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5        Exit choice during evacuation is influenced by  
6        both the size and proportion of the egressing crowd  
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11                    Max Kinateder<sup>1,2</sup>

12                    William H Warren<sup>2</sup>

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1   National Research Council Canada, 1200 Montreal Road, Ottawa ON, K1A0R6, Canada (present  
address)  
Corresponding author: max.kinateder@nrc-cnrc.gc.ca

2 Brown University, Department of Cognitive, Linguistic and Psychological Sciences, Box 1821,  
Providence, RI 02912, USA

1    **Abstract**

2    It is unclear how building occupants take information from the social and built environment into  
3    account when choosing an egress route during emergency evacuation. Conflicting tendencies have  
4    been previously reported: to follow the crowd, to avoid congestion, and to avoid unknown egress  
5    routes alone. We hypothesize that these tendencies depend on an interaction between social  
6    influence and the affordances (opportunities for egress) of the built environment. In three virtual  
7    reality (VR) experiments (each  $N = 15$ ), we investigated how social influence interacts with the  
8    affordances of available exits to determine exit choice. Participants were immersed in a crowd of  
9    virtual humans walking to the left or right exit, and were asked to walk to one of the exits.  
10   Experiment 1 tested the role of social influence by manipulating both the proportion of the crowd  
11   walking toward one exit (Crowd Proportion of 0 to 100%, in 10% increments) and the absolute  
12   number of virtual humans going to the exit (Crowd Size of 10 or 20). Experiment 2 tested the role  
13   of affordances by introducing two visible exit doors (1m width) in a closed room, and following  
14   the same protocol. Experiment 3 tested larger exit doors (3m width) that afford rapid egress for  
15   more people. In the small crowd, participants were increasingly likely to follow the majority as its  
16   proportion increased. In the large crowd, however, participants tended to avoid the more crowded  
17   exit if the doors were narrow (Experiment 2), but not if the doors were wide (Experiment 3).  
18   Participants tended to follow a 100% majority in all experiments, thereby avoiding going to an exit  
19   alone. We propose that the dynamics of exit choice can be understood in terms of competition  
20   between alternative egress routes: the attraction of an exit increases with the *proportion* of the  
21   crowd moving toward it, becoming dominant at 100%, but decreases with the absolute *number* in  
22   the crowd moving toward it, relative to the exit's affordance for egress.

23

24   **Keywords:** evacuation; virtual reality; crowd behavior; social influence; affordances

## 1 1. Introduction

2

3 What factors influence the egress routes people choose when leaving a building during a fire  
4 evacuation? In terms of evacuation behavior, this is a tactical question (“Which exit should I  
5 take?”), as opposed to a strategic decision (“What should I do?”) or the operationalization of a  
6 decision (“How should I go to the exit?”) [1]. Past research has reported conflicting tendencies in  
7 how evacuees choose exits: to follow other people, to avoid congestion, and to avoid unknown  
8 egress routes alone.

9 The first tendency – *following others* – has been well documented. For instance, observing a single  
10 person going to an exit may attract another occupant to that exit. Several studies have shown that  
11 observing the behavior of others can influence the decision to evacuate, exit choice and egress  
12 routes [2-6]. Such social influence can even override information from the built environment. For  
13 instance, real world and virtual reality (VR) laboratory studies found that participants can be more  
14 likely to follow people than an emergency exit sign [5, 7, 8].

15 In many cases, evacuations involve groups or large crowds of occupants (see [9] for a real world  
16 case study). When larger numbers of occupants evacuate, more complex behavioral patterns  
17 emerge (see Warren [10] for an overview) and the question of social influence on exit choice  
18 becomes more complex. One study showed several hypothetical scenarios to over 1500  
19 participants in an online survey [11]. In each scenario participants viewed a video of an animated  
20 crowd of virtual humans evacuating from a room with two exits. The videos were taken from a  
21 first-person perspective, i.e. as if participants were embedded in the crowd. Participants had to  
22 indicate which of the two exits they would choose to evacuate. Participants reported that they  
23 would follow the crowd majority towards an exit. In addition, the authors found that an exit became  
24 less attractive as more virtual humans were observed near it. Another multi-user VR study found  
25 that participants followed each other when trying to evacuate in groups (sometimes inadequately  
26 referred to as ‘herding’ [12, 13]): specifically, participants were more likely to choose a certain  
27 route as they observed more people taking that exit [14].

28 The second tendency refers to *avoiding congested exits*. Any exit only affords swift unhindered  
29 egress for a limited number of people and may become congested as more and more people attempt

1 to use it [15]. Specifically, it has been shown that the flowrate of people moving through an  
2 aperture decreases linearly as the opening becomes narrower, and thus the egress time for a given  
3 size crowd increases linearly [e.g., 16]. This suggests that occupants in a crowd might be able to  
4 use visible congestion or flowrate as information to avoid bottlenecks when possible. As  
5 mentioned above, Lovreglio and colleagues conducted a series of studies in which participants had  
6 to choose between two possible exits in virtual fire evacuation scenarios [3, 11, 17]. In one study,  
7 the authors presented videos in which a crowd of virtual humans was placed in front of the  
8 participant and then moved to the two exits. Participants had to indicate which exit they would  
9 use. Participants tended to avoid the more crowded exit, and the larger the difference between the  
10 numbers of virtual humans at the two exits, the less likely participants were to follow the majority.  
11 Interestingly, this tendency to avoid congestion seems to contradict the first tendency to follow the  
12 crowd.

13 In a series of real-world behavioral studies and modeling exercises, Haghani and Sarvi [18], [19]  
14 investigated the consequences of social influence in several crowd evacuation scenarios ( $n = 117$ ).  
15 In one scenario, for instance, participants in a hallway connecting two rooms with exit doors  
16 essentially had to choose which direction to turn in the hallway and which door to use as an exit.  
17 The authors similarly observed that participants did not tend to follow the majority of the crowd.  
18 This appears to be adaptive behavior since in their simulation results, following the crowd  
19 increased evacuation time.

20 The dependence of egress time on the ratio of crowd size to aperture width [e.g., 16] characterizes  
21 the *affordance* of an exit, that is, the opportunity for egress it offers. According to Gibson's theory  
22 of affordances [20], what the environment affords for behavior depends on a specific relationship  
23 between properties of the environment and properties of the actor. To the extent that this  
24 relationship is visually available, the affordance may be perceived and used to guide behavior [21].  
25 In the present case, if both exit width and crowd size are visible to an occupant, affordance theory  
26 predicts that the occupant should be able to perceive the affordance for egress and use this  
27 information to guide exit choice. Thus, the perceived affordances of the built environment might  
28 explain the second tendency to avoid potentially congested exits, and predicts that it should depend  
29 on the ratio of crowd size to exit width. Some empirical evidence for this notion was shown in a  
30 series of studies where pedestrians in a crowd prefer routes with wider exits, but also take exit

1 crowdedness into account [6].

2 Finally, the third tendency – *to avoid unknown exits* – has also been studied, but less systematically.  
3 The observation that occupants tend to evacuate via familiar routes can also be interpreted as  
4 avoiding unknown exits [4, 22-24]. In the aforementioned work by Lovreglio [17], participants  
5 were actually more likely to follow the crowd when *all* of the virtual humans went to the same  
6 exit, despite it being more crowded. This third tendency thus seems to conflict with the second  
7 tendency to avoid congestion. However, the behavior intuitively makes sense: avoiding the more  
8 crowded exit might reduce evacuation time, but avoiding an unfamiliar exit by oneself during an  
9 emergency might reduce risk [25].

10 A related study demonstrated this trade-off in groups of normally-sighted participants who  
11 repeatedly egressed from a classroom either with unimpaired vision or blindfolded. When  
12 unimpaired, participants tended to select egress routes that were not used by others, even if that  
13 meant taking a longer route. When blindfolded, however, participants tended to follow each other  
14 by remaining in physical contact [26]. The finding suggests that in uncertain situations, building  
15 occupants might rely on the behavior of other people for guidance. This may lead to efficient and  
16 safe evacuation, assuming that some occupants have knowledge of appropriate egress routes. It  
17 becomes problematic, however, when occupants ignore safe egress routes in order to stay with the  
18 crowd.

19 There is thus evidence that people exhibit each of these three conflicting tendencies in the context  
20 of evacuation. However, it should be noted that there may be additional explanations for the  
21 inconsistencies reported in the literature. For instance, methodological differences between  
22 observational studies, experimental scenarios with repeated trials, and experiments using videos  
23 or virtual reality, may affect the participants' motivation, familiarity with exits, and knowledge of  
24 outcomes, in different reports. The purpose of the present study is to investigate how the three  
25 tendencies trade off, based on systematic manipulations under controlled conditions. We  
26 hypothesize that they depend on an interaction between social influence and the affordances of the  
27 built environment. Specifically, we investigate whether the tendency to follow or avoid the  
28 majority depends on the proportion or absolute number of pedestrians going to each exit. Second,  
29 we ask whether these tendencies depend on the relationship between the absolute number of  
30 pedestrians and the width of the exit doors, as expected by affordance theory.

1 We used an evacuee walking paradigm in a controlled immersive virtual reality (VR) setting, as it  
2 allows balancing ecological validity and experimental control [27]. Participants were asked to walk  
3 to one of two exits while immersed in a virtual crowd, and the number of virtual humans walking  
4 to each exit was varied. Previous work observed comparable evacuation behavior in matched  
5 virtual and real-world simulated evacuation scenarios [4]. Recently, several studies have  
6 investigated the usefulness of VR simulation tools and found that at least for certain scenarios,  
7 behavior observed *in virtuo* is comparable to behavior *in vivo* [14, 28-30]. Although the technique  
8 has several limitations, VR has become a more and more established research tool in crowd  
9 dynamics [For an overview and more detailed discussion, see 1, 31, 32].

10 In this article, we report the findings of three experiments. Experiment 1 investigated the role of  
11 social influence by testing whether the proportion of the crowd, or the absolute number of virtual  
12 humans, walking to one exit had a stronger influence on exit choice, in the absence of other  
13 information about the exits. Participants had to choose between two illuminated exit points,  
14 without visible doors. Based on previous findings [11], we predicted that manipulating *Crowd*  
15 *Proportion*, the percentage of agents moving to one of the two exits, would influence participants'  
16 exit choice. In addition, we manipulated *Crowd Size*, the total number of agents in the crowd, to  
17 test whether social influence also depends on the absolute size of the crowd. Experiment 2 tested  
18 the contribution of affordances; the Crowd Proportion and Crowd Size manipulations were  
19 repeated, but two narrow exit doors were added in the virtual environment. Finally, Experiment 3  
20 introduced wider exit doors that afford faster egress, to test whether the observed effects depend  
21 on the absolute number of virtual humans relative to exit width. Overall, we found support for  
22 effects of social influence and crowd size across experiments, which depend on the affordance of  
23 exit width.

24 **2. Design and methods**

25 **2.1. Design**

26 We used the following within-subjects design and manipulated two independent variables; Crowd  
27 Size and Crowd Proportion. *Crowd Size* refers to the absolute number of virtual humans in the  
28 crowd and was set to either 10 or 20. *Crowd Proportion* describes the proportion of the crowd  
29 going to one exit (0-100% in 10% increments, 11 levels); the crowd majority was counterbalanced  
30 between the left and right exits. Each condition was presented three times, resulting in a total of  
31

1 66 trials per participant. The conditions were presented in block-wise random order to each  
2 participant.

3 **Experiments.** The three experiments followed the same procedure and study design, but the virtual  
4 environments varied in appearance:

5 - *Experiment 1* (Baseline): The virtual test environment consisted of an empty roughly  
6 rectangular space; a “fog wall” was used to define a perimeter within which participants  
7 could walk. Two bright white lights hovering at a height of 2 m were used to indicate the  
8 exit points.

9 - *Experiment 2* (Normal doors): The virtual environment imitated the appearance of the  
10 physical test space (rectangular room with gray carpet). Two doors (width 1 m) were  
11 located at the same locations as the exit points in Experiment 1

12 - *Experiment 3* (Wide doors): Same appearance as Experiment 2, but exit doors were 2 m  
13 wide.

14 **2.2. Participants and recruiting**

15 Three different groups of participants were recruited from an undergraduate student pool (Table  
16 1; see limitations section for discussion of the study sample). Each participant completed only one  
17 experiment (total sample size was  $N = 45$ ). All participants had normal or corrected to normal  
18 vision, gave informed consent, and were compensated for their participation. The protocol was  
19 approved by the Brown University Institutional Review Board and complied with the declaration  
20 of Helsinki.

21 **Table 1** Age and gender in the three experiments

Experiment	N	Mean age (sd)	Gender
Experiment 1 (Baseline)	15	21.9 (5.51)	9 females, 5 males, 1 other
Experiment 2 (Narrow doors)	15	22.47 (6.61)	8 females, 6 males, 1 other
Experiment 3 (Wide doors)	15	22.00 (6.95)	11 females, 4 males

22 **2.3. Virtual Reality lab**

23 Data were collected in a  $14 \times 16 \text{ m}^2$  room in all experiments. Head position (4mm RMS  
24 resolution) and orientation ( $0.1^\circ$  RMS resolution) were recorded using a hybrid ultrasonic-inertial  
25 tracking system (IS-900, Intersense, Billerica MA) at a sampling rate of 60 Hz, within a tracking  
26 area of  $12 \times 14 \text{ m}^2$ . The virtual environment was presented in a head-mounted display (HMD; for  
27

1 Experiment 1: Rift DK1, Oculus, Irvine CA; resolution of  $640 \times 800$  pixels per eye,  $90^\circ$ H x  $65^\circ$ V  
2 field of view, refresh rate 60Hz, weight 380 g, fixed IPD of 6.4 cm). Participants carried a small  
3 backpack with the HMD control box and a battery pack that powered the HMD. Displays were  
4 generated on a Dell XPS workstation (Round Rock TX) at a frame rate of 60 fps, using the Vizard  
5 4 software package (WorldViz, Santa Monica CA), transmitted wirelessly to the HMD using two  
6 HDTV transmitters, and presented stereoscopically in the HMD (including monocular and  
7 binocular depth information). Head coordinates from the tracker were used to update the display  
8 with a latency of 50-67 ms (3-4 frames). The set-up allowed participants to physically walk in  
9 virtual spaces and required no additional input devices for navigation.

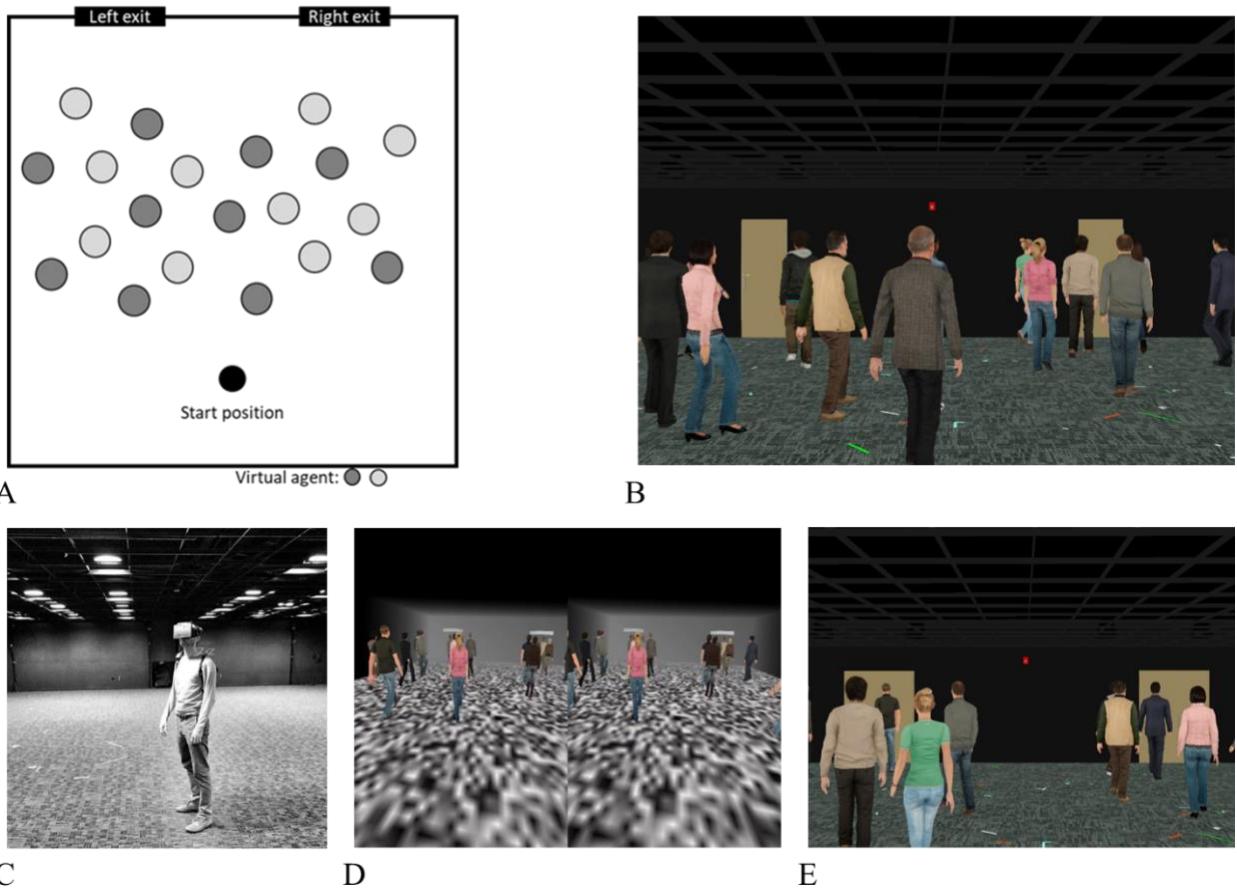
#### 10 **2.4. Virtual Environments**

11 In all experiments, the initial virtual environment consisted of an unbounded gray ground plane  
12 with a black background. A small gray pole (0.75 m tall, 0.1 m radius) indicated the participant's  
13 starting position, located equidistant (about 10.87 m) from two exit locations, and a taller gray  
14 orientation pole (1.5 m tall, 0.1 m radius, 4.5 m from the start pole) indicated the participants initial  
15 facing direction. In Experiment 1, the test environment consisted of a rectangular space 12 x 12  
16 m) with a black ground plane, bounded by an indistinct "fog wall". Two exit points were indicated  
17 by two identical bright white lights 6.8m apart, hovering 2m above the ground plane. In  
18 Experiment 2, the test environment was a rendering of the lab room 12 x 12 m) with a gray carpeted  
19 ground plane, a grid ceiling, and black walls. The exit points were two wooden doors (1 m W x  
20 2.03 m H, **Figure 1b**). A red fire alarm appeared above and between the two doors. In Experiment  
21 3, the test environment was identical except that each door was 3 m wide.

22 The virtual crowd consisted of 10 or 20 different 3D human models (WorldViz Complete  
23 Characters), randomly positioned between the starting position and the two exits, animated with a  
24 walking gait at a randomly varied phase. From a pool of 20 virtual humans, a different  
25 configuration was randomly generated for each trial; all participants received the same set of  
26 configurations, but virtual humans were randomly assigned to the positions. At the beginning of a  
27 trial, all virtual humans turned towards one of the exit points and started walking at a speed of 1.2  
28 m/s. Walking speed remained constant until they passed through the exits. In order to isolate the  
29 affordance relation between Crowd Size and exit width, we did not simulate a decrease in flow  
30 rate through the exit, which might also indicate a bottleneck.

1        **2.5. Procedure**

2        The participant's task was to walk to one of two exit points after an audio fire alarm was triggered  
3        (**Figure 1**). On each trial, the initial virtual environment appeared; then the starting pole appeared,  
4        the participant walked to it, and turned to face the orientation pole. At this point the poles and  
5        ground plane disappeared and were replaced by the test environment, with the virtual crowd  
6        (Crowd Size of 10 or 20). Three seconds after the room appeared, a fire alarm sounded from the  
7        red alarm box, and the virtual humans started walking to the two exits (depending on Crowd  
8        Proportion condition), and data collection began. Participants were instructed to "pick whichever  
9        door seemed to be appropriate". A trial ended either when participants reached one of the exits or  
10        after a time-out of 60s, then the two poles reappeared to begin the next trial. Participants completed  
11        two practice trials without any virtual agents visible, followed by the 66 test trials. To minimize  
12        the risk of side effects of VR, participants took a break every 15 trials (three breaks total).



14        **Figure 1** (A) Schematic layout of experimental set-up. Participants chose between two exit points after a fire alarm sounded and  
15        then walk with a crowd of either 10 (light gray) or 20 (light and dark gray) virtual agents. (B) Example screenshots taken from the

1 starting position in Experiment 2 and (E) Experiment 3. (C) Picture of participant immersed in the virtual environment. (D)  
2 Binocular screenshot of Experiment 1, illustrating the stereoscopic presentation of stimuli.

3 After behavioral testing, participants completed a series of questions in which they rated the  
4 realism of the alarm and virtual humans (4-point Likert scale from *very unrealistic* to *very realistic*)  
5 and answered questions about the experiment. The questions asked them to report on a 5-point  
6 Likert scale how strongly they felt influenced by the virtual humans, and to identify strategies they  
7 used during the task (“followed crowd majority”, “avoided crowded majority”, “mostly went to  
8 right door”, “mostly went to left door”, “followed nearest virtual agent in crowd”, “no  
9 strategy/random selection” and “other”).

## 10 **2.6. Data Analysis**

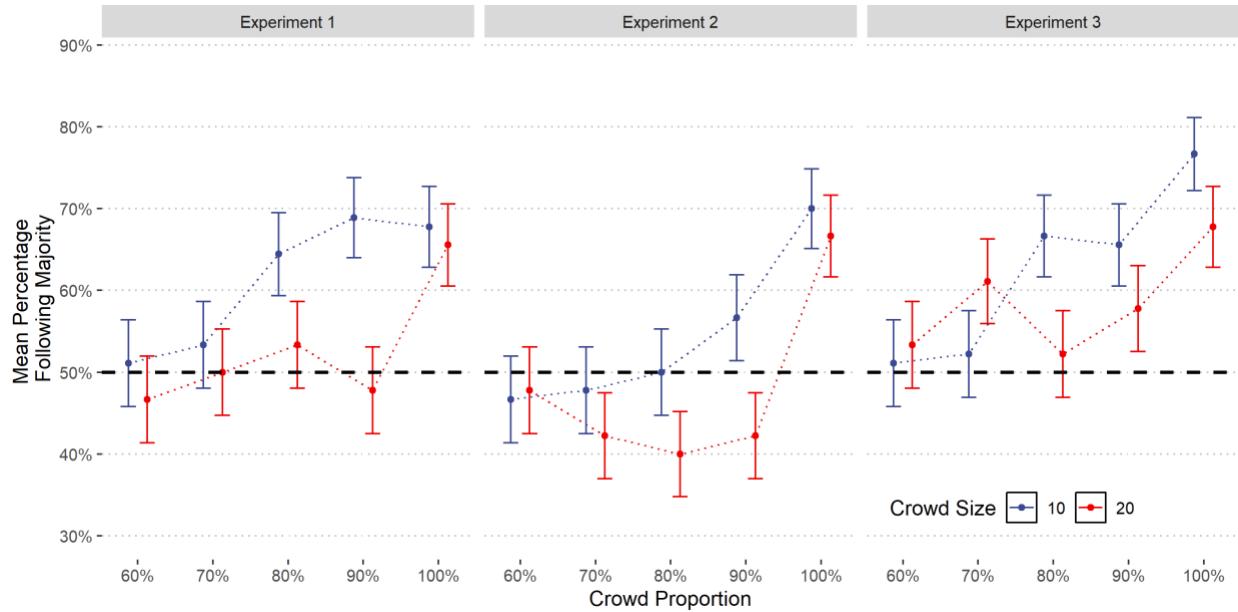
11 The main behavioral dependent variable measured whether or not participants followed the  
12 majority of the crowd. For each trial, we analyzed the time series of head position to determine  
13 whether the participant walked to the left or right door. A trial ended once a participant was within  
14 0.5 m of one of the doors. Holding aside the ambiguous 50/50 condition, we collapsed trials in  
15 which the majority of virtual humans moved to the left or right door into five levels of Crowd  
16 Proportion (60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, and 100% going to one door). This yielded six observations  
17 per participant in each Crowd Proportion condition at each Crowd Size, for a total of 900 analyzed  
18 trials per experiment (see Table 2 for an overview). For each participant, we then computed the  
19 percentage of trials in each condition in which they followed the majority of the crowd.

20 **Table 2** Data processing and analysis overview

Raw data	Processed data
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Crowd size (2 levels)</li><li>• Crowd proportion (11 levels)</li><li>• Each condition repeated 3 times</li><li>• 15 participants per experiment</li><li>• Dependent measures: exit choice (left/right); trial time</li><li>• 990 data points per experiment</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Data collapsed over left/right preference</li><li>• 50% crowd proportion condition removed</li><li>• Crowd size (2 levels)</li><li>• Crowd proportion (5 levels)</li><li>• Each condition repeated 6 times</li><li>• 15 participants per experiment</li><li>• Dependent measures: followed majority (yes/no); trial time</li><li>• 900 data points per experiment</li></ul>

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1

2 **Figure 2** Exit choice in the three experiments: Experiment 1, fog wall; Experiment 2 door width 1m; Experiment 3, door width  
 3 2m. Each graph plots the mean percentage of trials in which a participant followed the majority of the crowd. Each data point  
 4 represents the mean of 15 participants. Error bars correspond to the standard error of the mean.

5 The data were analyzed using binary mixed effects regression, followed by Analysis of Variance  
 6 (ANOVA) techniques. Not surprisingly, a Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the dependent variable  
 7 (a percentage) was not normally distributed ( $W = 0.929, p < .001$ ); given the relative robustness  
 8 of ANOVA against violation of the assumption of normality, however, we decided not to transform  
 9 the dataset. We ran a  $3 \times 2 \times 3$  ANOVA with Crowd Proportion and Crowd Size as within-subjects  
 10 factors and experiment as a between-subjects variable. Mauchly's tests revealed violation of  
 11 sphericity for the effects of Crowd Proportion, its two-way interaction with Crowd Size, and its  
 12 three-way interaction with Crowd Size and Experiment. We report adjusted p-values for these  
 13 tests. Bonferroni-corrected p-values were used for post-hoc pairwise comparisons.

14 

### 3. Results

15

16 

#### 3.1. Exit choice

17 Exit choice in each experiment is represented in Figure 2, which plots the mean percentage of trials  
 18 in which a participant followed the majority as a function of Crowd Proportion. It is apparent that  
 19 participants followed the majority of the crowd more frequently as Crowd Proportion increased,  
 20 but somewhat surprisingly, this effect was greater in the small crowd than the large crowd.

1 We tested binary mixed models that predicted whether or not a participant went with the majority  
 2 in a given trial. We iteratively increased the complexity of the model, beginning with random  
 3 intercepts for Participant, Trial, and Left/Right preference (to check for potential left/right bias).  
 4 Of these random effects, only trial and participant significantly improved model fit. Next, we  
 5 sequentially added fixed effects for Crowd Proportion, Crowd Size and Experiment. We also ran  
 6 models that included interaction terms. The experiment factor did not improve the fit in any of  
 7 these models. The final model which best explained the data included fixed effects for Crowd  
 8 Proportion and Crowd Size and their interaction, as well as random intercepts for Participant and  
 9 Trial. **Table 3** Comparison of Random and Fixed Effects in binary mixed models. AIC = Akaike  
 10 information criterion (lower values indicate better fit);  $\chi^2$ statistics refer to model comparisons.  
 11 Best fit model is indicated in bold. Table 3 compares these models. Table 4 summarizes the findings  
 12 for the best fitting model

13 **Table 3** Comparison of Random and Fixed Effects in binary mixed models. AIC = Akaike information criterion (lower values  
 14 indicate better fit);  $\chi^2$ statistics refer to model comparisons. Best fit model is indicated in bold.

<i>Random Effects</i>	<i>Fixed Effects</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>X<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Participant		3203.7			
Participant + Trial		3194.1	11.56	1	<.001
Participant + Trial + Left/Right		3196.1	0	1	.998
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion	3144.8	57.33	3	<.001
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion + Crowd Size	3133.1	13.75	1	<.001
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion + Crowd Size + Experiment	3136.2	0	2	1
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion + Crowd Size x Experiment	3139	1.21	2	.546
<b>Participant + Trial</b>	<b>Crowd Proportion x Crowd Size</b>	<b>3128.7</b>	<b>10.32</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>&lt;.001</b>
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion x Crowd Size + Experiment	3131.9	0.83	2	.660
Participant + Trial	Crowd Proportion x Crowd Size x Experiment	3153.2	14.65	18	.685

15

16

1 **Table 4** Summary of the best fitting binary logistic mixed effect model with random effects for participant and trial.

<b>Fixed Effects</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>z</b>	<b>p</b>
(Intercept)	-0.036	0.240	-0.148	.882
Crowd Proportion = 70%	0.063	0.199	0.315	.753
Crowd Proportion = 80%	0.551	0.200	2.760	<.001
Crowd Proportion = 90%	0.740	0.201	3.675	<.001
Crowd Proportion = 100%	1.190	0.209	5.684	<.001
Crowd Size = 20	-0.021	0.197	-0.109	.913
Proportion = 70% * Size20	0.040	0.283	0.141	.888
Proportion = 80% * Size20	-0.593	0.280	-2.116	<.05
Proportion = 90% * Size = 20	-0.751	0.283	-2.654	<.001
Proportion = 100% * Size = 20	-0.269	0.290	-0.928	.354

2

3 Supporting these findings, the ANOVA revealed significant main effects of Crowd Proportion and  
 4 Crowd Size on the dependent variable, as well as a significant interaction between them (see Table  
 5 5). These results confirm that participants increasingly followed the majority as the majority grew  
 6 larger, but more so in the small crowd. However, we did not observe a main effect of, or any  
 7 interactions with, Experiment, implying that the pattern of behavior was comparable across the  
 8 three types of exits.

9

10 **Table 5** Results of ANOVA predicting ‘followed majority’ by Experiment, Crowd Proportion and Crowd Size; no interaction  
 11 effects of experiment with any of the other factors was observed.

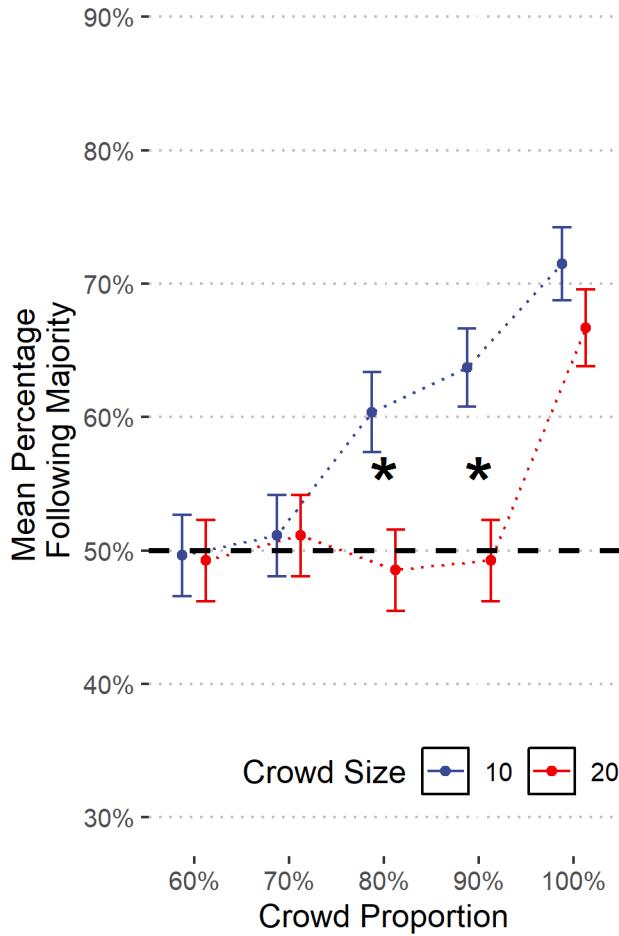
<b>Effect</b>	<b>Statistics</b>
Experiment	$F(2, 42) = 0.60, p = .551, \eta_p^2 = .03$
Crowd Proportion	$F(4, 168) = 11.17, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .21$
Crowd Size	$F(1, 42) = 11.77, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .22$
Crowd Proportion x Crowd Size	$F(4, 168) = 3.26, p = .019, \eta_p^2 = .07$

12

13 Consequently, the mean data are plotted in Figure 3, collapsed across Experiment. Overall,  
 14 with the small crowd participants increasingly followed the majority as Crowd Proportion  
 15 increased, whereas with the large crowd, exit choice remained near the chance level (50%) until  
 16 the entire crowd went to one exit. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons confirmed that participants were  
 17 more likely to follow the majority in the smaller crowd than in the larger crowd at Uniformities of

1 80% ( $t(44) = 3.14, p_{\text{corr}} = .015, d = 0.47$ ) and 90% ( $t(44) = 3.80, p_{\text{corr}} = .002, d = 0.57$ ) (Figure 3).  
2 It is possible that large crowds are less attractive due to a higher risk of congestion, whether or not  
3 the exit doors are visible.

4

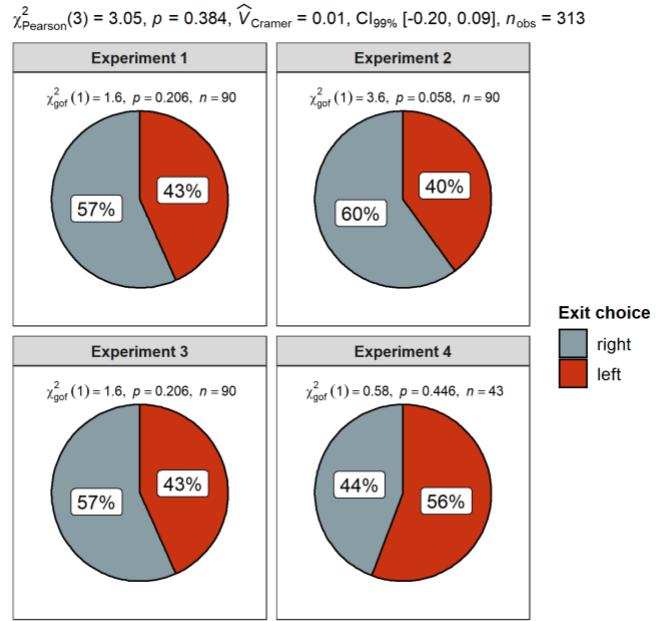


6 **Figure 3** Exit choice in the three experiments combined: mean percentage of trials in which the participants in all experiments  
7 followed the majority. The asterisk indicates significant differences between the two Crowd Sizes.

8 To further investigate the affordance hypothesis, we tested whether preference for the less crowded  
9 exit depended on the relation between Crowd Size and exit width (refer to Figure 2), using  
10 directional one sample Bayesian t-tests [33]. This approach allowed us to evaluate the evidence  
11 favoring the Null Hypothesis (i.e., participants do not prefer the less crowded exit) as well as the  
12 Alternative Hypothesis (i.e. participants prefer the less crowded exit). Specifically, for the large  
13 crowd, we compared the mean percentage following the majority to the 50% chance level (null  
14 hypothesis), where <50% indicates choosing the less crowded exit (alternative hypothesis). In

1 Experiment 2 (1m doors) we found moderate evidence in favor of the less crowded exit with a  
2 Crowd Proportion of 80% (Bayes factor,  $BF_{10} = 5.54$ ), and anecdotal evidence with a Proportion  
3 of 90% ( $BF_{10} = 1.12$ ). In contrast, in Experiment 3 (2m doors) there was moderate evidence in  
4 favor of the null hypothesis at Proportions of 80% ( $BF_{01} = 2.42$ ) and 90% ( $BF_{01} = 6.38$ ), indicating  
5 that when exit doors were wide, neither exit was preferred. At 100% Proportion, there was decisive  
6 evidence that the majority was followed in both experiments ( $BF_{10} \gg 100$ ). Taken together, these  
7 results indicate that participants tend to avoid following the majority of a large crowd to a narrow  
8 exit (1m), but not to a wide exit (2m), consistent with the affordance hypothesis. However, when  
9 the entire crowd went to one door, participants were likely to follow them, consistent with avoiding  
10 an unknown exit alone.

11 Although there a Left/Right preference did not significantly contribute to the mixed model, we  
12 pursued the question of bias toward the left or right door by separately analyzing the data from the  
13 ambiguous 50% Crowd Proportion trials. Descriptively, we observed a systematic but unreliable  
14 bias towards the right exit (Figure 4). Since the virtual environment visually resembled the physical  
15 lab space, and the physical entrance to the lab was close to the right exit door in the virtual  
16 environment, it seemed plausible that participants may have been attracted to the more familiar  
17 door [22, 24]. To provide another check on the possibility of a rightward bias, a fourth small  
18 follow-up test ( $N = 4$ ) was conducted. It followed the same protocol as Experiment 1, except that  
19 participants were led into the lab through a different door located closer to the left virtual exit. In  
20 this case participants descriptively preferred the left door, although the observations did not reach  
21 statistical significance. Thus any left/right door bias in the present experiments could be due to an  
22 influence of familiarity.



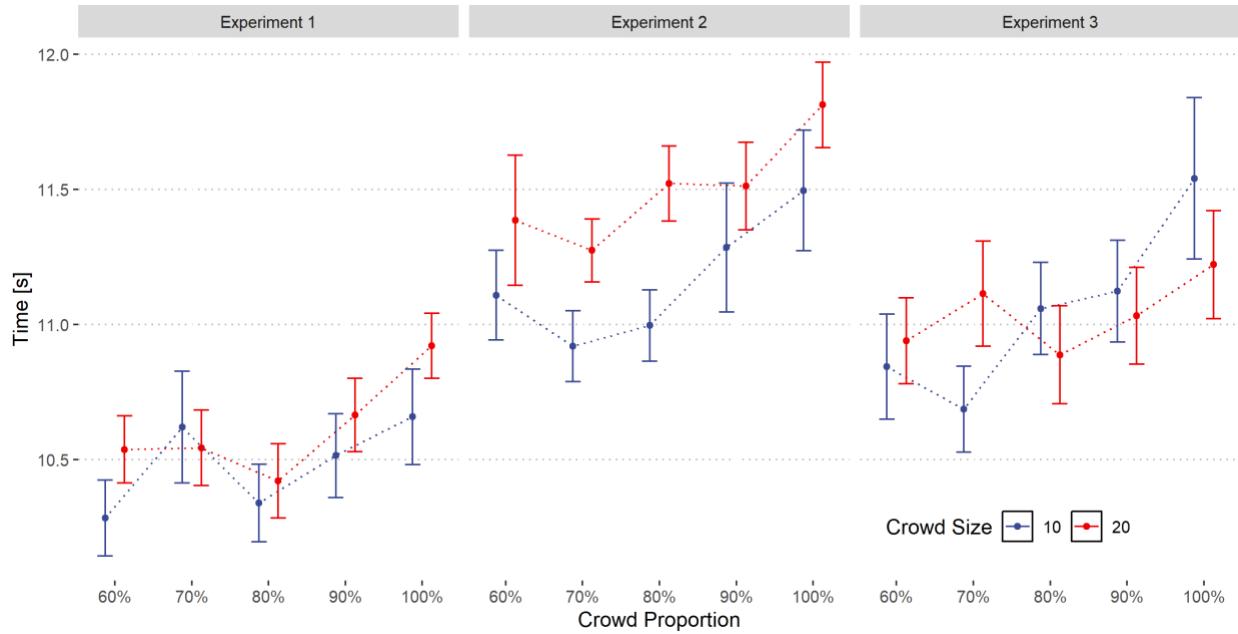
1

2 **Figure 4** Exit choice in ambiguous conditions; n = number of trials in each experiment; created with ggstatsplot [34]

3 **3.2. Timing**

4 In order to explore, whether certain conditions would cause participants to hesitate, we measured  
5 trial duration, i.e., the time it took participants to evacuate from trial start until they reached one  
6 of the exits (Figure 5). The gross mean trial duration across all experiments was 11.38 s ( $sd = 6.39$   
7 s). In 22 out of 2700 trials, participants needed longer than 30s to complete a trial. Fifteen  
8 participants contributed these outliers, with none more than two. These outliers were excluded  
9 from the following timing analysis. For the most part there were no strong variations in trial  
10 duration across Experiments and conditions. We found small but reliable effects of Crowd Size,  
11  $F(1, 42) = 7.41, p = .009, \eta_p^2 = .15$  and Crowd Proportion,  $F(1, 42) = 21.84, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .34$ .  
12 There were no differences between Experiments,  $F(2, 42) = 2.49, p = .095, \eta_p^2 = .11$ , but there  
13 was a significant interaction between Experiment and Crowd Size,  $F(2, 42) = 4.31, p = .020, \eta_p^2 =$   
14 .17. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that participants evacuated slightly faster in the smaller crowd  
15 than the larger crowd only in Experiment 2. Post-hoc comparisons found no significant differences  
16 between individual levels of Crowd Proportion.

17 Inspired by findings reported by Haghani and Sarvi [18], we compared trial duration of participants  
18 who followed the majority to those who tended to avoid the more crowded exit, but found no  
19 significant differences,  $t(1408.54) = 0.25, p = .799$ .

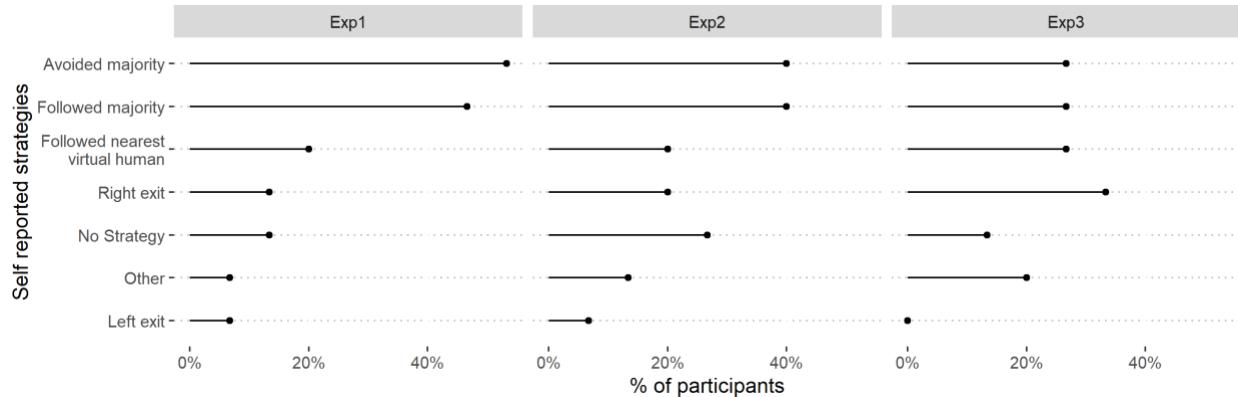


2 **Figure 5** Trial duration as a function of Crowd Proportion;

3 **3.3. Questionnaire data**

4 After behavioral testing, participants completed a series of questions in which they rated the  
5 realism of the alarm and virtual humans. 90% of participants stated that they immediately  
6 recognized the fire alarm, when it was triggered. 89% of participants rated the scenario as either  
7 “realistic” or “very realistic”, thus, providing support for the ecological validity of the virtual  
8 environment.

9 In addition, participants were asked to report how strongly they felt influenced by the virtual  
10 humans. Across experiments, participants stated that they had been influenced at least to some  
11 degree by the virtual humans. Only 11% stated that they felt not influenced by the virtual humans  
12 at all. This response is also reflected in the self-reported strategies, where the most commonly cited  
13 strategies were either to go with or avoid the majority of the crowd (Figure 6).



2 **Figure 6** Self-reported strategies employed by participants.

## 3 **4. Discussion**

5 The goal of the present studies was to investigate the interaction of social influence and the  
 6 affordances of the built environment in determining exit choice in a simulated evacuation scenario.  
 7 We found that both *Crowd Proportion* and *Crowd Size* influenced participants' behavior.  
 8 Specifically, we observed that the probability of participants following the majority increased more  
 9 or less monotonically with Proportion in a small crowd of 10 virtual humans (Figure 2, Figure 3).  
 10 However, in a large crowd of 20, participants only followed the majority when the entire crowd  
 11 went to one exit; at lower proportions, they tended to avoid the more crowded exit when the doors  
 12 were only 1m wide (Experiment 2) and had no preference when they were 3m wide (Experiment  
 13 3) (Figure 2).

14 The primary contribution of the present work is the finding that three previously reported  
 15 tendencies trade off in exit choice. First, the tendency to follow others leads the participant to go  
 16 with the majority [14, 16, 18, 24], based on the *proportion* of the crowd moving toward one exit.  
 17 Second, the tendency to avoid congestion leads the participant away from a potential bottleneck  
 18 [26], based on the absolute *number* of crowd members going to one exit [19]. This effect is not  
 19 due to a decreased flow rate through the exit, which was held constant in the present experiments,  
 20 but can be attributed to the perceived crowd size relative to exit width, consistent with Gibson's  
 21 affordance theory [20]. Third, the tendency to avoid an unknown exit that no one else has chosen  
 22 [17, 25] leads the participant to follow a 100% majority independent of crowd size. The surprising  
 23 interaction between Crowd Proportion and Crowd Size implies that pedestrians tend to follow the

1 majority in the small crowd. But in a large crowd, this social influence is counteracted by  
2 perceived congestion, especially with narrow exit doors. The exception is when the entire crowd  
3 goes to one exit, in which case participants eschewed an unknown exit and reverted to following  
4 others.

5 These conflicting trade-offs might be better understood within a specific theoretical framework  
6 known as *behavioral dynamics*, which formalizes how individuals dynamically interact with each  
7 other in a changing environment [35]. In this approach, control laws govern how agents avoid  
8 obstacles (repellers), steer towards goals (attractors), and interact with each other, ultimately  
9 giving rise to global patterns of collective crowd motion [10, 36-38]. In a recent series of  
10 experiments on walking with virtual crowds (e.g. Wirth & Warren, 2019), the authors found that  
11 pedestrian decision-making can be framed in terms of dynamic competition between alternatives.  
12 For example, when a crowd splits into two groups, the participant is attracted to the majority group,  
13 but is also attracted to the group that deviates less from walking straight ahead; these two  
14 tendencies compete to determine the participant's chosen route.

15 Exit choice can be similarly understood in terms of competition between alternatives. We propose  
16 that the attraction of an exit increases with the *proportion* of the crowd moving toward it, but  
17 decreases with the absolute *number* of crowd members moving toward it, relative to exit width.  
18 In a small crowd, participants are increasingly attracted to follow a greater majority. But in a large  
19 crowd, attraction to the majority can be outweighed by attraction to the exit that affords faster  
20 egress. When the majority reaches 100%, however, the attraction of the open but unknown exit  
21 collapses and the participant follows the majority. Further work is needed to model and test these  
22 proposed dynamics of exit choice.

23 Several other phenomena commonly observed in emergency evacuation may also interact with the  
24 behavioral patterns reported here. These phenomena relate to the dynamics of egress behavior  
25 within the context of a building. First, in the present study, participants started equidistant from  
26 the two exit points. Recent simulation studies suggest that the relative distance to and visibility of  
27 exits may play a more important role during emergency evacuations in crowded buildings  
28 compared to non-emergency egress behavior [25, 39]. Future behavioral research should determine  
29 how the attraction of an exit depends on its distance, and interacts with the effects observed here.  
30 Second, familiarity with both members of the crowd and particular exits has repeatedly been shown

1 to influence exit choice and other relevant aspects of egress [9, 22, 24]. For instance, evacuating  
2 in groups can slow average movement speed [40, 41] and flowrate, but also increase cooperation  
3 among evacuees [41]. While the present study did not explicitly manipulate exit familiarity, future  
4 studies could test, for example, whether the attraction of an empty exit increases with its  
5 familiarity. Third, on a more practical note, the present findings should be considered with regard  
6 to exit signage. A recent study on dynamic exit signs showed that clear signals above exit doors  
7 can dissuade occupants from choosing an exit, even if it is normally marked as an emergency exit  
8 [42]. However, other studies found that occupants may ignore exit signage when they see an  
9 individual moving away from an exit [5, 7]. Fourth, the virtual pedestrians in the present study  
10 walked at a constant speed and did not “rush” towards the exit; a recent study showed that  
11 evacuation speed is dependent on the proportion of evacuees rushing [43]. Clearly, more work is  
12 needed to better understand the dynamics of crowd behavior in the built environment.

13 The dynamics of exit choice may also depend on the characteristics of the crowd population and  
14 individual differences. For instance, early crowd research found that groups of people who know  
15 each other tend to choose similar exit routes [22]. In a more recent study, participants without  
16 disabilities were less likely to choose the same exit as those with disabilities, suggesting that the  
17 visibly slower movement of impaired occupants could render an exit less attractive because it is  
18 potentially more congested [44]. In the present work, we observed a variety of individual  
19 differences in behavioral patterns. For example, there were cases of participants who consistently  
20 followed the crowd majority, but also the exact opposite (compare participants 7 and 11 in  
21 Experiment 2, **Figure 7** in the Appendix A).

22 The present findings have potential implications for agent-based [45] or cellular automata [46]  
23 evacuation models. Recently, a number of simulation tools have been developed to predict exit  
24 choice during fire evacuation based on hypothetical mechanisms describing how agents choose  
25 between two exits [e.g., 3, 11, 17]. Typically, these models attempt to predict an evacuee’s exit  
26 choice through utility functions or other stochastic models, where the probability of choosing one  
27 exit over another is assigned by combining and weighing a number of factors. This approach allows  
28 researchers and practitioners to pose questions about complex aspect of building evacuation. The  
29 present dataset could be used to test certain model predictions and support the verification and  
30 validation process [47].

1        **4.1. Limitations**

2        The present study, along with several other experiments, conceptualizes exit choice as a decision  
3        between discrete options: choose one of two exits [48]. There are several theoretical and practical  
4        open questions regarding this approach. For instance, it is unclear whether and how occupants  
5        change their initial decision as they approach an exit. It is conceivable that occupants update their  
6        decision if, for example, new information suggests that another option than the currently selected  
7        one is more favorable. Do they plan and decide once and then follow a route that may have many  
8        turns? Or do they make decisions on the fly after starting to walk? How are strategic (pre-decision)  
9        and tactical (en-route) decisions taken into account [49]? Future research is needed to study  
10       dynamic changes in decision making during evacuation. Answers to those questions, particularly  
11       if accompanied by realistic estimates on how these affect the timing of evacuations would be of  
12       high value to safety practitioners. In addition, evacuation behavior typically occurs in more  
13       complex scenarios, in which decision-making goes beyond deciding between two visible exit  
14       doors. More research is needed, for example, considering building complexity and familiarity of  
15       occupants with complex evacuation routes.

16       In the present experiments, the virtual humans passed through the apertures unimpeded, i.e. we  
17       did not simulate conditions of higher crowd density and reduced flow rates. With increasing crowd  
18       density, flow rates through given doors decrease and can ultimately come to a halt [e.g., 50, 51].  
19       Observing changes in flow rate, not merely the number of crowd members approaching an exit,  
20       might cause pedestrians to change their exit choice [15, 18, 52]. That is, pedestrians likely take  
21       dynamic changes such as perceived crowdedness as a function of exit width and number of visible  
22       pedestrians into account [53]. For instance, one study found that participants were both drawn to  
23       wider exits and less crowded exits when making route choice decisions [6]. This could enhance  
24       differences in exit choice or trial duration across experiments. Further research is needed to  
25       understand how changes in flow rate influence exit choice.

26       The present study used a VR paradigm. Although increasingly used in fire evacuation research,  
27       VR has its limitations, since virtual displays are obviously a simulation of a hypothetical scenario,  
28       and participants are typically aware that they are taking part in an experiment; this may reduce the  
29       ecological validity of the findings [54]. However, several recent studies have shown that VR and  
30       real life experiments can produce similar results [e.g., 4, 31].

1 While we argue that the present study sheds further light on the tendencies of occupants to follow  
2 other people, to avoid congestion, and to avoid unknown egress routes alone, there may be other  
3 potential explanations for the present findings. For instance, it is possible that participants  
4 motivation (e.g., to be a compliant subject) or the degree of immersion in the virtual environment  
5 influenced their decision-making. While this limitation cannot be ruled out, it is worth pointing  
6 out that participants in VR experiments on fire evacuation report behavioral intentions that are  
7 comparable to real world incidents (e.g., [55]). In addition, a number of studies have shown that  
8 VR experiments produce comparable behavioral results to real world experiments, if sometimes  
9 with a reduced effect size [4].

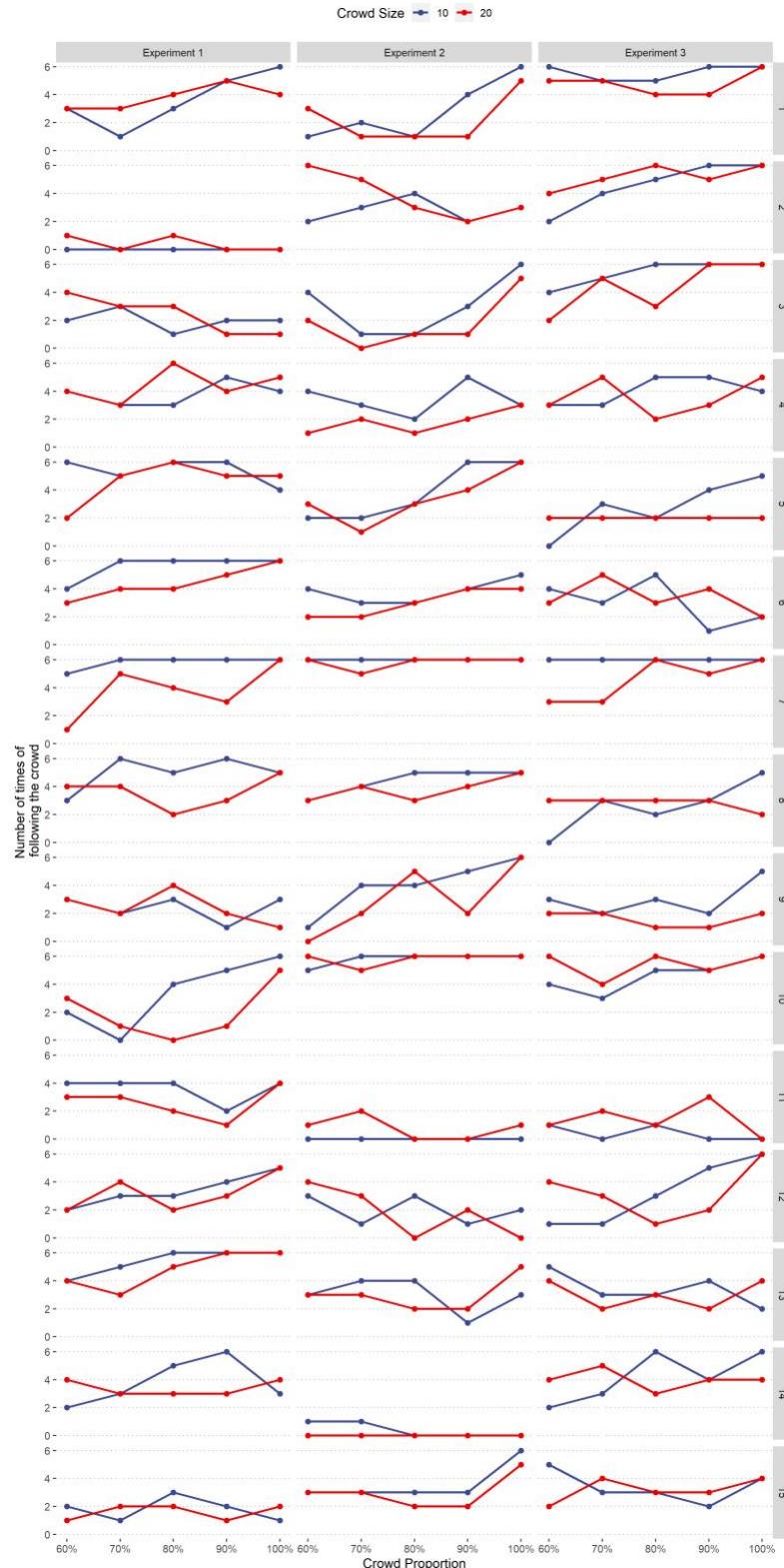
10 Another limitation of the present study is the use of a relatively small undergraduate sample, which  
11 raises two potential concerns. The first is the statistical power of the sample size given the effect  
12 size; this concern is largely alleviated by the significant results. The second is whether the present  
13 findings will generalize to other populations, such as children, older adults, pedestrians with  
14 limited mobility, non-Western cultures, and heterogeneous groups. That question obviously needs  
15 to be explored in further research.

16 Finally, while within-subject designs with multiple trials per participant have the advantages of  
17 experimental manipulation control compared to observational studies, they run the risk of carry-  
18 over effects. For example, a participant experiencing repeated trials may exhibit habituation,  
19 yielding regression to the mean; or once a participant has walked to an “unknown” empty exit with  
20 no ill effects, it may no longer be avoided. However, the fact that we observed statistically  
21 significant differences between conditions – including continued avoidance of an empty exit in the  
22 100% Proportion condition – mitigates this concern. We thus believe that the advantages of  
23 experimental control outweigh the risk of any carry-over effects, and complement the strengths of  
24 observational studies.

25 **4.2. Conclusions**

26 In conclusion, the present study provides insights into how exit choice during an evacuation is  
27 shaped by both the behavior of other people and the architectural environment. We found that exit  
28 choice between two equidistant exit options changes as a function of both Crowd Proportion and  
29 Crowd Size, depending on the affordance of an exit for egress.

1 **Appendix A**



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