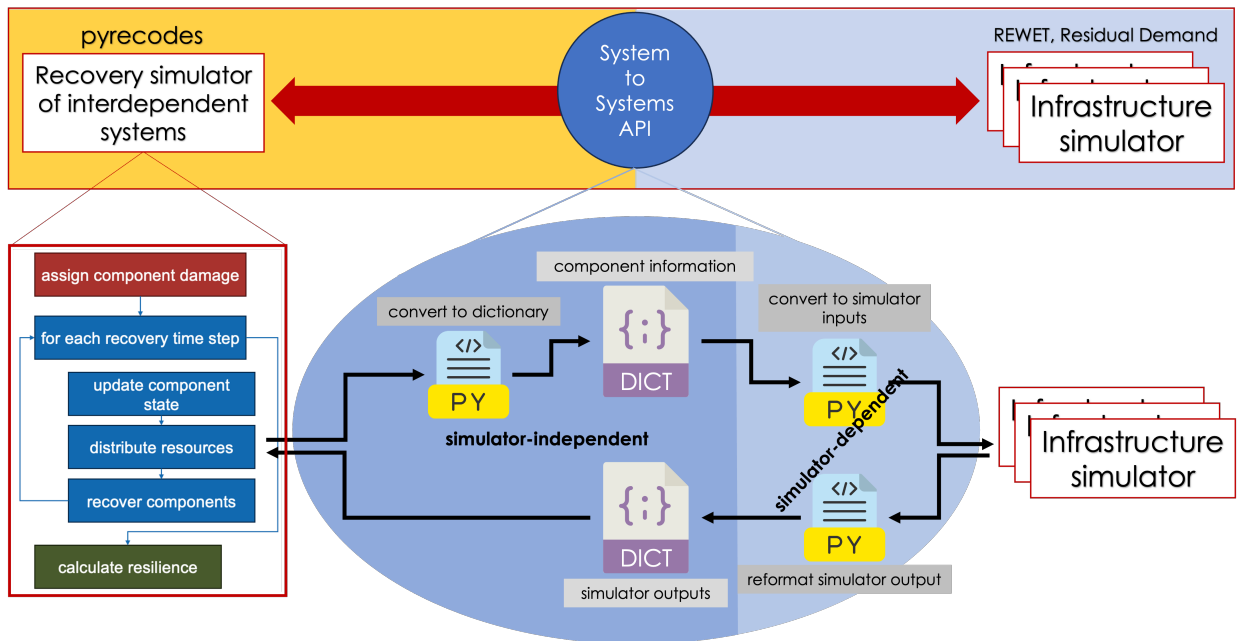


Figure 3: pyrecodes algorithm and the system-to-systems API that interfaces infrastructure simulators into the system-of-interdependent-systems

2.5. System-to-systems API

Infrastructure simulators are invoked during the "distribute resources" stage of pyrecodes' recovery simulation (see the left part of Fig. 3). After updating the component damage states based on the results of the previous recovery time-step, the "convert to dictionary" API function (Darker blue part at the center of Fig. 3) is called to collect information from all infrastructure components in pyrecodes and store the required data (e.g., recovery stage, functional level, and other relevant characteristics) into a Python dictionary (i.e., DICT) mirroring the structure of the exposure JSON file used as the input for the recovery simulator (section 2.3). This section of the API is universal to all infrastructure simulators, and is depicted as "simulator-independent" part of the API (dark blue color in the center of Fig. 3). The dictionary is then read by the "convert to simulator inputs" API function (the lighter blue part at the center of Fig. 3), which provides the component status information typically to the infrastructure simulator, synchronizing it with the current component recovery progress. Synchronization typically involves updating the topology of the infrastructure systems and adjusting the capacities of various components based on their current state of damage and recovery. The infrastructure simulator subsequently evaluates system performance and sends system-level performance metrics back to pyrecodes (e.g., a dictionary containing the percent of met water demand for each component or travel times between components) as a dictionary using the "reformat simulator output" API function, enabling dynamic infrastructure system operation assessments throughout the recovery process. Such infrastructure operation simulators replace simple resource distribution models currently implemented in pyrecodes. Note that, to accommodate the different input and output formats of the infrastructure simulators, the section of the API that converts the component information contained in the dictionary into inputs for the infrastructure simulator and transforms simulator outputs into pyrecodes-readable data differs for each infrastructure simulator, and is thus labeled as "simulator-dependent".

Given that infrastructure operation simulators can be computationally expensive, pyrecodes allows the evaluation of each infrastructure simulator at a set of different selected time steps. The system operation condition from the previous evaluation is used to approximate the system operation condition during the intervening time steps. This approach enables efficient resilience evaluation with a small loss of accuracy.

At the time of writing, two infrastructure simulators have been interfaced with pyrecodes: the traffic flow simulator, Residual Demand [49], which provides system-level traffic performance metrics, and the potable water distribution simulator, REWET [34], which supports both system performance evaluation and advanced resource distribution

199 simulations. The following two sections present the interfacing of the two infrastructure simulators in detail, and
200 additional infrastructure simulators can be incorporated following these two examples.

201 **2.6. Interfacing Residual Demand traffic flow simulator with pyrecodes**

202 The Residual Demand traffic flow simulator is employed in this paper to simulate the operation of the roadway
203 network and evaluate its performance from initial damage to the completion of the recovery process. At predefined
204 time steps, the simulator-independent system-to-systems API transmits the status of all buildings and transportation
205 network components to the Residual Demand simulator. The "convert to simulator inputs" API function then provides
206 the current state of buildings and transportation components to the traffic flow simulator. This information is used to
207 infer both the transportation service demand and transportation service supply, as well as to simulate the traffic flow.
208 The API design allows users to modify the rule sets that infer post-disaster transportation demand and supply based on
209 the state of buildings and transportation components. Examples of these rule sets are presented in section 3.2. This API
210 allows a modeler to estimate the variation of traffic demand during the recovery process using dynamically simulated
211 housing functionalities, which provides a novel approach to the active research topic of post-disaster traffic demand
212 estimation [2].

213 Once the updated transportation demand and supply are estimated, the Residual Demand simulator uses a pseudo-
214 dynamic traffic assignment algorithm to estimate the travel time for each trip. After completing the traffic assignment
215 simulation, the travel times are provided to pyrecodes for evaluating traffic network performance. If the post-disaster
216 travel time exceeds a predefined threshold, the traveler is likely to cancel the trip or select an alternative mode of
217 transportation, resulting in an incomplete trip. The discrepancy between the total number of trips in the traffic demand
218 and the number of completed trips is used to measure the resilience of the traffic network.

219 Additional transportation system performance metrics (e.g., those reviewed by [50]) can also be incorporated
220 in pyrecodes. This integration of Residual Demand with the R2D-pyrecodes framework enables the dynamic
221 evaluation of post-disaster traffic demand and network capacity. It also offers opportunities to capture infrastructure
222 interdependencies in post-disaster travel behavior modeling, which enables more realistic transportation infrastructure
223 resilience assessments. Example results of the dynamic resilience assessment are presented in section 3.2.

224 **2.7. Interfacing REWET potable water distribution simulator with pyrecodes**

225 REWET is used to evaluate the performance of the Water Distribution Network (WDN) from initial damage through
226 to the end of recovery. Similar to the traffic flow simulator, at each simulation time step, the simulator-independent API
227 sends the state of the WDN components and buildings to REWET. Buildings are associated to demand nodes within
228 REWET to define the spatial granularity on which water demand is estimated. Water demand per node is estimated in
229 proportion to the population and functionality of the buildings associated with that node.

230 Using the information provided by the API, alongside other predefined parameters (e.g., simulation time and
231 hydraulic solver parameters), REWET reconfigures the network, simulates the water flow, and estimates the water
232 supply for each demand node. To reconfigure the network, REWET modifies the network by modeling leak points and
233 cutting off break points based on the pipeline status and a user-defined leak model. The cut-off is modeled by applying
234 the maximum applicable leak on both sides of the break point on the pipe. REWET simulates water distribution using
235 either EPANET V2.2 [43] or WNTR Solver [23] based on the user's selection. The amount of water delivered to each
236 demand node is calculated, and the ratio of the amount of water supply to demand is estimated for each demand node.
237 It is assumed that all buildings within the same demand node experience the same water supply/demand ratio. This
238 water supply/demand ratio is sent to pyrecodes through the REWET simulator dependent API. Pyrecodes uses the ratio
239 to describe if a building's water demand is satisfied and if a building can be restored to a functional condition.

240 **3. Case Study**

241 The following section illustrates the application of the presented simulation platform by assessing the resilience of
242 Alameda Island (one of SimCenter's regional simulation testbed [6]) following a hypothetical earthquake event.

243 **3.1. Hazard scenario, exposure, and vulnerability analysis**

244 The studied hazard scenario is an M_w 7.0 earthquake on the Hayward Fault (Fig. 4), which is one of the earthquake
245 rupture scenarios predicted by the USGS UCERF2 earthquake rupture forecasting model [21]. The ground shaking
246 intensity measures (IMs), including peak ground acceleration (PGA), peak ground velocity (PGV), and pseudo-spectral

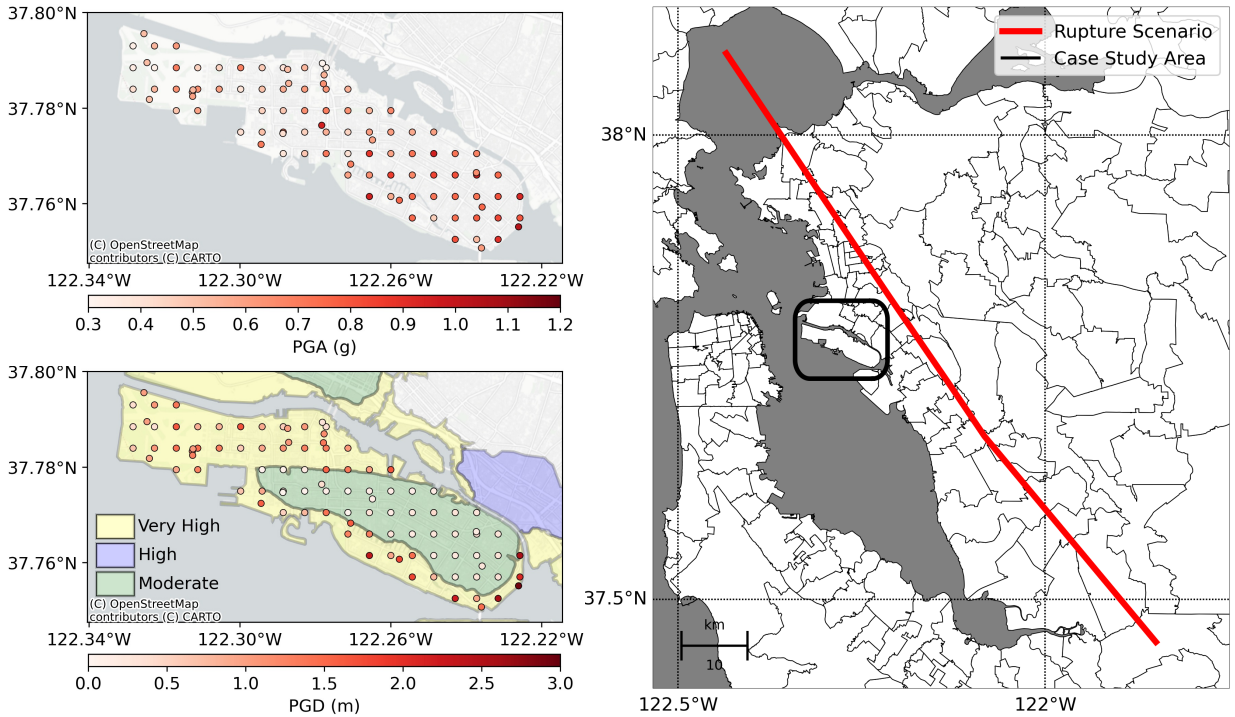


Figure 4: Case study hazard scenario. Upper left: Estimated peak ground acceleration (PGA) at a suite of grid points in the case study area. Lower left: Estimated soil liquefaction permanent ground deformation (PGD) in the case study area. The color stands for the liquefaction susceptibility of the corresponding geologic unit [46]. Right: The locations of the M_w 7.0 fault rupture scenario and the studied area.

247 acceleration at 0.3 s and 1.0 s, are estimated using the ground motion prediction equation developed by [1], the inter-
 248 event correlation model proposed by [5], and the intra-event correlation model from [17]. These ground motion models
 249 are stochastic, and one realization of the ground shaking IM, which complies with the above ground motion models,
 250 is selected for this case study (see Fig. 4). Using this ground-shaking IM realization, the soil liquefaction-induced
 251 permanent ground deformation (PGD) is estimated using the geology-based method suggested in FEMA HAZUS
 252 [20], with soil liquefaction susceptibility determined from the geologic map developed by [46].

253 The building inventory is developed by [6], using data collected from open-source databases [35, 42] and
 254 augmented with machine learning models based on street view images. The inventory augmentation models are
 255 accessed through SimCenter's BRAILS++ tool [14]. A highway transportation inventory is also created using
 256 BRAILS++, with public data retrieved from the National Bridge Inventory, National Tunnel Inventory, and TigerWeb
 257 [18, 41]. The asset information for the water distribution network (WDN) is not publicly available, so a hypothetical
 258 WDN inventory was created. Pipeline locations were assumed to align with roads in the transportation inventory, an
 259 arbitrary water source was assumed, and demand was estimated using local census data. The infrastructure inventory
 260 used in this case study is shown in Fig. 5 and is openly available (see the Data Availability section).

261 To estimate the damage states of the infrastructure components in Fig. 5, simple damage functions in the form
 262 of fragility curves, as defined by HAZUS [20], are used. The Python package Pelicun [51], integrated into the R2D
 263 software, is employed to generate damage state realizations according to the FEMA HAZUS damage functions.

264 Fig. 6 shows one of the damage state realizations sampled based on the ground shaking and ground failure intensity,
 265 as presented in Fig. 4. The description of the damage states is available in [20]. The damage is significant due to the
 266 proximity of the studied area to the hypothetical earthquake scenario, which represents nearly the largest possible
 267 earthquake on the Hayward fault. Additionally, the reclaimed land in the studied region has very high soil liquefaction
 268 susceptibility [6], resulting in considerable damage from ground failure and permanent ground deformation.

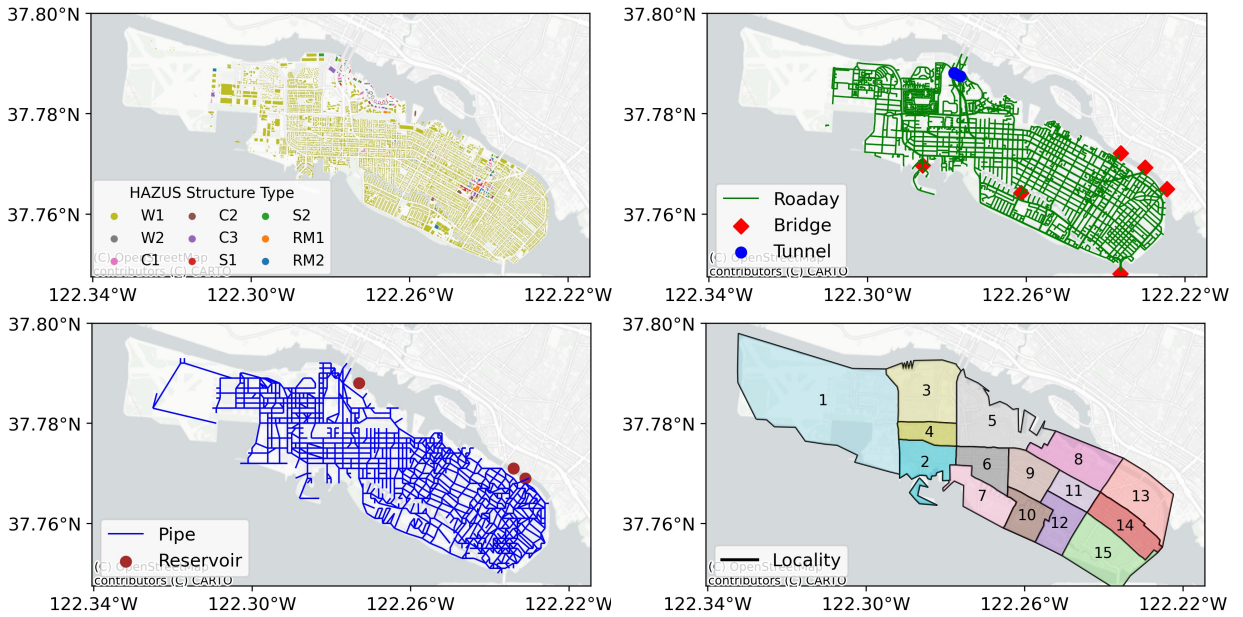


Figure 5: Case study infrastructure inventory. Upper left: Building stocks. Upper right: Transportation infrastructure. Lower left: Potable water distribution infrastructure. Lower right: Simulation locality, modified from the MTC travel analysis zones [33]. The building structure types are defined in the HAZUS Inventory Technical Manual [19]

3.2. Recovery simulation utilizing infrastructure system operation simulators

The primary objective of this case study is to evaluate the system-level performance of infrastructure systems during recovery and to model the interdependencies among buildings, the water system, and the transportation system, using infrastructure simulators that comply with physical and technical resource distribution laws. Operational resources considered include potable water and transportation services, while recovery resources consist of engineers, funding, contractors, and repair crews. Building recovery sequences are informed by observations from the 1994 Northridge earthquake [39]. Recovery resource supply capacities are assumed by the authors and provided in the supplement data (see Data Availability section). Residential water demand is linked to the number of occupants in a building and varies with the building's shelter capacity as recovery progresses. Shelter capacity depends on both the initial damage state and recovery status: buildings with no or minor damage retain full shelter capacity throughout recovery, whereas those with moderate, severe, or complete damage provide no shelter until repairs are completed.

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 illustrate the status of all infrastructure 30 days and 150 days after the studied earthquake event, with the infrastructure status at various time steps provided in the supplement data.

The distribution of potable water is simulated using REWET and the developed API. At each recovery simulation timestep, pyrecodes sends each component's functionality and new population data to the API, which estimates the new demand at each node and creates the input data for REWET. REWET then runs EPANET V2.2 to simulate the water flow every 5 days for the initial 50 days after the earthquake, every 10 days for the following 150 days, and every 50 days thereafter. The API calculates the satisfied demand for each building. The leak models, based on the material (assumed to be brittle iron in this case study) and other hydraulic solver parameters, are taken to be the default values defined in REWET [34]. Fig. 9 presents the potable water supply and demand recovery curve for the studied area.

The Residual Demand simulator and the accompanying API are used to dynamically evaluate the performance of the transportation network throughout the recovery process. The system simulation is conducted every 5 days during the first 50 days after the hazard event, every 20 days in the following 150 days, and every 50 days thereafter until all components have recovered to their pre-disaster level. At each simulation step, the Residual Demand API estimates the population reduction in each locality based on housing recovery progress and adjusts the pre-disaster travel demand proportionally to the population reduction. The population from each building is assigned to a locality, and the total population in the locality (referred to as the locality population) is calculated. The ratio of post-disaster to pre-disaster locality populations is then computed for each locality, and the number of trips originating from, or destined to,

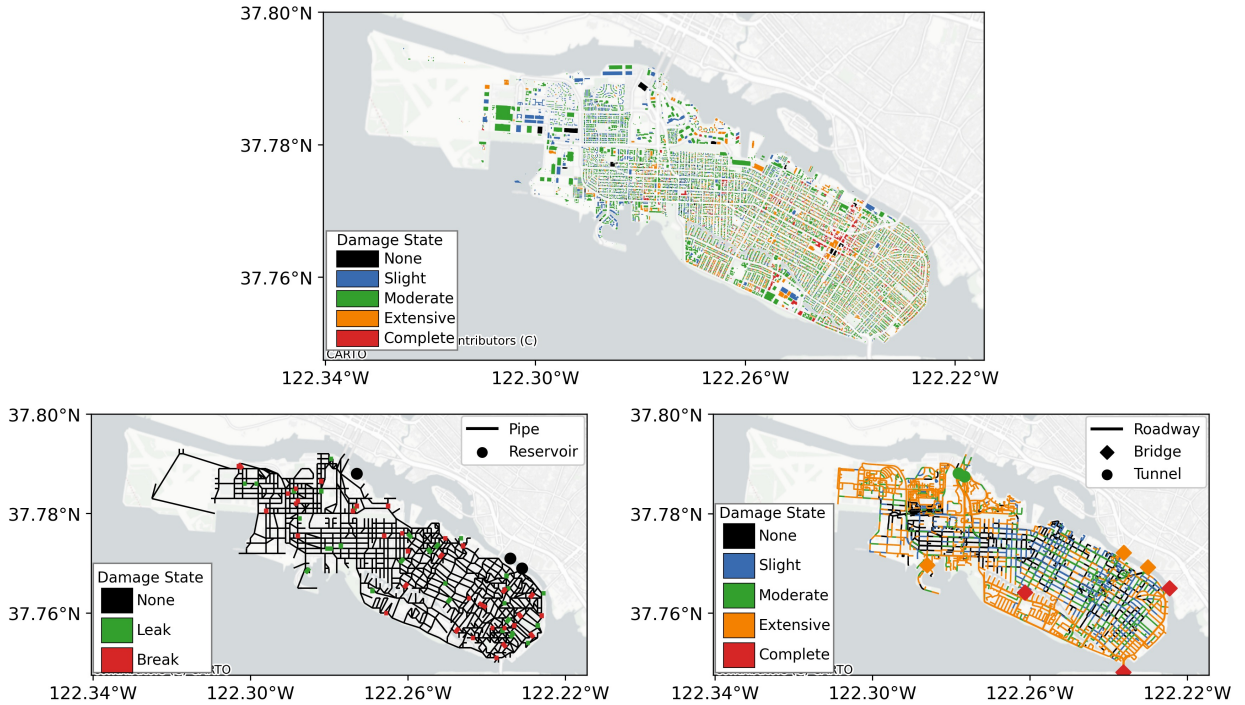


Figure 6: Damage state immediately after the case study earthquake. Top: Building stock. Bottom left: Potable water distribution infrastructure. Bottom right: Transportation infrastructure.

297 that locality is reduced by the same ratio as the population reduction. Note that these travel demand assumptions
 298 are oversimplified, and there is a need for more realistic post-disaster travel demand models from the transportation
 299 and social science research community. Once available, such travel demand models could be readily incorporated
 300 into this simulation framework. However, for now, these simple models are useful to generate qualitative results that
 301 demonstrate the utility of the proposed framework.

302 To estimate the network capacity at each recovery time step, the capacity and maximum speed of roadways are
 303 adjusted according to the recovery progress and functionality level of the roads and the bridges or tunnels that support
 304 them. Roads and bridges that experienced damage are conservatively assumed to be fully closed until repaired. The
 305 travel time for each trip in the updated travel demand is then estimated using the dynamic traffic assignment simulation
 306 in Residual Demand. In this case study, a trip is considered incomplete if the post-disaster travel time is more than
 307 three times longer than the pre-disaster travel time. The number of demanded and completed trips during the recovery
 308 process is plotted in Fig. 9 (right).

309 3.3. Discussion

310 The case study demonstrates that the integrated simulation platform enables modeling of both the potential damage
 311 from an earthquake event and the recovery process of a community, considering multiple interdependent infrastructure
 312 systems. Due to the close proximity to the hypothetical earthquake event, the ground shaking intensity is high, with
 313 an average peak ground acceleration (PGA) of 0.62 g. This intense ground shaking caused significant damage to the
 314 building stock, with nearly all buildings experiencing some damage, and 26% of the buildings experiencing extensive
 315 or complete damage. The high ground shaking also led to considerable soil liquefaction in the near-shore areas, which
 316 have very high liquefaction susceptibility (see Fig. 4). Roadways and bridges are particularly vulnerable to ground
 317 deformation [20], resulting in extensive liquefaction-induced damage. In contrast, the water pipelines, which are buried
 318 underground, were less vulnerable to ground shaking and ground deformation. Consequently, only a moderate number
 319 of pipeline breaks and leaks were predicted.

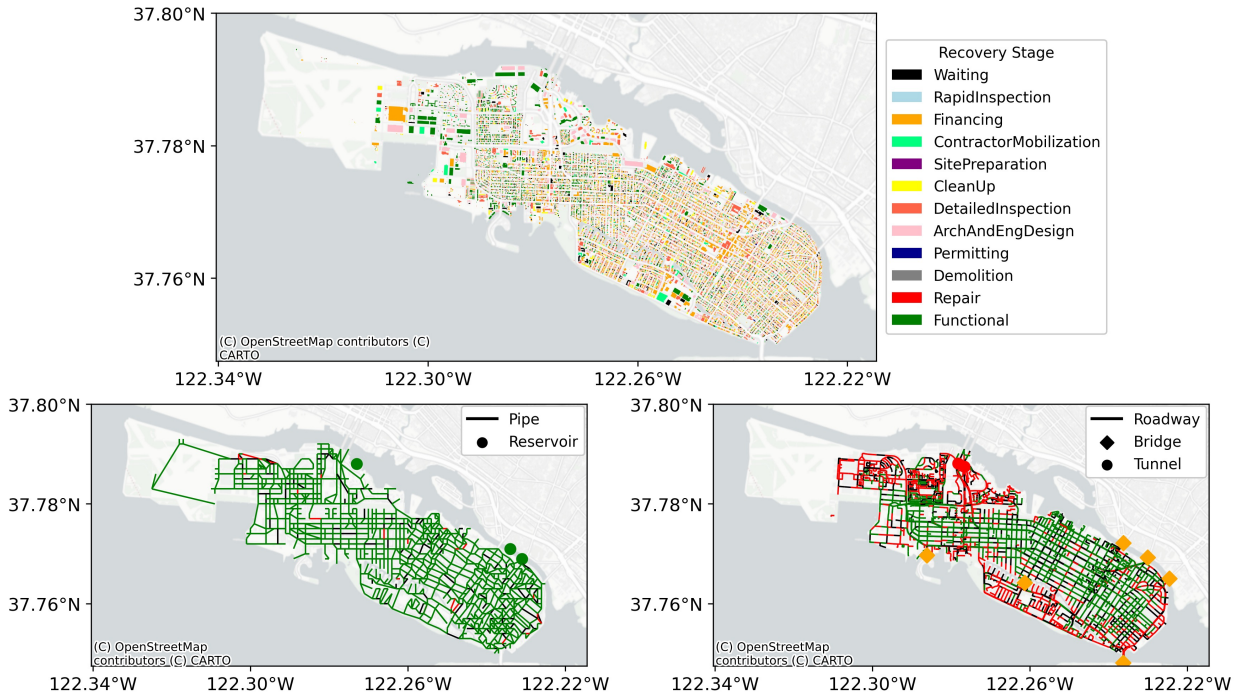


Figure 7: Damage and recovery state of infrastructure components 30 days after the earthquake.

320 Fig. 7 shows that 30 days after the earthquake, most houses and bridges are undergoing pre-repair activities, such
 321 as financing and design, while damaged roads and pipelines have already started the repair process. By 150 days post-
 322 earthquake (see Fig. 8), all pipelines and roadways have fully recovered and been restored to functional status. A large
 323 number of slightly and moderately damaged buildings have also been restored to functionality. However, the severely
 324 damaged buildings (e.g., in locality 11, as shown in Fig. 5) and bridges are still under repair. This delay is due to the
 325 lengthy financing, design, demolition, and repair processes required for the recovery of heavily damaged buildings
 326 and bridges. In this case study, it took a total of 485 days for all infrastructure components to complete the recovery
 327 process under the assumed recovery conditions. Please note that the assumed recovery conditions are optimistic, as a
 328 high supply of recovery resources is assumed, resulting in a relatively short recovery time. A more realistic recovery
 329 assessment would require refinement of the recovery resource supply assumptions.

330 Fig. 9 illustrates the resilience of the roadway transportation network during the hypothetical earthquake event.
 331 Following the earthquake, travel demand decreased due to building damage and the relocation of people. The number
 332 of completed trips also dropped due to extensive damage to roadways and bridges. The pre-disaster travel demand was
 333 derived from a simulation model developed by the San Francisco Bay Area Metropolitan Transportation Commission
 334 (MTC), which models typical weekday travel to assist in regional planning activities [32]. A significant portion of the
 335 travel demand originates from or is destined toward the mainland, requiring access to one of the region's bridges or
 336 tunnels. As the bridges were heavily damaged and took approximately 450 days to fully repair, a large number of trips
 337 had to be rerouted, resulting in a significant unmet travel demand. This underscores the critical role that bridges play
 338 in the resilience of the transportation network. Furthermore, the recovery of transportation service supply was slower
 339 than the recovery of housing and travel demand in the region, highlighting the importance of prioritizing recovery
 340 efforts in natural hazard events. These insights may inform the decision-making for recovery scheduling and resource
 341 allocation in the aftermath of disasters.

342 Fig. 9 illustrates the variation in potable water demand and supply during the recovery process. Both water demand
 343 and supply dropped significantly after the earthquake. The change in water demand is due to the damage and reduced
 344 occupancy of the buildings. As buildings are repaired and residents return, water demand increases. The water supply
 345 initially falls short of demand. However, in this case study, around 150 days after the earthquake, all damaged pipes
 346 are repaired, and water delivery services are fully restored, eliminating unmet water demand in the region.

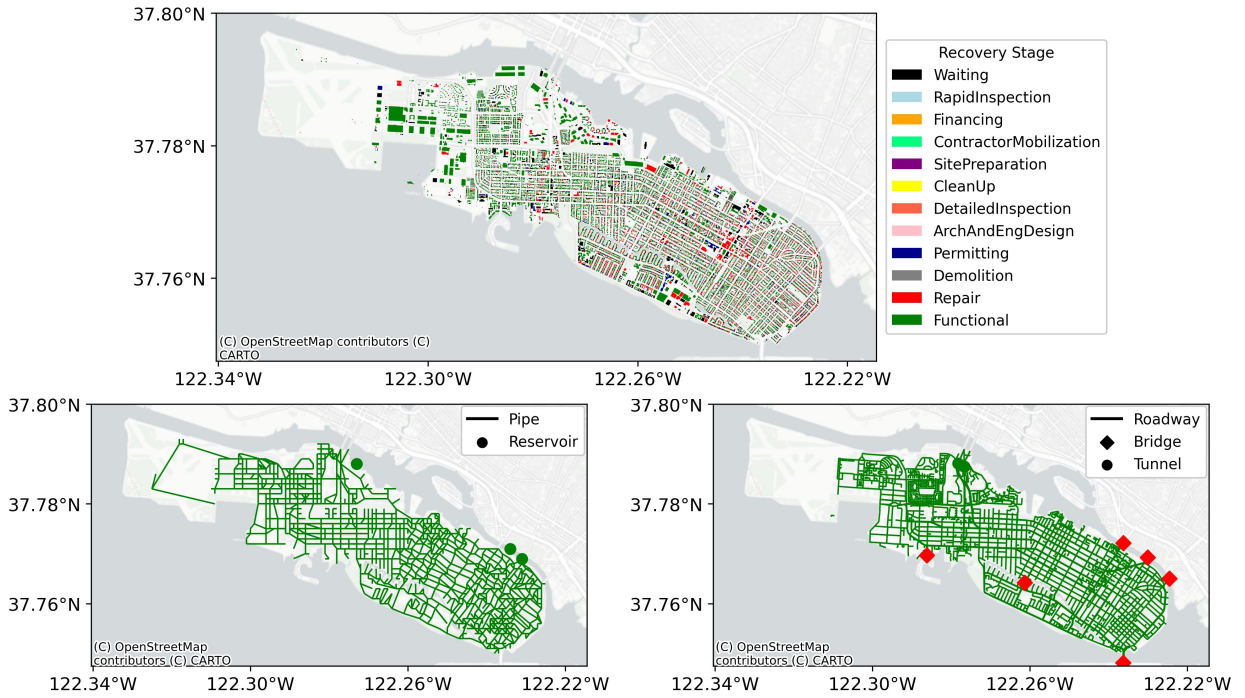


Figure 8: Damage and recovery state of infrastructure components 150 days after the earthquake.

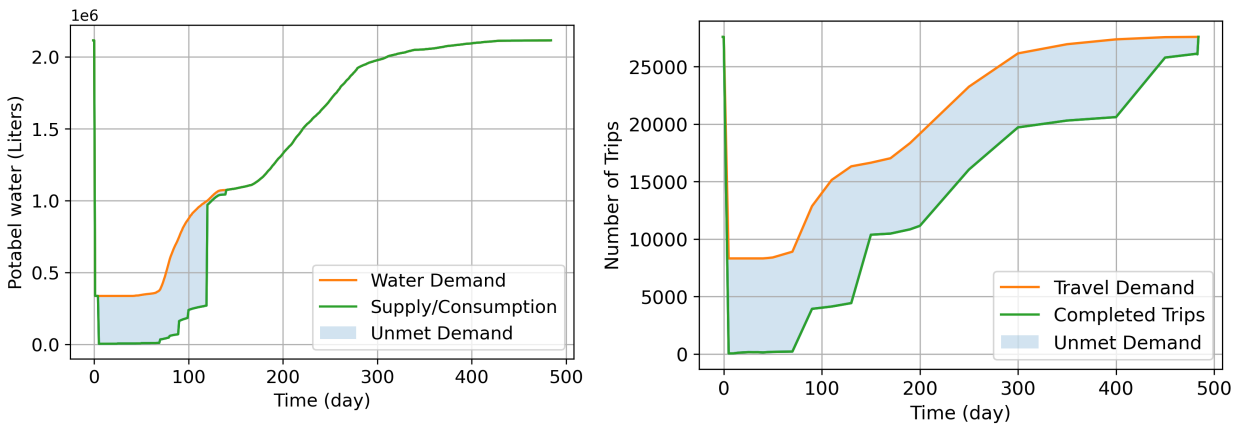


Figure 9: Supply/Consumption and demand recovery curves for the studied area. Left: Potable Water; Right: Transportation Service

347 Fig. 10 compares the variation in potable water supply and demand in locality 3 and locality 11 (see Fig. 5, bottom
 348 right). Due to pipeline damage, the water supply in both localities was significantly reduced after the earthquake.
 349 However, water demand in locality 3 decreased by a smaller percentage than in locality 11 due to the smaller extent
 350 of building damage in locality 3 (see Fig. 6). As a result, locality 3 experienced a larger unmet water demand and,
 351 consequently, a greater lack of resilience in water delivery services compared to locality 11. This information suggests
 352 that additional water resources should be directed to locality 3, and the restoration of water delivery services in this area
 353 should be prioritized. This comparison highlights the importance of considering the interaction between supply and
 354 demand across multiple infrastructure systems when evaluating community resilience and making emergency response
 355 plans. Simulating such interactions would be challenging without the integrated platform developed in this paper.

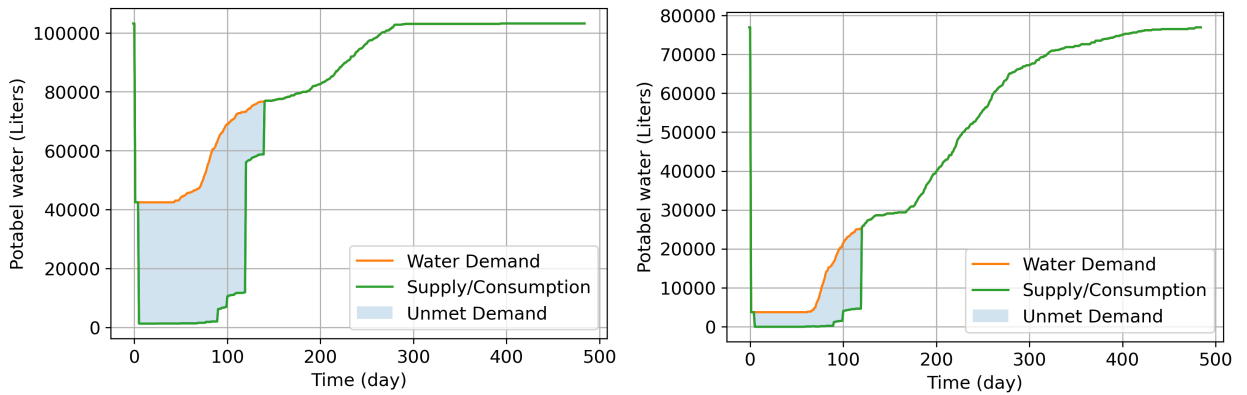


Figure 10: Potable water supply/consumption and demand recovery curves. Left: Locality 3; Right: Locality 11.

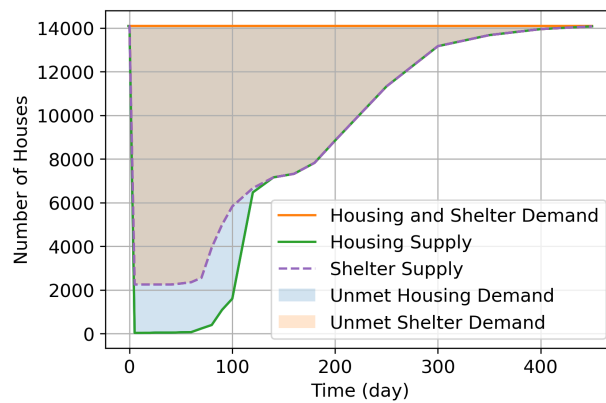


Figure 11: Functional housing and shelter supply/consumption and demand recovery curves.

356 The water demand model used in this case study may still be considered as simplified because it does not account for
 357 water consumption due to repair activities. Additionally, although the buildings are non-functional, temporary shelters
 358 are likely to be established after major earthquake events, but water demands from these shelters are not included in
 359 the model. Nevertheless, the case study demonstrates that the simulation platform effectively captures the dynamics
 360 of water demand and supply, and the assumptions made in the water demand model are reflected in the simulation
 361 results. More detailed water demand assumptions and models could be developed through collaboration with utilities
 362 and municipalities creating resilience plans, and these could be implemented in the pyrecodes-REWET API introduced
 363 in this paper.

364 Fig. 11 illustrates the recovery of shelters and functional houses on the island. In this case study, a building is
 365 considered a shelter once all prescribed recovery activities are completed, and it becomes functional housing when its
 366 operational demands (primarily potable water) are met. Immediately after the earthquake, about 20% of buildings are
 367 occupiable and are used as shelters. However, due to the sharp reduction in water supply (see Fig. 9), almost none of
 368 the buildings are fully functional. Shelter demand remains roughly constant during the first 50 days while pre-repair
 369 and repair activities are underway (e.g., Fig. 7). Shelter supply begins to increase around day 60 and gradually recovers
 370 to meet total demand. In contrast, functional housing lags behind during the first 100 days, constrained by ongoing
 371 water system repairs. By around day 150, when water delivery services are fully restored, all shelters transition into
 372 functional housing, causing the two recovery curves to converge. This analysis highlights another value of the integrated
 373 platform in simulating interdependent infrastructure systems: differentiating between shelter and housing supply can
 374 inform population relocation and economic recovery analyses, which further underscores the importance of modeling
 375 cross-infrastructure interactions.

376 4. Conclusions

377 This paper presents an open-source integrated simulation platform designed to model the resilience of interde-
378 pendent infrastructure systems following natural hazards. The platform integrates SimCenter's regional resilience
379 determination (R2D) tool and ETH Zurich's recovery simulation tool, pyrecodes, through innovative application
380 programming interfaces (APIs). The system-to-system APIs developed in this paper interface the pyrecodes recovery
381 simulation with system performance models, which enables a dynamic and comprehensive evaluation of infrastructure
382 recovery under the constraints of operational and recovery resources. The simulation platform and APIs are open-
383 source and flexible, allowing for the extension to incorporate newer and more advanced models, thereby further
384 improving the accuracy and reliability of the simulation results. Moreover, they provide a framework for unifying
385 diverse research efforts, from hazard simulation to recovery modeling, ultimately advancing our understanding and
386 assessment of infrastructure resilience and supporting better disaster preparedness, recovery planning, and sustainable
387 development.

388 A case study based on a hypothetical earthquake scenario demonstrates the platform's ability to simulate potential
389 infrastructure damage, the recovery process, and the dynamic interdependencies among infrastructure systems.
390 Furthermore, the case study highlights the critical importance of considering interdependencies among infrastructure
391 systems, such as buildings, water distribution, and transportation networks, when assessing community resilience. The
392 simulation platform that integrates hazard, exposure, vulnerability, recovery and infrastructure operations simulators
393 through the presented APIs shows great potential to improve community resilience assessment and enhancement
394 through its ability to include interdependencies in the modeling and simulation of recovery strategies. The developed
395 platform and the case study, with all associated data, models, and source code, are thoroughly documented and made
396 publicly available. The case study is intended to serve not only as a demonstration of the proposed framework, but
397 also as a reproducible and extensible testbed for the broader resilience research community. By providing a well-
398 documented simulation tool and an end-to-end example, the study lowers the barrier for other researchers to adopt,
399 validate, benchmark, and extend the proposed methodology in future resilience analyses.

400 Data availability

- 401 • A compiled simulation software can be downloaded from [https://simcenter.designsafe-ci.org/
402 research-tools/r2dtool/](https://simcenter.designsafe-ci.org/research-tools/r2dtool/).
- 403 • The source code of R2D simulation: <https://github.com/NHERI-SimCenter/SimCenterBackendApplications>.
- 404 • The source code of pyrecodes: <https://github.com/NikolaBlagojevic/pyrecodes>
- 405 • The source code of R2D user interface: <https://github.com/NHERI-SimCenter/R2DTool.git>
- 406 • The input and output of the case study simulation can be found at: Integrated Regional Resilience Assessment
407 Platform for Interdependent Systems. DesignSafe-CI. <https://doi.org/10.17603/ds2-yhht-3076>.

408 Relevance to resilience

409 The simulation platform presented in this paper is highly relevant to resilience assessment because it links
410 probabilistic hazard and damage estimation with dynamic, system-level recovery processes. The damage module
411 provides high-resolution, uncertainty-aware estimates of infrastructure damage and functionality loss across spatially
412 distributed assets under natural hazards. The recovery module simulates the subsequent post-event recovery by
413 explicitly modeling interdependencies among infrastructure systems, resource constraints, and repair sequencing over
414 time. The integrated framework enables quantifying resilience not only in terms of immediate performance loss but
415 also through repair, service restoration, and community-level functional recovery. This integration is essential for
416 assessing the resilience of urban systems from pre-event risk, through post-event disruption, to long-term recovery,
417 within a consistent probabilistic and computational framework, thereby supporting more informed decision-making for
418 mitigation, planning, and investment prioritization. The presented simulation platform is fully open-source, allowing
419 further expansion to include more comprehensive infrastructure system simulators.

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