



14 **Review article: Emergency Response Automation (ERA) as a**
15 **Safety-Critical System: A Systematic Review of Reliability,**
16 **Architecture, and Evolution (2010 – 2025)**

17 Jian Liu^{a,c}, Qinlin Chu^c, Rui Feng^{b,c,*}

18 ^a Key Laboratory of High-Efficient Mining and Safety of Metal Mines of the Ministry of Education,
19 University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing, 100083, People's Republic of China

20 ^b Research Institute of Macro-Safety Science, University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing
21 100083, People's Republic of China

22 ^c School of Resources and Safety Engineering, University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing
23 100083, People's Republic of China

24 *Correspondence author: fengr@ustb.edu.cn (Rui Feng)

25 Tel/Fax numbers of the corresponding author: 0086-01062333013

26

27 Jian Liu: liujiananquan@ustb.edu.cn

28 Qinlin Chu: xiaoli139137157@163.com

29 Rui Feng*: fengr@ustb.edu.cn

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31 Abstract

32 Emergency Response Automation (ERA) is becoming a critical component of managing
33 low-probability, high-consequence natural hazards and cascading technological emergencies under severe
34 time pressure. This systematic review consolidates ERA research from a safety-science and
35 reliability-engineering perspective, with particular emphasis on applications to earthquakes, floods,
36 wildfires and other environmental hazards. Following PRISMA 2020 guidelines, we analysed 198
37 peer-reviewed studies (2010–2025) on automated, intelligent and data-driven emergency response
38 technologies. A four-layer ERA framework—perception and monitoring, data and decision-making,
39 automated response and control, and feedback and learning—was developed to integrate heterogeneous
40 findings and trace the evolution of ERA. Empirical evidence from operational systems is contrasted with
41 simulation-based demonstrations to assess reliability, availability, fault tolerance and human performance.
42 Persistent challenges include data and model uncertainty under distributional shift, limited verification and
43 validation of decision algorithms, opaque human–automation coordination, and gaps in interoperability,
44 governance and trust. We outline a research agenda that links ERA development with resilience engineering,
45 Safety-II and socio-technical systems design, and propose standardised metrics and evidence-grading
46 principles to support reliable and trustworthy ERA deployment in complex infrastructures exposed to
47 natural and technological hazards.

48 **Keywords:** emergency response automation, system reliability, system safety, intelligent
49 decision-making, artificial intelligence, digital twin

50



51 **1 Introduction**

52 In recent decades, disasters—particularly natural hazards and their cascading technological
53 impacts—have become increasingly frequent and complex, spanning climate hazards, industrial accidents
54 and public health crises(Yu et al., 2018). For example, the 1982 Edmonton well blowout in Canada was
55 quickly controlled through prompt ignition, averting a major explosion(Gephart, 1988). In contrast, the
56 2003 Kaixian gas-well blowout in Chongqing released hydrogen sulfide, causing over 190 deaths and the
57 evacuation of tens of thousands(Jianfeng et al., 2009). Such comparative cases highlight the core value of
58 timely response and scientifically grounded decision-making in emergency management. Yet, despite
59 unprecedented advances in sensing, communication and information technologies, emergency operations in
60 many countries remain characterised by fragmented data streams, incompatible platforms and
61 organisational "information silos". This raises a central question for this review: why do information silos
62 persist in an era of highly advanced technology, and how can ERA be designed to overcome them in
63 safety-critical emergency operations?

64 Driven by the rapid advancement of automation, artificial intelligence (AI), and digital twin
65 technologies, the field of emergency management is undergoing a profound transformation (Kyrkou et al.,
66 2022). The concept of Emergency Response Automation (ERA) has emerged as a comprehensive
67 framework that integrates these technologies to enhance system responsiveness and reliability. ERA has
68 demonstrated the potential to improve situational awareness, accelerate information processing, and enable
69 coordinated resource allocation across multiple actors and domains(Yang et al., 2013). Its deployment in
70 critical operations has been increasingly evident—for instance, supporting proactive containment strategies
71 during the COVID-19 pandemic(Andrejevic and O'Neill, 2024), enabling automated resource scheduling
72 after the Fukushima nuclear disaster(Nagatani et al., 2013), and improving response efficiency at China's
73 Qinshan and Hongyanhe nuclear power plants(Chen et al., 2018). Greater reliance on automation also



74 creates challenges: reliability, interoperability, accountability, and human-machine teaming in high-risk
75 contexts. We examine each through a system-safety lens and propose measurable safeguards.

76 From the perspective of reliability engineering, ERA offers a unique opportunity to bridge intelligent
77 automation with the quantitative assurance of system dependability, providing structured frameworks for
78 assessing robustness, fault tolerance, and safety performance across heterogeneous emergency operations.
79 Human responders still provide irreplaceable intuition, ethical reasoning, and adaptability—elements that
80 current automated systems cannot fully replicate. Thus, the key challenge is to design intelligent systems
81 that augment human judgment and build operational trust under time pressure.

82 Table 1. Overview of recent literature reviews in emergency response and disaster management.

Serial No.	Authors	Focus Area
1	H Saputra(Saputra et al., 2025)	An overview of IoT in the Urban/ Infrastructure direction
2	A Jazairy(Jazairy et al., 2025)	The Role of Drones in emergency logistics and material delivery.
3	R Damaševičius(Damaševičius et al., 2023)	Provide a comprehensive understanding of the Internet of Emergency Services and its implications for emergency response and disaster management.
4	L Dwarakanath(Dwarakanath et al., 2021)	A comprehensive review of the role of social media in emergency response after disasters based on machine learning.
5	U Lagap(Lagap and Ghaffarian, 2024)	The Application and Challenges of Digital Twin in Post-Disaster Risk Management.
6	Y Li(Li et al., 2024)	A Special Review of Digital Twins in Wildfire Management.
7	SM Khan(Khan et al., 2023)	Overall assessment of disaster management systems, with a focus on methods/tools and challenges.
8	SK Abid(Abid et al., 2025)	The Application of AI Methods Based on Social media and Crowdsourced Data in Disaster Management.
9	Y Feng(Feng and Cui, 2021)	A comprehensive review of the disaster emergency response system is conducted, including the current situation and future prospects.

83 Recent reviews on emergency response, summarized in Table 1, indicate that although prior studies



84 have examined diverse technologies and their domain-specific applications, several research gaps remain.
85 Existing literature is still fragmented, offering limited insights into cross-domain regularities and theoretical
86 integration with reliability and safety science. Moreover, few studies provide a systematic synthesis linking
87 technological evolution with operational, human, and organizational dimensions.

88 To address these gaps, this review adopts a safety-science and reliability-engineering perspective on
89 ERA, with a primary focus on natural hazards and environmental emergencies. Drawing on a
90 PRISMA-guided review of 198 peer-reviewed studies (2010–2025) on automated, intelligent and
91 data-driven emergency response, we propose a four-layer ERA framework—perception and monitoring,
92 data and decision-making, automated response and control, and feedback and learning—to integrate
93 heterogeneous findings, identify cross-domain patterns and expose interoperability challenges that sustain
94 information silos.

95 The review is guided by the following research questions:

96 RQ1: How do ERA capabilities at each layer align with reliability and system-safety metrics,
97 including availability and uptime, fault tolerance and graceful degradation, timeliness and accuracy
98 trade-offs, resilience under degraded communications, and human performance in natural and technological
99 hazard contexts?

100 RQ2: Across hazards and settings—with particular emphasis on natural hazards—which ERA
101 approaches show moderate or strong empirical support for improving safety-relevant outcomes, and which
102 remain limited to simulations, prototypes or small-scale demonstrations?

103 RQ3: What failure modes, bias sources, interoperability barriers and human–automation coordination
104 issues most threaten ERA dependability, and what assurance mechanisms have been proposed or
105 implemented to mitigate these risks?

106 From a safety-science perspective, this review makes three main contributions. First, it proposes an



107 integrative four-layer ERA architecture that links automation functions to risk-reduction mechanisms in
108 safety-critical socio-technical systems, and identifies interoperability as a core design principle for
109 overcoming information silos. Second, it maps ERA applications across hazard types, technologies and
110 capabilities, revealing cross-domain patterns and systematic gaps in reliability assurance, including limited
111 stress-testing under uncertainty, inadequate fail-safe and fail-operational design, and weak support for
112 human–automation teaming. Third, it advances a research agenda that connects ERA with resilience
113 engineering, Safety-II and the governance of emerging technologies, highlighting priorities for validating
114 intelligent decision-making, allocating control between humans and automated agents, and establishing
115 institutional arrangements for trustworthy ERA deployment.

116 The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 describes the review methodology;
117 Section 3 introduces the ERA framework and classifies the evidence base; Sections 4 and 5 analyse ERA
118 capabilities, applications and reliability issues, with emphasis on natural-hazard scenarios; Section 6
119 synthesises cross-cutting trends, limitations and future directions; and Section 7 concludes with key
120 implications for strengthening global disaster response.

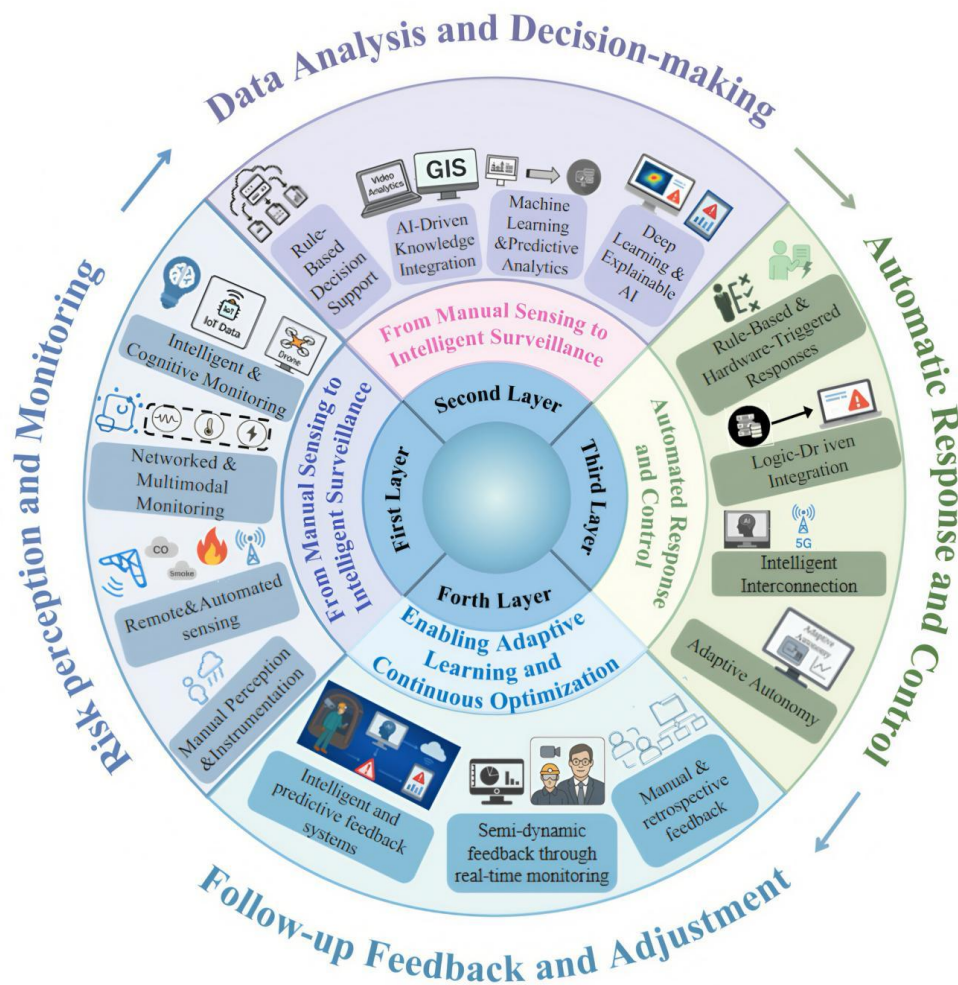


Fig.1 System framework diagram.

2 Methodology

This review focuses on Emergency Response Automation (ERA), defined as the integration of intelligent, automated, and data-driven technologies to support or partially substitute human



127 decision-making and operational activities across all phases of emergency management.

128 Following the PRISMA guidelines (Page et al., 2021), we conducted a comprehensive search for
 129 2010–2025 (last search across all sources: 27 September 2025). As illustrated in Fig. 2, the evidence base is
 130 heavily skewed towards recent work: 90.4% of the cited studies were published in 2010 or later, and almost
 131 60% appeared between 2020 and 2025. Only a small number of classic references prior to 2000 were
 132 retained to provide historical and theoretical context. Fig. 3 presents the PRISMA 2020 flow of records
 133 through identification, screening, and inclusion. Searches spanned Web of Science, Scopus, IEEE Xplore,
 134 and PubMed, supplemented by Google Scholar (top 10% per year by relevance and citations; $n =$
 135 54) (Zhang et al., 2019). The Boolean strategy combined three concept groups with “AND” :

136 (1) emergency (“emergency,” “disaster,” “pandemic,” “incident,” “accident”);
 137 (2) automation (“automate,” “autonomous,” “artificial intelligence”);
 138 (3) activities (“response,” “planning,” “monitoring,” “prediction”).

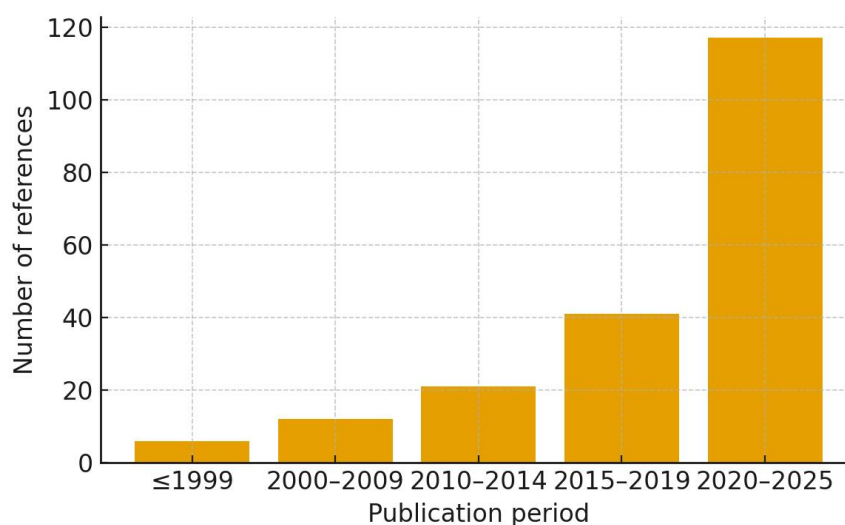


Fig. 2 Temporal distribution of ERA-related references.

141 After deduplication in EndNote, two reviewers independently screened titles/abstracts/full texts.
 142 Inclusion required peer-reviewed English studies (2010–2025) explicitly addressing automated, intelligent,



143 or data-driven emergency response and providing empirical, modeling, or conceptual contributions.
144 Discrepancies were resolved by consensus; Cohen's $\kappa = 0.86$ on a 20% random subset indicated high
145 agreement. Ultimately, 198 studies were included.

146 We applied a concise five-domain Reliability & Reproducibility (R&R) rubric (0–2 each; total 0–10):
147 (D1) external validity; (D2) completeness of quantitative safety metrics (e.g., latency, FAR/MDR,
148 availability/uptime, recovery time/MTTR); (D3) baseline/comparator; (D4) sample/condition diversity; (D5)
149 reporting transparency. Two reviewers scored independently and reconciled by consensus; agreement on a
150 20% calibration set was $\kappa = 0.86$. Totals map to High (8–10), Moderate (5–7), Low (0–4). Safeguards: if
151 $D2 = 0$ the tier cannot exceed Moderate; if ≥ 2 domains = 0 the tier is Low. NR (not reported) scored 0. To
152 conserve space, tables report only the tier (H/M/L).

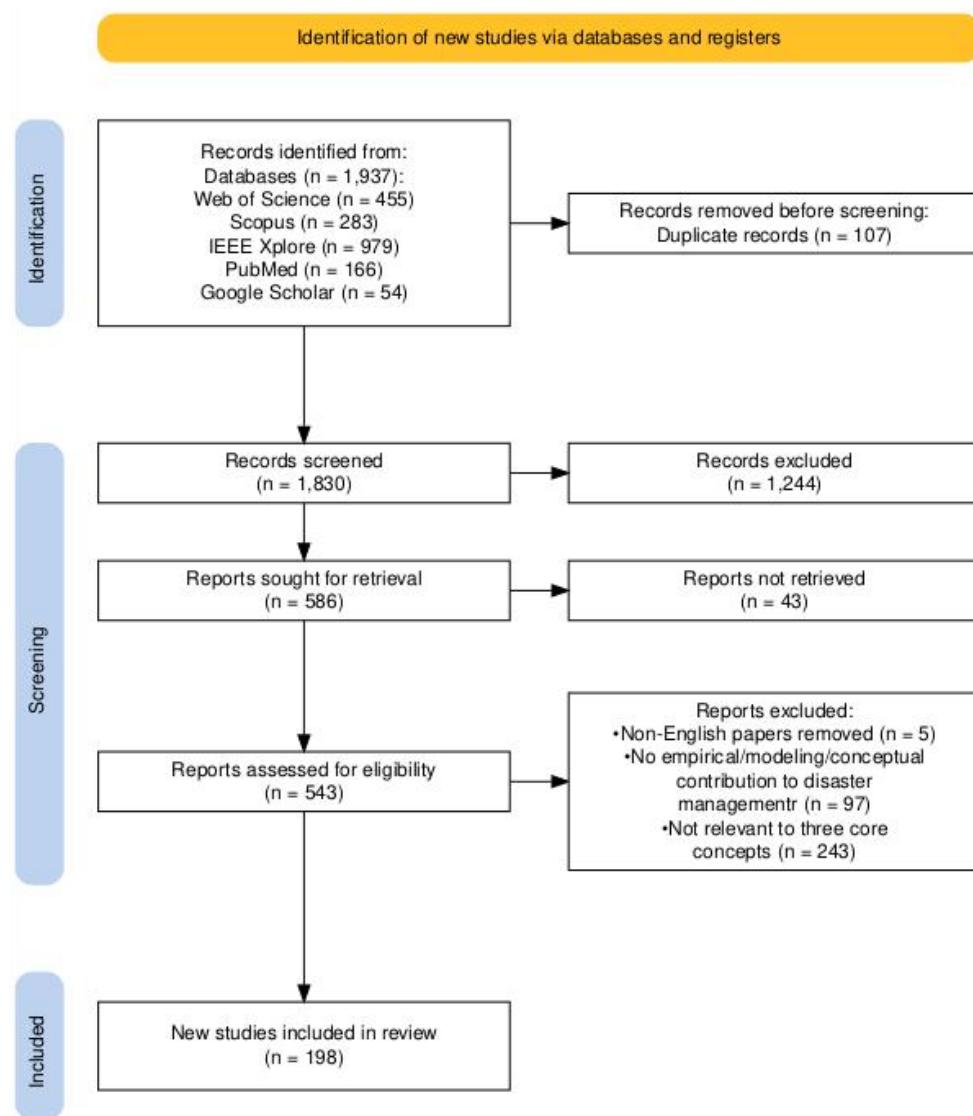


Fig.3 PRISMA 2020 flow diagram for the systematic review.

3 Composition and Definition

ERA refers to the automatic initiation and execution of emergency measures through sensors, data processing, and intelligent decision-making technologies, enabling rapid response to incidents such as



158 security threats, natural disasters, and public health emergencies with minimal human
159 intervention(Matracia et al., 2022).

160 **3.1 System framework**

161 The four-layer architecture of ERA proposed in this study was developed through a dual-path
162 approach of empirical induction and theoretical validation.

163 First, using thematic synthesis, two researchers independently reviewed and cross-compared 198
164 selected studies through multiple iterative rounds. This process identified four recurring functional
165 categories consistently appearing in ERA-related research—Perception, Decision-Making, Response &
166 Control, and Feedback & Learning.

167 Second, this four-layer structure aligns with well-established automation paradigms in other domains.
168 Comparable hierarchical closed-loop architectures can be observed in robotics(Brooks, 1991), industrial
169 control systems(Nagorny et al., 2012), and reliability management frameworks(Hollnagel, 2018), all of
170 which encompass a complete “Perceive–Reason–Act–Learn” process. Such consistency demonstrates that
171 the ERA framework reflects a widely recognized structural logic across automation-intensive systems.

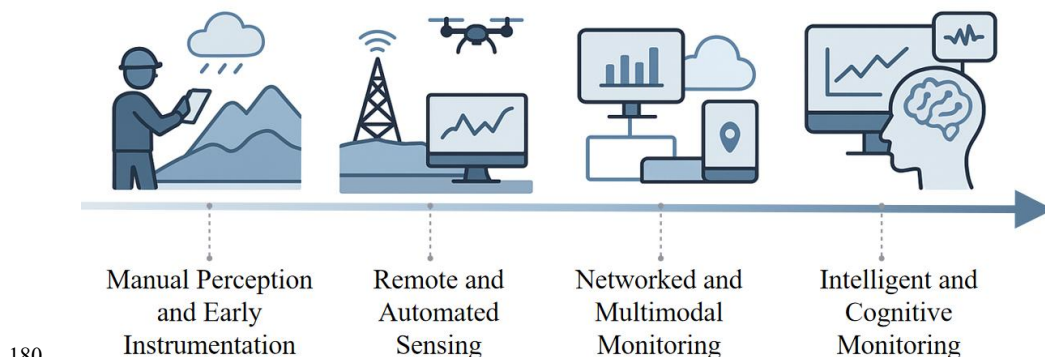
172 Finally, from the perspectives of systems engineering and cybernetics(González et al., 2021), the
173 four-layer architecture ensures both functional completeness and logical closed-loop reliability. Therefore,
174 the proposed architecture is grounded in both empirical evidence and cross-domain theoretical foundations,
175 providing a robust scientific basis for the development of adaptive and reliable ERA systems (Fig. 1).

176 **3.2 From Manual Sensing to Intelligent Surveillance**

177 Over the past six decades, risk perception and monitoring technologies have evolved from manual
178 field observations to intelligent, data-driven monitoring systems. Fig.4 illustrates this evolution, which can



179 be summarized into four interrelated phases.



181 Fig.4 Diagram of the evolution of the risk perception and monitoring layer.

182 (1) Manual Perception and Early Instrumentation

183 In the earliest stage, disaster perception relied on human operators, analog instruments, and visual
 184 inspection. Meteorological observers manually recorded rainfall and seismic activity(Schweitzer and Lee,
 185 2003); industrial workers conducted periodic checks using portable gas detectors(Hemingway et al., 2012);
 186 and public health surveillance depended on field sampling. Although these methods provided basic
 187 situational awareness, they were constrained by time delays(Fonollosa et al., 2018), limited coverage, and
 188 subjective bias(Dang et al., 2018). Automation was virtually absent—the perception layer of ERA remained
 189 entirely human-centered.

190 (2) Remote and Automated Sensing

191 With the rise of remote sensing satellites, radar networks, and early wireless sensor systems,
 192 monitoring gradually shifted toward automation(Ko et al., 2009; Kodali and Yerroju, 2017). Satellite-based
 193 systems enabled continuous observation of floods, landslides, and wildfires(Al-Hady et al., 2023; Mois et
 194 al., 2017); fixed gas and infrared sensors provided near-real-time industrial monitoring(Chraim et al., 2015;
 195 Jain and Kushwaha, 2012; Ni et al., 2018); and digital epidemiology systems aggregated hospital data for
 196 disease detection(Adiga et al., 2020). This phase marked the first integration of automated data acquisition



197 into ERA, significantly improving detection timeliness and reliability.

198 (3) Networked and Multimodal Monitoring

199 The emergence of IoT and multi-sensor fusion technologies enabled risk perception to become
200 multimodal—integrating visual, acoustic, thermal, and social data for comprehensive situational
201 awareness(Alamdar et al., 2015). Seismic sensors linked with drones enhanced earthquake
202 assessment(Contreras et al., 2021); fiber-optic sensors detected industrial leakage and overheating(Ashry et
203 al., 2022); and mobile apps supplied real-time epidemic data(Moses et al., 2021). These networked sensing
204 nodes laid the foundation for adaptive ERA architectures, where data streams directly informed early
205 warning and resource allocation.

206 (4) Intelligent and Cognitive Monitoring

207 The current phase is characterized by the convergence of AI, edge computing, and digital twin
208 technologies. Intelligent monitoring now extends beyond anomaly detection toward pattern recognition and
209 predictive diagnostics. Deep learning models extract complex spatiotemporal features from multi-source
210 data to identify emerging risk hotspots in real time. In public health, AI-driven systems integrate genomic
211 sequencing data with population mobility and social indicators to forecast epidemic trajectories(Hadfield et
212 al., 2018; Ongesa et al., 2025), COVID-19 early-warning system (EWS) uses hospital diagnostic data and
213 thermal sensors for contactless screening(Ding et al., 2025; Haque et al., 2024). In industrial safety,
214 computer vision and reinforcement learning models autonomously diagnose abnormal equipment behavior,
215 while explainable AI enhances operator trust in automated alerts(Rivas and Abrao, 2020; Sayed and Gabbar,
216 2017). In natural disaster management ,forest fire monitoring relies on IoT, thermal imaging, drones, and
217 AI algorithms to achieve early fire detection and spread prediction(Kavitha et al., 2023; Mehta et al., 2021),
218 DMSEEW system combines GPS and seismic sensors with ML to enhance earthquake early warning
219 accuracy(Becker et al., 2020). Additionally, the integration of big data technology enables automatic

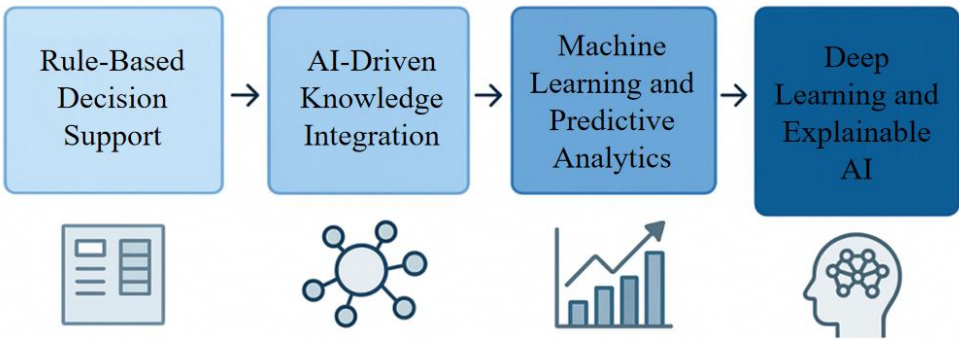


220 analysis of multi-source information such as social media, news reports, and police records to help predict
221 and identify potential social security threats (e.g., the Violent Behavior Detection System (VBDS) applies
222 deep learning to CCTV footage to detect violent behaviors(Shubber and Al-Ta'i, 2022)) .Based on natural
223 language processing and machine learning technologies, automated systems can monitor large volumes of
224 open data sources in real time, detect early warning information related to violence, riots, terrorist activities,
225 and provide decision support(Florea et al., 2022; Montasari, 2024; Robertson et al., 2019). These advances
226 are propelling ERA from reactive monitoring to proactive risk anticipation.

227 Across these phases, the transition from human-centered to human-machine hybrid perception has
228 continuously enhanced the reliability, scalability, and cross-domain applicability of automated emergency
229 response systems.

230 3.3 Evolution of Data-Driven Decision-Making

231 Serving as the cognitive core of ERA, the decision layer has progressed from deterministic, rule-based
232 systems to adaptive, data-driven intelligent engines. Fig. 5 illustrates this evolution across four interrelated
233 stages, each enhancing analytical capability and autonomy built upon its predecessors.



234
235 Fig.5 Diagram of the evolution of data analytics and the decision-making hierarchy.

236 (1) Rule-Based Decision Support



237 Early systems relied on fixed logical rules and expert-defined procedures. Classical models such as
238 Montgomery's sequential decision model(Montgomery and Svenson, 1976) and Simon's DSS framework
239 (intelligence–design–choice) (Simon, 1960) structured decision processes through rule- and case-based
240 reasoning. Applications in nuclear and chemical plants used predefined rules to ensure consistency and
241 auditability. Although limited in real-time adaptability and cross-domain generalization, these systems
242 established the transparent decision logic that underpinned later intelligent frameworks.

243 (2) AI-Driven Knowledge Integration

244 With the expansion of sensor networks and computing power, rule-based DSS evolved into hybrid AI
245 systems combining symbolic reasoning and probabilistic inference. Bayesian networks and GIS-based tools
246 enabled dynamic, multi-source situational assessment and predictive mapping(Bhatt and Zaveri, 2002).
247 Group decision support(Cua and Heaton, 2007) and game theory–based optimization models enhanced
248 interagency coordination under uncertainty(Brown and Vassiliou, 1993), reducing the isolation of
249 single-agent frameworks. This phase bridged deterministic rules with adaptive analytical reasoning through
250 AI-enabled knowledge integration.

251 (3) Machine Learning and Predictive Analytics

252 The proliferation of digital and sensor data shifted decision-making toward autonomous learning.
253 Algorithms such as neural networks(Liao et al., 2011), SVMs(Taamneh and Taamneh, 2021), and random
254 forests learned nonlinear risk–outcome relationships, enabling rapid forecasting of evolving emergencies(L.
255 Wang et al., 2024). Applications included wildfire propagation prediction(Bot and Borges, 2022; Pereira et
256 al., 2022; Sayad et al., 2019), explosion early warning, and evacuation optimization(Al-Hady et al., 2023)
257 (Huang et al., 2024; Rüppel and Schatz, 2011; Zverovich et al., 2016). Unlike prior hybrid systems, these
258 models derived decision rules directly from data, providing real-time adaptability to changing
259 environments.



260

261 (4) Deep Learning and Explainable AI

262 Recent advances have integrated deep learning-based perception technologies—such as natural
263 language processing for text and social media analytics(Imran et al., 2014), computer vision for image and
264 drone interpretation(Robertson et al., 2019), and multi-task learning for multi-hazard prediction—with
265 explainable decision modules emphasizing transparency and human trust (For complex events, multi-task
266 learning (MTL) has become pivotal, with Alam's MEDIC dataset demonstrating a 30% reduction in
267 computational overhead without accuracy loss(Alam et al., 2023)) .Representative systems include
268 AI-driven disaster response platforms (e.g., Fertier's AIC system dynamically generate response
269 strategies(Fertier et al., 2020)), vision-based recognition frameworks (e.g., VGG/YOLO(Robertson et al.,
270 2019)), medical emergency decision centers(Althouse et al., 2015), and generative AI decision support
271 systems. These examples demonstrate how advanced neural architectures enable real-time linkage between
272 perception and strategic decision-making. While these models substantially enhance accuracy and
273 adaptability, they introduce new challenges in interpretability, ethical reliability, and human-machine
274 collaboration.

275 Overall, the transition from rule-based determinism to data-driven adaptivity reflects a continuous
276 enhancement in probabilistic reasoning, autonomous learning, and human-machine synergy—forming the
277 intelligent, context-aware decision engine that now underpins reliable and adaptive emergency
278 management.

279 **3.4 Automated Response and Control**

280 The automated response and control layer constitutes the operational core of the ERA system,
281 translating analytical outputs from the decision-making layer into executable actions. Through automation



platforms and standardized communication protocols, it integrates firefighting, power, communication, and transportation subsystems. Fig.6 illustrates its evolution along four major technological pathways, reflecting the convergence of perception, computation, and coordination capabilities.

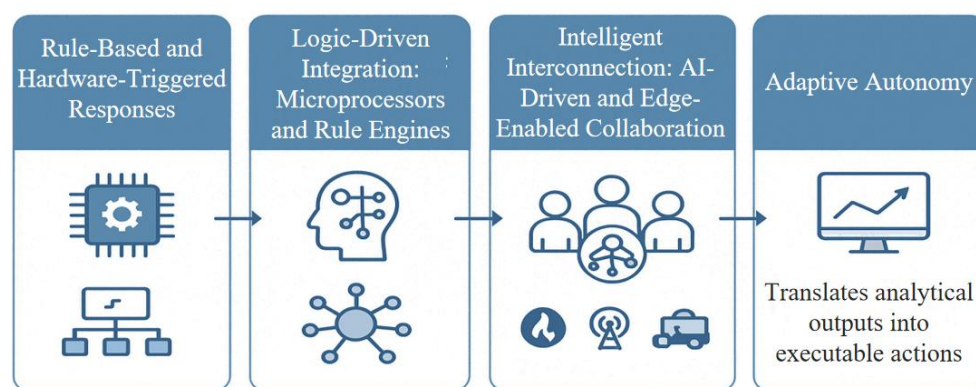


Fig.6 Diagram of the evolution of the automatic response and control layer.

(1) Rule-Based and Hardware-Triggered Responses

The initial stage of automation was dominated by single-sensor and threshold-triggered mechanisms, where systems were activated only upon anomaly detection. For instance, Graf's debris-flow monitoring system (Badoux et al., 2009) enabled early warning functions but remained entirely dependent on manual verification and intervention (Jafari et al., 2020). Automation during this stage was characterized by passivity and localization, featuring unidirectional signal transmission from sensors to operators, with limited inter-system communication or adaptive decision-making logic.

(2) Logic-Driven Integration

The second stage marked a transition from manual activation to programmable logic control, driven by the introduction of microprocessors and rule-based engines. Emergency response systems for hazardous materials (Zografos et al., 2000) and dynamic seismic mapping platforms (Bingli et al., 2014) enabled automation based on predefined rules and contextual thresholds. Concurrently, advances in mobile and wireless communication facilitated remote alerts and cross-platform coordination (Kuantama et al., 2013,



2012). For example, Azid et al. developed an Android-based flood warning application utilizing web services for automatic notifications(Sung et al., 2022), while De Souza et al. integrated real-time hydrological monitoring with user geolocation to deliver context-aware SMS alerts(De Souza et al., 2015). Automation at this stage exhibited logic-driven and distributed characteristics, yet remained constrained by static rules and limited situational awareness.

(3) Intelligent Interconnection

With the integration of deep learning, the Internet of Things (IoT), and 5G/B5G communication networks(Dixit et al., 2022; Euchi, 2021), automated response systems entered the stage of intelligent interconnection. Technologies such as device-to-device communication(Ahmed et al., 2019; Ever et al., 2020)and the Internet of Emergency Services (IoES) enabled multi-channel, low-latency information exchange among heterogeneous agencies(Damaševičius et al., 2023). Multi-access edge computing and service-oriented architectures facilitated real-time deployment of adaptive services, while intelligent transportation systems provided the foundation for networked emergency mobility(Chen and Englund, 2018). AI models—including CNN-based incident detection(Kim et al., 2019)and deep recurrent neural network–based event classification(dos Santos et al., 2019)—further enhanced the precision of automated control. This phase can be summarized as the “AI + Edge + Connectivity” paradigm, representing a shift from deterministic rule execution to context-aware, data-driven orchestration.

(4) Adaptive Autonomy

Since the 2020s, ERA systems have evolved toward adaptive and decentralized coordination, enabling dynamic sharing of authority(Chen et al., 2008) and resources across multiple agencies (Janssen et al., 2010)(IoT + BIM systems for fire detection and suppression, integrating sprinkler control and escape route optimization(Annadurai et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2023; Mondal et al., 2023)). Architectures based on ontology and multi-agent systems support semantic interoperability and autonomous negotiation among



323 heterogeneous organizations(Maalel and Ghézala, 2019). Rule-/ontology-based emergency
324 decision-support systems integrate event-driven reasoning and semantic inference to keep a continuously
325 updated operational picture and support rapid task (re)allocation and resource redistribution(Cui et al.,
326 2024). Meanwhile, the Matter-IoT framework improves device interoperability and response reliability
327 through standardized protocols(Bhardwaj and Joshi, 2024). The emergence of the digital twin
328 paradigm(Fan et al., 2021)further propels the transition from operational automation to cyber-physical
329 co-evolution, where continuously updated situational data refine simulation models to optimize control
330 strategies. Overall, this stage represents a transformation from passive automation to adaptive autonomy,
331 emphasizing continuous learning, coordination, and optimization.

332 This evolution reflects not only technological iteration but also multidimensional integration pathways:

333 (1) Vertical integration — standardizing data interfaces to link the perception, decision, and execution
334 layers; (2) Horizontal integration — achieving semantic and protocol-level interoperability among
335 heterogeneous response agencies;

336 (3) Cognitive integration — embedding learning algorithms for continual adaptation under uncertainty.

337 Thus, automation in ERA is shifting from task automation toward autonomous collaboration, laying the
338 foundation for a resilient, data-driven emergency management network.

339 **3.5 Enabling Adaptive Learning and Continuous** 340 **Optimization**

341 The feedback layer represents the adaptive capability of ERA systems, operating as a continuous
342 optimization loop across the disaster management cycle. Fig.7 illustrates how an effective feedback
343 mechanism transforms ERA from rule-based static models into dynamic, data-driven systems capable of
344 real-time self-optimization.

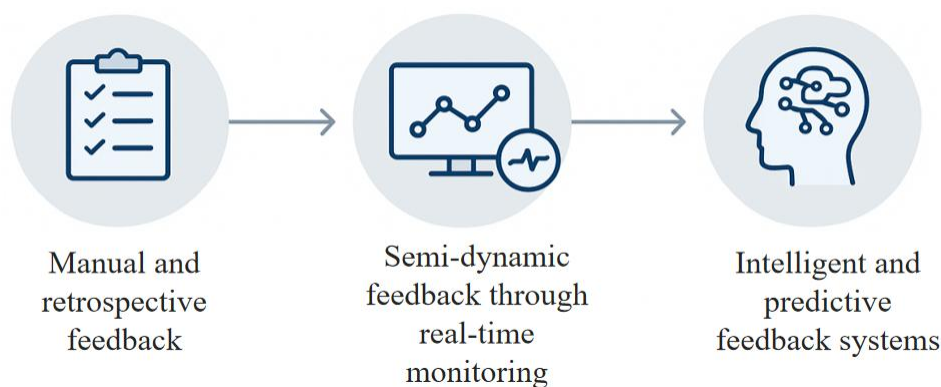


Fig.7 Diagram of the evolution of the subsequent feedback and adjustment layer.

(1) Manual and retrospective feedback

Early ERA studies primarily focused on retrospective analyses of emergency events or simulation exercises, heavily relying on manually written performance evaluations and post-incident reports (Ramabrahmam et al., 1996). During this period, feedback mechanisms lacked autonomous design; lessons learned were integrated manually, and complex resource coordination still depended on human intervention. Consequently, feedback played only a limited corrective role and was insufficient to support continuous system improvement.

(2) Semi-dynamic feedback through real-time monitoring

With advances in sensing, communication, and computational technologies, feedback layers gradually incorporated real-time monitoring and automated evaluation capabilities (Badoux et al., 2009; Ding et al., 2022; Gasparini et al., 2007). Researchers began improving alarm performance, enhancing the utilization of monitoring data, and integrating location-based path planning models to coordinate disaster logistics and resource deployment (Yi and Özdamar, 2007). The convergence of BIM-GIS-IoT technologies further enhanced system interoperability, enabling more efficient spatial and situational data exchange (Boguslawski et al., 2015; Sani and Abdul Rahman, 2018). These developments marked a shift from static, post-event analysis toward semi-dynamic feedback, where systems could trigger limited



363 adaptive actions based on predefined thresholds or simple rule sets.

364 (3) Intelligent and predictive feedback systems

365 The rise of artificial intelligence, machine learning, and big data analytics has transformed the
366 feedback layer into an intelligent decision support system. By integrating real-time medical, transportation,
367 and social data streams via the Internet of Things, ERA systems can dynamically reallocate resources and
368 adjust operational priorities in evolving scenarios(Zhang et al., 2014; G. Zhang et al., 2024). Deep learning
369 algorithms detect emerging risk patterns and predict disaster evolution trends, allowing the system to
370 proactively reconfigure response strategies before performance degradation occurs. For instance, real-time
371 social media data mining assists public health agencies in adjusting medical resource allocation(Rathore et
372 al., 2016), while reinforcement learning models continuously refine decision policies based on performance
373 feedback(Arulkumaran et al., 2017; Li, 2024).

374 Overall, the evolution of the feedback layer reflects a paradigm shift from retrospective correction to
375 continuous and predictive adaptation. This transformation establishes a solid theoretical foundation for the
376 cross-domain application analysis discussed in the following section.

377 The above constitutes the four core layers of the ERA system, providing a foundational framework for
378 the subsequent application scenario analysis.

379 **4 Advantages of ERA**

380 The advantages of ERA can be summarized in four points: data analysis, rapid response, precise
381 location and intelligent dispatch.

382 **4.1 Data-Driven Decision Advantages**

383 The integration of AI and big data into ERA systems has enabled the consolidation of multi-source



384 information, thereby enhancing prediction accuracy and situational awareness throughout the entire
385 emergency management cycle. For instance, the Johns Hopkins University Global COVID-19 Surveillance
386 Platform established a real-time data acquisition (Sheng et al., 2021) and reporting mechanism that
387 significantly supported timely responses during large-scale public health crises (Kamel Boulos and
388 Geraghty, 2020). Similar mechanisms have been implemented in Japan's Earthquake Early Warning System,
389 where automated seismic data processing allows alerts to be issued within seconds (Kumar et al., 2022; H.
390 Zhang et al., 2024). These systems demonstrate that automation can effectively augment human judgment in
391 real-world emergency contexts. The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) in the
392 United States provides another example: its AI-driven hurricane forecasting models generate automated
393 predictions that support expert deliberations, while human coordinators ultimately decide when and how to
394 issue community alerts (Jafarzadegan et al., 2023; Lam et al., 2023).

395 **4.2 Temporal Efficiency in Rapid Response**

396 Real-time monitoring and analytics enable Emergency Response Automation (ERA) systems to
397 rapidly detect incidents and trigger timely responses, thereby minimizing latency. For example, Zheng et al.
398 proposed the ChangeOS framework for multi-hazard decision support (Zheng et al., 2021); other
399 implementations include a rapid emergency system for hydrogen leakage (C. Wang et al., 2024) and a
400 real-time threshold-based flood emergency activation mechanism (Zhou et al., 2024). Technological
401 responsiveness must align with human readiness and coordination. Automated alerts are effective only
402 when responders can interpret and trust system outputs. Thus, ERA efficiency relies not just on
403 computational speed but on training, trust, and teamwork enabling human-machine collaboration.



4.3 Geospatial Precision in Resource Allocation

Accurate localization at the incident scene is a critical function of ERA systems(Ang et al., 2022; Khan et al., 2022). For instance, following the 2010 Haiti earthquake, Geographic Information System (GIS) technologies were employed to precisely identify the most severely affected regions(Corbane et al., 2011). Similarly, after the 2015 Nepal earthquake, the integration of satellite imagery and real-time unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) data not only supported emergency response operations(Ge et al., 2015) but also provided rescue teams with precise navigation information. Liu and You and colleagues utilized UAVs to develop optimized resource allocation schemes, determine efficient distribution routes and equipment utilization plans, and design medical supply transportation strategies, thereby providing robust operational support for emergency missions(Liu and You, 2020). In addition, real-time tracking of rescue personnel and materials has ensured highly coordinated and efficient response operations(Balta et al., 2017; Damaševičius et al., 2023). Collectively, these applications demonstrate how fine-grained geospatial information and real-time tracking enable ERA systems to match resources to needs with high spatial precision.

4.4 Computational Optimization for Intelligent Dispatch

Intelligent dispatching systems leverage predictive modeling to optimize resource allocation and logistics scheduling. During the COVID-19 pandemic, numerous regions employed artificial intelligence and digital platforms to manage medical supplies and personnel, effectively alleviating shortages and enhancing coordination efficiency(Lv et al., 2021; Van Der Schaar et al., 2021). Compared with ground transportation, unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) reduced emergency medical delivery times by several minutes(Claesson et al., 2017)(UAVs shortened AED delivery by 2–8 minutes, and up to 7 minutes with optimized routing) (Roberts et al., 2023). However, achieving such benefits requires more than algorithmic sophistication. Institutional readiness—including regulatory flexibility and financial support—and robust



426 data-sharing agreements play equally critical roles in determining whether automated dispatching can
427 operate at scale. The strength of intelligent dispatching therefore lies in the synergistic interplay between
428 technological capability and institutional collaboration, ensuring that automation functions within
429 trustworthy, coordinated and well-regulated emergency management systems.

430 **5 Typical Application Scenarios**

431 Emergency response automation technology has been systematically applied in various fields,
432 including natural disasters(Sun et al., 2020), industrial disasters(Aziz et al., 2014), public health(Murthy et
433 al., 2017), social security and public safety emergency response automation(Chowdhury et al., 2023), and
434 military combat and security emergency response automation(Sciences et al., 2017). Despite the diversity
435 of application scenarios, the core logic of these systems all adhere to a closed-loop framework of
436 “monitoring-assessment-decision-response”(Casartelli et al., 2025; Cook and Dorussen, 2021; Stoto et al.,
437 2018).

438 This section summarizes the representative emergency response systems and platforms that frequently
439 appear in the literature, clarifying their core functions, key technologies, application contexts, and strength
440 of supporting evidence. The selection criteria for these systems include:

- 441 (1) recurrent appearance across multiple peer-reviewed studies;
- 442 (2) coverage of diverse technological pathways;
- 443 (3) demonstration of typical trade-offs among perception, decision-making, execution, and learning
- 444 capabilities.

445 **5.1 Cross-System Comparative Analysis**

446 To ensure transparent cross-system comparison, each representative system was mapped to six



447 commonly cited ERA capability dimensions:

448 (1) multi-source sensing and monitoring,

449 (2) decision support and automation,

450 (3) execution and deployment,

451 (4) interoperability and data sharing,

452 (5) robustness and fault tolerance,

453 (6) adaptive learning.

454 Each system's performance was semi-quantitatively rated as strong (S), medium (M), or weak (W)

455 under an evidence-grading scheme emphasizing reproducibility and rigor. Ratings considered field or

456 multi-site validation, comparative or pre-post analyses, sample size and reporting completeness, and the

457 availability of quantitative indicators e.g., detection latency, false-alarm rate, task-success ratio. Studies

458 with incomplete metrics or potential bias—such as missing control comparisons or unclear

459 validation—were recorded and downgraded accordingly. Systems supported only by conceptual models or

460 small pilots were rated lower. Table 2 presents the resulting capability matrix, interpreted with supporting

461 evidence in Table 3.

462 From these evaluations, several convergent and divergent patterns emerge:

463 Common Features:

464 (1) Layered architecture: Most systems follow a perception → analysis → decision → execution

465 sequence, validating the four-layer ERA framework.

466 (2) Sensing priority: Investment concentrates on early detection (sensor networks, remote sensing,

467 video analytics) to ensure rapid situational awareness.

468 (3) Human-in-the-loop: While automated rules exist, critical decisions generally retain human

469 oversight.



470 (4) Limited adaptability: Few operational systems enable real-time learning; most remain in prototype
471 stages.

472 (5) Interoperability gaps: Persistent data silos continue to hinder coordination and efficiency.

473 Based on these evaluations, several convergent patterns and distinct divergences can be identified:

474 Distinctive Features:

475 (1) Execution intensity: Logistics systems emphasize automated execution, whereas monitoring
476 systems primarily support human decisions.

477 (2) Robustness requirements: Natural hazard systems must handle sensor noise and false alarms, while
478 industrial systems rely on deterministic logic to reduce false positives.

479 (3) Evidence maturity: Some systems, such as medical UAV platforms, have field validation, whereas
480 others remain in prototype or simulation stages.

481 (4) Privacy and ethics: Urban surveillance systems face privacy and public acceptance challenges
482 absent in closed industrial settings.

483 Overall, the ERA framework demonstrates broad applicability, but system designs must balance
484 trade-offs among sensing accuracy, automation, interoperability, and socio-legal constraints. Future
485 research should advance ERA systems from conceptual models to reliable, interoperable, and operational
486 solutions.



Table 2. Representative systems.

Notes: ^aEvidence strength (H/M/L) follows the R&R rubric (see Methods): High = 8–10; Moderate = 5–7; Low = 0–4; NR = 0. If D2 = 0 \Rightarrow band \leq Moderate; if ≥ 2 domains = 0 \Rightarrow band = Low.

System	Core function	Key technologies	Typical deployment / scenario	Reported effect / evidence	Evidence strength	Limitations / failure modes
ShakeAlert(Given al., 2018)	Rapid detection and warning	Dense networks, automated classifiers (ML), alert distribution	Regional seismic early-warning (USA)	Seconds-to-minutes warnings; documented false-alarm incidents emphasize fault tolerance needs	Operational + case reports (medium)	False/late alerts in complex events; gaps where station density is low.
FPERS (flood platform) (Hamidi et al., 2023; Trepekli et al., 2022)	Real-time visualization & warning for resource allocation	Remote sensing, CCTV, threshold-trigger alarms	Riverine/urban forecasting and response	Visualized propagation to aid resource operational case examples	Case studies (medium)	Misses flash/compound floods; sensitive to sensor gaps; weak multi-agency integration.
ERP-AS / EAL-based systems(Chen et al., 2018; Voytyuk et al., 2021)	Automated emergency classification and graded response for industrial/nuclear sites	Rule-based logic, dynamic thresholds, decision rules	Chemical plants, nuclear power plants	Faster and consistent emergency classification; reported response-time improvements	Case/operational reports (medium-high)	Rules miss novel scenarios; strong dependence on accurate sensors and operator compliance.
Urban Awareness (e.g., DAS)(Levine et al., 2017)	City-scale awareness for public safety	Large-scale analytics, data fusion, dashboards	Urban policing, large public events	Improved detection/monitoring capacity reported by implementing agencies	Agency reports / case descriptions (medium)	Relies on dense data/connectivity; privacy and governance constraints; risk of biased alerts.



UloT fire monitoring(Bisquert et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2024; Ramadan et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2023)	Fire source localization and spread tracking	UAVs, thermal imaging, IoT sensors, CV algorithms	Wildfire/structural fire monitoring	Real-time performance degrades in smoky/occluded conditions	Localization; pilot in smoke/occlusion; vulnerable to power/network loss; limited large-scale trials.	Prototype / deployments (low-medium)	Detection degrades in smoke/occlusion; vulnerable to power/network loss; limited large-scale trials.
Healthcare Automation & Telemedicine System (COVID-19)(Li et al., 2021; Rathore et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2021)	Dynamic allocation of medical resources and AI-assisted remote diagnosis during pandemics	AI decision support, IoT networks, telemedicine platforms, data integration	Public health emergency / epidemic response	Automated scheduling, allocation, tele-consultation; improved triage efficiency reported during COVID-19	staff bed quality and bias issues; uneven staff adoption.	supported by multiple studies operational data from pandemic deployments(medium-high)	Heavy reliance on hospital IT; data quality and bias issues; uneven staff adoption.
Smart Emergency Response Platforms (e.g., Singapore ITS)(Martinez et al., 2010; Telang et al., 2021)	Integrated urban traffic management and incident response	IoT sensors, analytics, control systems, real-time data fusion	Urban transportation large-event management	Automated signal control and emergency-lane optimization; enhanced urban coordination	Complex integration; failures cascade; legacy-system interoperability remains patchy.	validated through municipal implementation reports and performance summaries (medium)	Complex integration; failures cascade; legacy-system interoperability remains patchy.
Drone medical logistics (Homier et al.)(Homier et al., 2021)	Urgent delivery mass-casualty disrupted-access scenarios	UAV routing/dispatch algorithms, regulatory integration	Urban & disaster logistics	Empirical trial: delivery 17 min vs 29 min by ground (41% faster)	Weather/airspace limits; payload and endurance; tight workflow integration.	Field trial empirical (high)	Weather/airspace limits; payload and endurance; tight workflow integration.



Table 3. System × Capability Matrix.

Notes: ^a Capability ratings are interpreted alongside the evidence band (R&R) to avoid overstating capabilities supported by weak evidence.

System Capability	ShakeAlert	FPERS	ERP-AS / EAL	Urban DAS	UIoT (fire)	Healthcare & Telemedicine System	Smart City Platform	Drone medical
Perception	Strong (seismic network + ML)	Strong (satellite + CCTV + sensors)	Medium	Strong (video + sensors)	Medium (thermal + optical + IoT)	Strong (health data + IoT)	Strong (IoT + traffic sensors)	Weak (logistics-focused)
Decision support	Medium (alert triggers)	Medium (threshold-based advisories)	Strong (EAL logic)	Medium (analyst-in-the-loop)	Medium (local fire tracking)	Strong (AI-driven triage & scheduling)	Strong (adaptive routing & AI optimization)	Medium (dispatch algorithm)
Execution and deployment	Weak	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Strong	Strong	Strong
Interoperability / data sharing	Weak (islanded networks)	Medium	Low-Medium	Medium	Low	Medium-High	High	Medium
Robustness / fault tolerance	Weak (documented false alarms)	Medium	Medium	Medium	Low (sensor vulnerability)	Medium-High	High	Medium
Continuous learning / adaptation	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Medium	Medium-High	Low-Medium



490 Building upon the preceding system-level and capability-level analyses, we now focus on the shared
491 technological foundations that enable efficient ERA. Table 4 provides a cross-domain synthesis of the key
492 enabling technologies. These technologies are widely deployed across different operational contexts and
493 collectively support perception, decision-making, coordination, and adaptive control under conditions of
494 uncertainty.

495 This integrative perspective aligns with the principles of the U.S. National Incident Management
496 System (NIMS) and the Incident Command System (ICS), both of which emphasize interoperability,
497 unified command, and flexible coordination. Similarly, a cross-domain ERA architecture emphasizes
498 technological convergence over fragmentation, advocating a transition from domain-specific automation
499 toward a systemic, learning-oriented, and trust-enhancing framework for intelligent emergency
500 management.



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Table 4. Cross-domain Technology Matrix for ERA.

Technology	Environmental & Natural Hazards	Industrial & Infrastructure Emergencies	Public Health & Social Safety	Cross-domain Insights
Remote Sensing (Satellite, UAV, LiDAR)	Provides large-scale terrain monitoring, and damage assessment for floods, earthquakes, and wildfires.	Detects gas leaks, fires, and structural anomalies in critical facilities.	Supports surveillance, crowd monitoring, and mobility management during crises.	Advantage: Enhances situational awareness and early impact assessment. Limitation: Limited accuracy in indoor/underground settings and affected by data latency.
IoT and Sensor Networks	Collects distributed data (temperature, vibration, water levels) to support real-time disaster detection.	Enables continuous monitoring of chemical concentrations, pressure, and equipment health.	Tracks medical supplies, patient status, and logistics for dynamic resource allocation.	Advantage: Provides fine-grained, real-time data connectivity. Limitation: Vulnerable to communication failure and interoperability issues.
Big Data & Cloud/Fog Computing	Supports predictive modeling and dynamic warning through multi-source data fusion.	Facilitates anomaly detection, prediction, and decision optimization.	Enables epidemic trend analysis and healthcare resource coordination.	Advantage: Integrates heterogeneous data for rapid decision-making. Limitation: Privacy, latency, and standardization remain major challenges.
Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI)	Improves interpretability of hazard forecasting and decision support models.	Assists in fault diagnosis, process optimization, and incident prediction.	Enhances transparency of automated triage and public health diagnostics.	Advantage: Builds user trust and facilitates human-AI collaboration. Limitation: Trade-off between interpretability and model performance.

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547 **5.2 Summary**

548 This section maps representative ERA systems onto a clearly defined capability matrix and
549 integrates cross-system evidence. This approach reveals both the generic capability dimensions of
550 ERA and the system-specific trade-offs involving robustness, interoperability, and operational
551 autonomy. In doing so, it establishes an empirical bridge between conceptual frameworks and
552 operational realities.

553 The innovation of this approach lies in two aspects:

554 (1) establishing a transparent evidence mapping from concrete systems to framework
555 components;

556 (2) deriving cross-domain, non-siloed research priorities based on this mapping to guide future
557 ERA development.

558 **6 Discussion**

559 Despite significant advances in automation and intelligence, contemporary ERA systems face
560 persistent implementation bottlenecks rooted in technological, organizational, and societal factors.
561 Based on evidence extracted from the literature, this section synthesizes major challenges, articulates
562 implications for Safety Science practice, and proposes actionable, verifiable research directions to
563 bridge current gaps.

564 **6.1 Analysis of system limitations and challenges**

565 Current ERA systems exhibit four primary limitations: data quality, system compatibility,
566 privacy/security, and cost-effectiveness. We elucidate these issues with supporting literature.

567 ERA face dual challenges of accuracy and completeness at the data level. Errors, missing data,



568 or delays in real-time data can directly lead to decision-making biases, while communication
569 disruptions caused by damaged infrastructure in disaster-affected areas further exacerbate this
570 issue(Cao et al., 2023; Rak et al., 2021). For example, in the 2018 Indonesian earthquake, severe
571 damage to power and communication facilities caused the ERA to collapse, and technologies such as
572 drones were unable to fully replace traditional methods due to limitations such as weather and
573 battery life(Yulianto et al., 2020).

574 System compatibility and cross-domain coordination are another major challenge. Differences
575 in technical standards and data formats across departments, regions, and even countries create
576 information silos, and cross-border rescue operations also face regulatory conflicts(Suggett, 2012).
577 In the 2015 Nepal earthquake, inconsistent system standards among countries made resource
578 integration difficult(Rai et al., 2021), and the 2021 Ar River Valley flood incident also faced issues
579 of ineffective communication between emergency response systems(Müller et al., 2023). The
580 European GDPR imposes compliance constraints on cross-border data transmission(Voss, 2019).

581 Privacy security and social trust crises are increasingly prominent. The system's reliance on
582 personal data may lead to leakage risks (Velev and Zlateva, 2023). On December 23, 2015, a
583 coordinated cyberattack on Ukraine's distribution utilities caused power outages affecting hundreds
584 of thousands of customers(Sullivan and Kamensky, 2017). Personal information leakage incidents in
585 multiple countries during the pandemic have exacerbated public concerns(Chan and Saqib, 2021;
586 Wang et al., 2024). When using drones for rescue missions, network security issues must be
587 considered (Papayan et al., 2024; Sindiramutty et al., 2024). Data confidentiality(Sciancalepore,
588 2024). Additionally, AI algorithm bias and decision-making opacity further erode trust, while
589 insufficient technical capabilities among frontline personnel also constrain system
590 effectiveness(Gevaert et al., 2021). Accordingly, we need corresponding methods to protect personal



591 information, sensitive information, and other data(Seba et al., 2019).

592 Costs and talent shortages pose practical constraints. The procurement of hardware, software
593 development, and ongoing maintenance require substantial funds, which may pose financial
594 pressures for small and medium-sized enterprises or regions and departments with poorer economic
595 conditions. Peer-reviewed assessments indicate that operating a West Coast EEW system such as
596 ShakeAlert requires sustained annual O&M funding, and cost–benefit analyses show that avoided
597 losses from even a single moderate earthquake can offset about a year of operations(Strauss and
598 Allen, 2016) (Given et al., 2018), and developing countries in particular face a shortage of high-end
599 technical talent.

600 These controversies fundamentally reflect the deep-seated contradiction between “technological
601 availability” and “system reliability,” necessitating the establishment of an interdisciplinary research
602 framework.

603 **6.2 Implications for Safety Science practice**

604 **6.2.1Reliability engineering implications**

605 ERA should be designed and evaluated against reliability metrics—availability/MTBF, fault
606 tolerance, and time-critical performance. Tools such as FMEA and fault/causal graphs can localize
607 failure propagation and support uncertainty-aware thresholds. Where the literature reports
608 operational or multi-site evaluations, we recommend reporting FAR, missed detections, latency, and
609 recovery time relative to baseline systems to enable evidence grading(Xu et al., 2012).

610 **6.2.2Human factors and adoption**

611 Human-in-the-loop (HITL) controls and explainable AI (XAI) should target workload, situation



612 awareness, and calibrated trust. Training and rehearsal can reduce misuse/disuse, especially under
613 degraded communications. We recommend tracking workload/trust alongside technical metrics, in
614 line with our findings that explainable AI and human–machine collaboration are pivotal for
615 trustworthy ERA(Hancock et al., 2011; Hoff and Bashir, 2015).

616 **6.2.3 Standards and interoperability**

617 Cross-agency operations benefit from standards-aligned data models and interfaces consistent
618 with incident-management practice(Elmhadhbi et al., 2020; Salvador et al., 2019). As a minimum
619 viable interoperability set, we recommend (1) schema mappings and API/message profiles aligned
620 with the roles and message types used in incident command, and (2) event-logging conventions for
621 traceability across agencies and operational periods—directly addressing the interoperability gaps
622 highlighted in 6.1 and reflecting the NIMS/ICS emphasis on unified coordination.

623 **6.3 Next-generation ERA model framework**

624 Building on the proposed four-layer ERA architecture, this study presents a next-generation
625 integrated model that enables end-to-end collaboration and adaptive evolution across heterogeneous
626 systems. Fig.8 illustrates this model, which extends conventional multilayer structures and provides
627 a forward-looking framework for ERA development in complex, data-intensive environments.

628 At its core, the model introduces three interrelated pillars, serving both as technological
629 enablers and methodological foundations:

630 (1) Digital Twin Middleware Platform (DTMP): Synchronizes virtual and physical systems to
631 enable real-time simulation, validation, and adaptive optimization.

632 (2) AI–Expert Hybrid Decision Engine (AI-E): Integrates machine intelligence with expert



reasoning to generate interpretable and trustworthy decisions.

(3) Intelligent IoT Edge Network (I-IEN): Combines 6G communications, blockchain-based data integrity assurance, and edge computing to ensure resilient connectivity and secure, low-latency information flow.

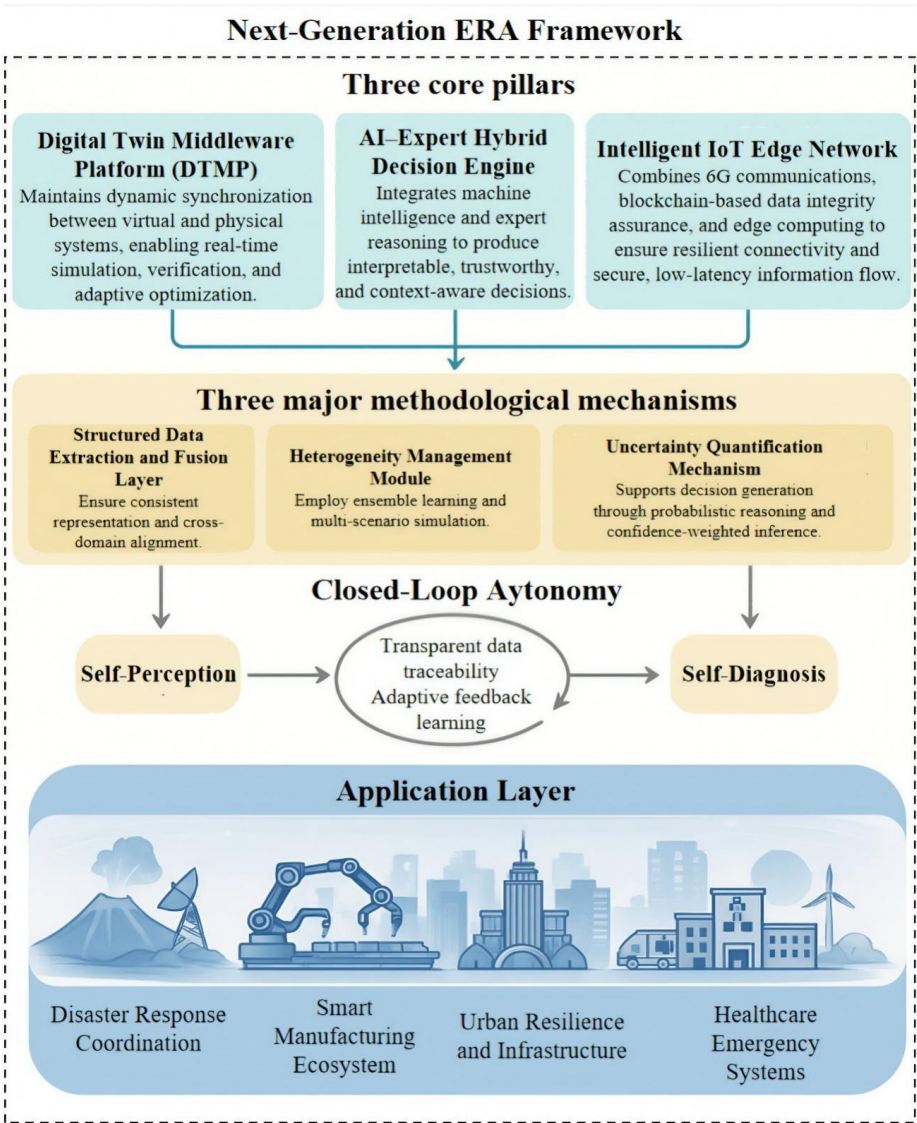


Fig.8 Key Interaction Flow of ERA System.



639 Unlike conventional ERA systems that follow rigid workflows, this model emphasizes
640 closed-loop autonomy—including self-perception, self-diagnosis, and self-deployment—supported
641 by transparent data traceability and adaptive learning. This marks ERA’s evolution from a toolset to
642 an intelligent, self-organizing system.

643 Each pillar defines quantifiable research dimensions: DTMP enables assessment of predictive
644 accuracy and latency reduction; AI-E allows evaluation of decision interpretability and
645 human–machine trust; I-IEN facilitates measurement of communication resilience and coordination
646 efficiency. These metrics provide a foundation for cross-domain empirical validation and address
647 long-standing methodological gaps such as non-standardized evaluation and limited reproducibility.

648 To ensure comparability, the framework integrates three methodological mechanisms:
649 structured data fusion, heterogeneity management through ensemble learning, and uncertainty
650 quantification via probabilistic reasoning. Together, these mechanisms enhance robustness and
651 transparency, advancing ERA toward an evidence-driven, adaptive system capable of learning,
652 coordination, and evolution under uncertainty.

653 **6.4 Theoretical positioning**

654 To deepen the theoretical foundations of the next-generation ERA architecture, a comparative
655 analysis was conducted with three representative theoretical models in the emergency response
656 domain: the OODA loop(Brehmer, n.d.; Sullivan and Kamensky, 2017; Von Lubitz et al., 2008), the
657 State Emergency Management System (SEMS) based on the Incident Command System (ICS)
658 (Kano et al., 2007), and Resilience Engineering(Park et al., 2013). These models represent,
659 respectively, iterative cognition, hierarchical coordination, and adaptive recovery perspectives that
660 have shaped modern emergency management paradigms.



661 Structurally, the ERA framework can be mapped onto these theories (Table 5). Its
662 “perception–decision–communication–response” cycle parallels the OODA loop, while its
663 communication and response layers support the collaborative and modular characteristics of SEMS.
664 From a resilience perspective, ERA’s functional chain of
665 “identification–regulation–reconstruction–optimization” embodies the adaptive learning principles
666 of Resilience Engineering. However, the significance of this alignment lies not in structural
667 similarity, but in its transformation of the underlying cognitive and organizational
668 logic—transitioning from human-coordinated systems to intelligent autonomous systems.

669 ERA extends these classical models in three key dimensions.

670 First, it generalizes the OODA loop through multimodal sensing and explainable AI, enabling
671 autonomous perception and decision cycles that surpass human speed and situational coverage.

672 Second, it advances beyond SEMS’s procedural rigidity by employing data-driven scheduling
673 and blockchain-assisted coordination, thereby enhancing elasticity in heterogeneous, multi-agency
674 operations.

675 Third, it evolves Resilience Engineering toward a proactive paradigm: by coupling digital twins
676 and edge intelligence, the system can predict, simulate, and optimize response strategies in real time.

677 Yet, the theoretical strengths of ERA are context-dependent. In real-world environments,
678 technical and environmental constraints may limit its advantages. The 2011 Fukushima nuclear
679 accident illustrates this boundary: although multiple automated systems were deployed, high
680 radiation and signal interference caused severe communication failures and delayed robotic
681 operations. This underscores that automation alone cannot guarantee resilience unless systems
682 incorporate environmentally adaptive redundancy, fault tolerance, and recovery coordination among
683 agents. In other words, the theoretical superiority of ERA requires robust implementation



684 mechanisms to withstand anomalous disturbances.

685 Therefore, the ERA framework should be viewed not as a replacement for human-centered

686 models but as an evolutionary complement—enhancing decision efficiency and resilience through

687 integration rather than substitution. Future theoretical exploration should focus on validating under

688 which conditions ERA’s advantages emerge, by linking architectural performance indicators with

689 empirical data from real or simulated disaster scenarios. Such a comparative, evidence-based

690 approach will substantiate the theoretical claims and delineate their operational boundaries.

691 Table 5. Advantages of ERA in case simulations.

Model	Key features	Performance in this case	ERA System Corresponding Capabilities
OODA Loop	Linear cycle: Observe → Orient → Decide → Act	The command center initiated a response based on sensor data, but communication disruptions and conflicting inputs caused several minutes of delay, hindering full situational coverage.	ERA integrates multi-source perception and AI-driven decision-making, automating the “Orient” and “Decide” functions and enabling rapid contingency simulations within seconds to enhance response speed and coverage.
SEMS	Emphasize organizational structure and division of responsibilities (ICS framework)	Inconsistent information channels and uncoordinated operations among firefighting, medical, and transportation agencies result in fragmented responses.	ERA employs a 6G–blockchain communication layer as a task-scheduling platform to enable cross-organizational coordination, consensus, and resource sharing, replacing static processes.
Resilience Engineering	Focus on system fault tolerance, recovery, and learning mechanisms.	During early disaster stages, localized system failures at transport and medical hubs create communication blind spots, delaying manual instructions and feedback.	The ERA system employs a self-feedback redeployment mechanism: when a robot fails and returns, the AI dynamically reschedules and reconstructs task paths based on real-time information, showcasing self-healing and adaptive learning.

692 **6.5 Future trends**

693 The future evolution of ERA is expected to advance along five interdependent technological

694 trajectories: intelligent sensing, autonomous and explainable decision-making, resilient



695 communication, digital-twin-based simulation, and intelligent multi-agent collaboration. Collectively,
696 these pathways aim to overcome persistent limitations in data fragmentation, communication
697 disruption, decision uncertainty, and coordination inefficiency. Nevertheless, progress in these
698 domains must move beyond conceptual frameworks toward quantifiable, evidence-supported, and
699 cross-domain validated technological advancements.

700 (1) Intelligent Sensing

701 Next-generation sensing systems will adopt multi-source, heterogeneous, and adaptive
702 architectures, integrating MEMS, microwave, optical, and gas sensors for real-time detection of
703 diverse hazards such as fires, toxic releases, and structural deformations (Donta et al., 2023; Nanda
704 et al., 2023; Ortiz-Garcés et al., 2023). The convergence of user-edge computing (UEC) allows
705 priority processing of critical data (e.g., UAV-acquired disaster imagery) in constrained
706 environments(Sun et al., 2025), while blockchain integration enhances secure data storage and
707 interagency information sharing (Habib et al., 2024; Treiblmaier and Rejeb, 2023). This fusion has
708 the potential to mitigate data silos and transmission latency(Zhang et al., 2025). However, scalability
709 remains a central technical bottleneck for large-scale blockchain implementation(Chamola et al.,
710 2020; Satheesh et al., 2025). Future empirical work should report measurable indicators—detection
711 latency, accuracy, and false alarm rate—to verify practical effectiveness under both simulated and
712 field conditions.

713 (2) Autonomous and Explainable Decision-Making

714 AI-driven decision frameworks will increasingly emphasize adaptability, interpretability, and
715 multimodal data fusion(Hsiao et al., 2025; Wibowo et al., 2025). The integration of
716 Dempster-Shafer Theory (DST) with AI models enables conflict resolution under uncertainty(Fei et
717 al., 2024), while generative AI tools (e.g., ChatGPT-type models) may support rapid scenario



718 modeling and knowledge extraction under time or resource constraints(Maceika et al., 2024).
719 Moreover, multimodal neural networks combining natural language processing and computer vision
720 can leverage unstructured data from social media and sensor feeds to enhance situational awareness
721 (Su et al., 2021). Yet, the real-world performance of these systems remains insufficiently validated.
722 Future studies should systematically quantify gains in decision accuracy, processing efficiency, and
723 operator trust relative to rule-based and expert systems, and explicitly incorporate explainability
724 metrics and human-machine collaboration performance into evaluation protocols to strengthen
725 operational reliability.

726 (3) Resilient Communication and Network Intelligence

727 Current 5G systems face inherent constraints in latency, energy consumption, and coverage.
728 Emerging 6G architectures—integrating quantum communication, terahertz transmission, and
729 low-Earth-orbit (LEO) satellite constellations—are poised to deliver seamless and resilient
730 connectivity for emergency operations(Aldrees et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2025; Uusitalo et al., 2021).
731 Meanwhile, the combination of software-defined networking (SDN) and UAV relay networks can
732 dynamically reconstruct disrupted communication infrastructures, ensuring network continuity in
733 disaster zones(Abir et al., 2023). These paradigms demand rigorous empirical verification,
734 particularly under realistic operational loads, to quantify metrics such as end-to-end latency, packet
735 loss, and network resilience. The convergence of AI and 6G technologies will ultimately enable a
736 closed-loop emergency management ecosystem, integrating pre-disaster forecasting, real-time
737 response, and post-disaster recovery (Ariyachandra and Wedawatta, 2023; Zio and Miqueles,
738 2024).

739 (4) Digital Twins and Simulation-Driven Decision-Making

740 Digital-twin-based platforms offer a dynamic, data-driven representation of disaster systems,



741 facilitating predictive analytics and operational optimization(Ghaffarian, 2025). While their
742 applications in industrial and construction safety are promising(Ariyachandra and Wedawatta, 2023),
743 challenges persist regarding uncertainty quantification, cybersecurity, and standardization of
744 modeling frameworks. Coupling digital twins with edge and distributed computing may further
745 support low-latency, scalable strategy adaptation during real-time operations(Zio and Miqueles,
746 2024). Future research should focus on quantifying performance improvements, including reductions
747 in decision latency, enhancements in resource allocation efficiency, and gains in predictive accuracy,
748 while ensuring transparency in model validation and uncertainty assessment.

749 (5) Intelligent Multi-Agent Collaboration

750 Next-generation ERA operations will increasingly depend on collaborative intelligent
751 entities—such as UAVs, ground robots, and AI-assisted agent swarms(Moosavi et al., 2024). Robotic
752 systems already demonstrate strong performance in hazardous search-and-rescue and medical
753 support missions(Pillai et al., 2024). Future architectures should integrate multi-agent coordination
754 frameworks and human–machine collaboration models to optimize task allocation, minimize
755 operational conflicts, and enhance system robustness(Daud et al., 2022; Mourtzis et al., 2024).
756 Quantitative performance measures—such as task completion time, coverage efficiency, and safety
757 indices—should become standardized evaluation criteria to enable cross-study comparability and
758 cumulative evidence building.

759 7. Conclusion

760 These findings suggest that the central challenge for the coming decade is not only to make
761 ERA more intelligent, but to make it systematically safer, more interoperable and more accountable.
762 To this end, we argue that next-generation ERA should be explicitly guided by a set of design



763 principles, among which privacy-by-design and fail-safe design must be treated as non-negotiable
764 requirements rather than optional add-ons. Privacy-by-design calls for embedding data-protection
765 and privacy safeguards into architectures, algorithms and workflows from the outset, using measures
766 such as data minimisation, encryption, privacy-preserving analytics and transparent governance.
767 Fail-safe (and, where necessary, fail-operational) design requires explicit hazard analysis,
768 redundancy and graceful degradation, conservative automated actions under uncertainty and clear
769 escalation paths to human control, verified through realistic stress-testing. Two additional, closely
770 related principles emerge from the evidence base. Interoperability-by-design is essential to
771 overcoming information silos: ERA should be built on common data models, open or
772 well-documented interfaces and minimum interoperability profiles that allow heterogeneous systems
773 and organisations to share information and coordinate actions during multi-hazard events. At the
774 same time, human-centred and transparent automation is needed to ensure that ERA augments rather
775 than replaces human expertise, by aligning automation levels and interfaces with human cognitive
776 capacities and providing meaningful explanations of system recommendations. Taken together, these
777 principles offer a concise roadmap for translating fragmented technological advances into reliable,
778 trustworthy ERA systems for disaster risk reduction. Future research should therefore focus on
779 co-designing architectures, metrics and governance mechanisms that embed privacy-by-design and
780 fail-safe principles from the outset, while operationalising interoperability and human-centred
781 automation in real multi-hazard environments.

782 **Author contributions**

783 Jian Liu conceived and designed the study, defined the research topic, developed the review
784 framework, performed the literature search and screening, and conducted the data analysis. Qinlin



785 Chu contributed to the literature search and screening, jointly wrote the manuscript, and prepared all
786 figures. Rui Feng supervised the research, provided methodological guidance, contributed to the
787 interpretation of the results, and critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual content.
788 All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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793 **Competing interests**

794 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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