

Co-producing research and data visualization for environmental justice advocacy: The Milwaukee Flood-Health Vulnerability Assessment

Highlights

- We mapped flood risk by combining exposure and vulnerability to identify areas in Milwaukee where interventions are most urgent based on a distributional justice lens.
- The spatial analysis is disseminated through a co-designed climate narrative in the form of a storymap.
- Knowledge co-production enabled the generation and dissemination of data accounting for the needs of end-users and the integration of diverse expertises.
- When creating recommendations, a transdisciplinary team should be used for prioritizing goals and interventions.
- Separating exposure and vulnerability, as well as breaking down vulnerability into themes, facilitates the interpretation of the final results.

Abstract

Many cities in the world are experiencing an increase in the frequency and intensity of extreme precipitation. The resulting flooding is poised to cause widespread impacts on the health and livelihoods of urban dwellers. Ensuring an equitable implementation of flood risk reduction interventions requires considering the intersection of flood exposure with social vulnerability. Information on the uneven distribution of vulnerability towards stormwater hazards can be difficult to capture, comprehend, and communicate, especially for local community organizations. Here, we present a co-production process in which place-based advocacy organizations and healthcare practitioners actively participate in the identification of areas with significant flood risk based on the separate mapping of exposure and vulnerability hotspots. The process is applied in a case study in the city of Milwaukee, where we developed the Milwaukee Flood-Health Vulnerability Assessment (FHVA) to identify high priority areas for implementing stormwater management strategies including nature-based solutions such as urban green infrastructure. We demonstrate how the co-production approach increases the validity, reliability, and relevance of the assessment. We discuss this approach as the foundation of the FHVA analysis as well as supporting methods including data visualization to facilitate its use by advocacy organizations, urban planners, and policy makers. We find co-production to be a critical component of making such flood vulnerability and exposure analyses useful for diverse stakeholders who need to account for the uneven distribution of flood risks.

Keywords: participatory mapping, knowledge co-production, vulnerability, flood risk, distributional justice, climate change adaptation

42 Introduction

43 Observed and projected rises in the frequency and intensity of extreme precipitation pose an
44 urgent challenge to urban decision makers (Easterling et al., 2017; Hayhoe et al., 2018;
45 Hemmati et al., 2022; Rahmstorf, 2017). In the United States, the frequency and costs of
46 extreme precipitation and flooding events have increased dramatically: During the period
47 1980-2022, an average of 4.8 flooding and severe storm events incurring costs higher than
48 one billion dollars occurred annually, whereas when considering the most recent period (e.g.
49 2017-2022), the annual average escalates to 12 (NOAA NCEI, 2023). According to the
50 Fourth National Climate Assessment, regions like the US Northeast and Midwest have
51 observed an increase in heavy precipitation (defined as the percentage of total annual
52 precipitation falling in the heaviest 1% of precipitation events) of 55% and 12% respectively,
53 over the 1958-2016 period (Hayhoe et al., 2018). These challenges, however, are not limited
54 to the technical aspects. Recently, scholars are increasingly emphasizing the risks of further
55 amplifying already present inequalities if urban adaptation is understood as only a
56 technological challenge (Chu and Cannon, 2021; Meerow and Newell, 2019; Shi et al.,
57 2016).

58 In response to the rising challenge of extreme precipitation, cities are undertaking diverse
59 adaptation approaches, including physical interventions integrating a range of gray, green,
60 blue, and hybrid solutions to mitigate hazards (Depireux and McPhearson, 2017; Lund et al.,
61 2019; Oral et al., 2020; Waryszak et al., 2021). Hybrid green-gray solutions have recently
62 gained traction in the form of urban green infrastructure (UGI) and, more recently as nature-
63 based solutions (NBS) (Frantzeskaki et al., 2019; Gill et al., 2007; Kabisch et al., 2016;
64 Ramyar et al., 2021; Voskamp et al., 2023; Wainwright et al., 2017). In the context of urban
65 climate change adaptation, UGI and NBS rely on a similar premise - contributing to societal
66 well-being by providing ecosystem services (ES), that mitigate the impacts of extreme
67 weather events and other challenges caused by climate change (Babí Almenar et al., 2021;
68 Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2013; Lovell and Taylor, 2013). Here, we define UGI as the
69 networks of natural and semi-natural spaces that provide benefits to society (European
70 Commission, 2020, 2013). We consider this a suitably holistic definition of UGI, capable of
71 accounting for its multiple types and functions. NBS, on the other hand, can be understood
72 as an umbrella concept that encompasses UGI, in addition to broader concepts like
73 ecosystem-based adaptation, disaster-risk reduction, and biodiversity conservation. In
74 addition, the definition of NBS leverages the needs for addressing societal challenges and
75 transitioning towards more resource-efficient, inclusive and sustainable growth models
76 (Faivre et al., 2017). For instance, the United Nations recently defined NBS as “actions to
77 protect, conserve, restore, sustainably use and manage natural or modified terrestrial,
78 freshwater, coastal and marine ecosystems which address social, economic and
79 environmental challenges effectively and adaptively, while simultaneously providing human
80 well-being, ecosystem services, resilience and biodiversity benefits” (United Nations
81 Environment Assembly, 2022).

82 To equitably protect their residents from extreme weather events, cities must address the
83 uneven distribution of exposure and vulnerability to the hazards considered (see Table 1 for
84 the definitions of exposure and vulnerability as per the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
85 Change) (IPCC, 2012). Consequently, demand for regulating ES like stormwater mitigation
86 tends to be framed as “need for risk reduction” (Wolff et al., 2015). Accounting for the current
87 distribution of exposure and vulnerability becomes especially important considering that
88 extreme weather events such as flooding and heatwaves tend to disproportionately affect low-

89 income and racialized, historically segregated communities (Hoffman et al., 2020; Tate et al.,
 90 2021; Wing et al., 2022). In addition, these groups are also the most deprived of urban green
 91 spaces (Grove et al., 2018; Hoffman et al., 2020; Rigolon, 2016). This distributional injustice
 92 of green spaces and risk, however, tends to be ignored in UGI planning for American cities,
 93 where planning prioritizes hydrologic (capacity to manage larger amounts of runoff) and
 94 economic (budget, cost, cost-benefit, and opportunities for future land development) factors
 95 to evaluate and allocate UGI interventions (Grabowski et al., 2022; Hoover et al., 2021). This
 96 reliance on technological factors over the uneven distribution of risks reflects the inherent links
 97 between distribution and the two other core dimensions of environmental justice, recognition
 98 and procedure (Langemeyer and Connolly, 2020). In UGI planning, recognition is reflected in
 99 the pluralistic preferences and needs that dictate how interventions are valued (Zafra-Calvo
 100 et al., 2017). Procedure, on the other hand, is associated with the inclusion or exclusion of
 101 certain voices in the decision making process, and how power relationships filter the framing
 102 and people's participation in decision making processes (He and Sikor, 2015). These three
 103 justice dimensions interact and influence each other, as the values and perceptions
 104 recognized in UGI planning will vary depending on the actors involved in it, and consequently
 105 influence the UGI planning, design, and implementation process.

106 **Table 1:** Definitions of risk, hazard, exposure and vulnerability according to the IPCC (2012, p.32)

Risk	"the likelihood over a specified time period of severe alterations in the normal functioning of a community or a society due to hazardous physical events interacting with vulnerable social conditions, leading to widespread adverse human, material, economic, or environmental effects that require immediate emergency response to satisfy critical human needs and that may require external support for recovery"
Hazard	"The potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event that may cause loss of life, injury, or other health impacts, as well as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, and environmental resources".
Exposure	"The presence (location) of people, livelihoods, environmental services and resources, infrastructure, or economic, social, or cultural assets in places that could be adversely affected by physical events and which, thereby, are subject to potential future harm, loss, or damage".
Vulnerability	"The characteristics of a person or group and their situation that influences their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist, and recover from the adverse effects of physical events".

107
 108 Several studies have examined the distribution of flood risk and/or vulnerability in American
 109 cities (Balica et al., 2017; Chang et al., 2021; de Sherbinin and Bardy, 2015; Herreros-Cantis
 110 et al., 2020; Palla-Bhadka et al., 2022; Tate et al., 2021). These studies tend to focus on
 111 identifying areas where mitigating the impacts of flooding events should be prioritized due to
 112 the overlap of high exposure and vulnerability. Such studies may, however, face several
 113 barriers to be fully leveraged by urban stakeholders such as UGI planners, government
 114 officials, and other stakeholders involved in managing flooding and its impacts. Furthermore,
 115 risk analysis may fail to serve the purpose of place-based environmental justice organizations
 116 and their civic groups advocating for just UGI planning. Scientific knowledge and data can be
 117 hard to find and access due to data sharing restrictions (Overpeck et al., 2011) and the
 118 difficulties experienced by non-academic stakeholders to access scientific journal publications
 119 (Bilotto et al., 2015). Even when accessible, scientific information is commonly presented in
 120 overly complex ways (Plavén-Sigray et al., 2017), which limits its reach and impact on
 121 community awareness on climate risks and their uneven distribution (Hoffman et al., 2020;

122 Rouse et al., 2017). For instance, data and information usually requires specialized technical
123 expertise such as geographic information systems, data science, and scientific terminology or
124 jargon specific to the field. Furthermore, the information presented deemed useful by
125 researchers may not be relevant or applicable to the users' decision-making processes
126 (Lemos et al., 2012).

127 Explicit knowledge co-production has been widely praised for its capacity to increase the take-
128 up of climate services, which are defined as tools aiming to "provide people and organizations
129 with timely, tailored climate-related knowledge and information that they can use to reduce
130 climate-related losses and enhance benefits, including the protection of lives, livelihoods, and
131 property" (Vaughan and Dessai, 2014, p.588). In the context of climate services, co-production
132 tends to be framed as the involvement of end-users in order to identify user needs and
133 incorporate local knowledge (Vollstedt et al., 2021). Such an approach fits under Olazabal
134 (2018, p. 46)'s definition of co-production, framed as "a collaborative process in which shared
135 and usable knowledge is produced out of a pool of diverse knowledge sources and types is
136 fundamental for decision making in socio-ecological contexts and for the transition to global
137 sustainability". Recent examples of climate-services co-production for climate change
138 adaptation rely on spatial data science and communication tools, such as story maps, to
139 communicate the impacts of sea-level rise (Vollstedt et al., 2021), guide the prioritization of
140 investments for adaptation (Hinkel et al., 2023), and identify urban resilience strategies based
141 on hazard exposure and vulnerability (Villani et al., 2023). Co-production, however, can
142 provide additional benefits to the development of climate services. First, involving civic
143 organizations such as environmental justice organizations in knowledge co-production holds
144 potential to empower marginalized voices by supporting their advocacy aimed at steering
145 policy changes (Chambers et al., 2021). Second, it has been widely argued that participatory
146 processes like co-production are valuable beyond the project outcome, given their capacity to
147 nurture collaboration, trust, and build capacities that may live beyond a project's co-production
148 cycle (Vincent et al., 2018; Voinov and Bousquet, 2010).

149 This paper introduces a co-production exercise that involves end-users and experts from
150 various disciplines to enhance the development of climate services. The primary objective of
151 this exercise is to empower stakeholders in advocating for more inclusive UGI, with a specific
152 focus on addressing disparities in flood risk distribution. The project involved a diverse team
153 of academics, data scientists, environmental justice advocates, and healthcare practitioners.
154 This work led to the release of Milwaukee's Flood Health-Vulnerability Assessment (FHVA), a
155 spatial analysis communicated through a publicly available story map designed to visualize
156 flooding exposure and vulnerability hotspots. The assessment is framed within Groundwork
157 USA's Climate Safe neighborhoods (CSN) (Groundwork USA, n.d.), a multi-city initiative
158 aiming to build capacity in vulnerable communities to build resilience and self-advocacy
159 against climate change. In this study, co-production is tackled as an iterative process in which
160 the team works to carry out an analysis and generate a communication tool by combining a
161 diverse range of domains, place-specific knowledge, and experience.

162 In Section 2 the case study is presented, zooming into Milwaukee's flooding and UGI planning
163 contexts. In section 3, we present the different phases of the co-production process and key
164 decisions that were informed by it. Section 4 presents the outcome of the spatial analysis by
165 presenting the locations identified as exposure and vulnerability hotspots. Section 5 introduces
166 the story map that was developed as a climate service for environmental justice advocacy.
167 Section 6 discusses how the co-production process influenced the project's outcome, as well
168 as lessons learned, and how future iterations may improve the process by further elevating.

169 **Case Study Area**

170 The city of Milwaukee, WI, is located in the Midwest region of the United States. With a
171 population of 577,222 people (US Census Bureau, 2020), it is the most populated city in the
172 state of Wisconsin. It also has been described as one of the most segregated cities in the U.S.
173 (Cheng, 2022; Foltman and Jones, 2019; Spicuzza, 2019). The city is observing increases in
174 precipitation due to climate change (Hayhoe et al., 2018; Keuser, 2014; Schuster et al., 2012),
175 and has experienced flash flooding events that result from a combination of extreme
176 precipitation and urban development (i.e. expansion of impervious surfaces). A major example
177 of extreme precipitation in Milwaukee took place in July 2010, when areas of the city received
178 179 mm of precipitation over the course of 2.5 hours during a storm that reached more than
179 228 mm over a 24 hours period (NOAA, 2010). As a result, severe flash flooding occurred
180 across the city, causing thousands of sewer backups and damages to residences, businesses,
181 and public property with an estimated cost of \$35.7 million (NOAA, n.d.).

182 Having allocated billions of dollars on UGI development for stormwater management,
183 Milwaukee is considered a national leader (Hopkins et al., 2018). Green infrastructure plans
184 have been developed for the region (Milwaukee Metropolitan Sewerage District, 2013) and
185 the city (The City of Milwaukee Environmental Collaboration Office, 2019). Both plans include
186 spatially explicit assessments that identify locations where UGI deployment should be
187 prioritized. In the assessments, technical and biophysical criteria that drive the need for and
188 potential cost-effectiveness of UGI interventions are considered (Table 2). The indicators used
189 by both UGI plans constitute a significant combination of valid criteria to site UGI. However,
190 the assessments present two gaps in relation to the consideration of the spatial distribution of
191 flood risk. First, the plans do not explicitly account for the uneven distribution of social
192 vulnerability in a manner that accounts for multiple dimensions (considering aspects like
193 health, sociodemographic, household, and others). Second, both plans lack an explicit hazard
194 layer delimiting the distribution of flooding under one or more event scenarios. Instead, the
195 plans rely on proxy indicators (e.g. “Impervious Surfaces”). The absence of a mapped hazard
196 layer limits the degree to which the uneven exposure to flooding can be assessed consistently
197 across the city. Hence, while these plans use thorough, spatially explicit approaches to
198 distribute green infrastructure across Milwaukee, they overlook the reality that certain
199 communities may need to be prioritized based on their disproportionate risk.

200 The gaps in the criteria used to allocate UGI in Milwaukee reflect more than a need to enrich
201 the types of information considered. Rather, they illustrate the necessity of involving a diversity
202 of voices when producing an understanding of where and why UGI should be prioritized.
203 Moreover, the gaps identified call for empowering civic organizations to produce their own
204 knowledge on the distribution of flood risk considering both vulnerability and exposure. By co-
205 producing and owning this kind of knowledge, civic organizations would add assets to their
206 advocacy toolkit that enable them to use scientifically robust data often inaccessible to them
207 in usable formats.

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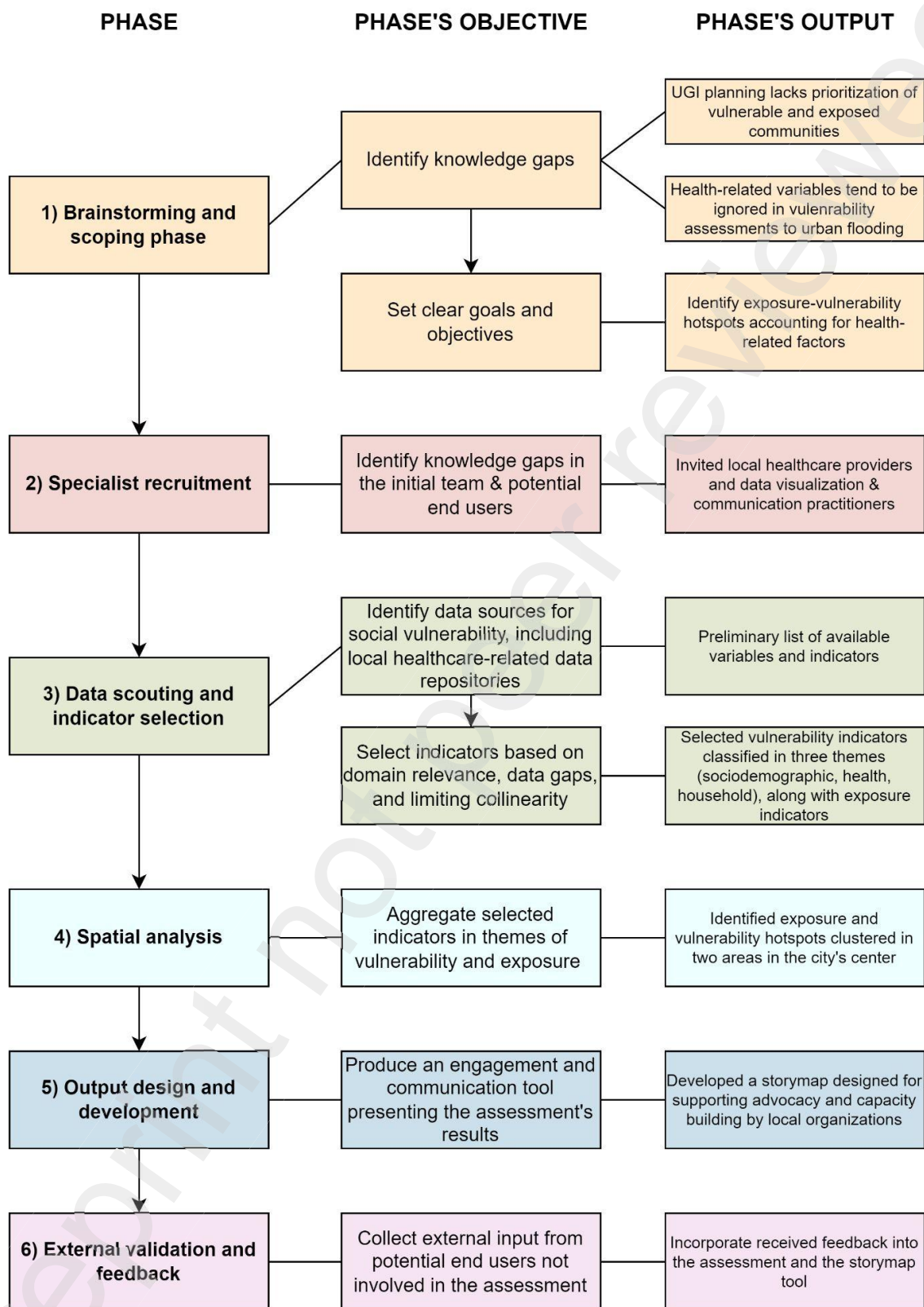
Table 2: Indicators considered in Milwaukee’s regional and local Green Infrastructure Plans. Adapted from Milwaukee Metropolitan Sewerage District (2013) and City of Milwaukee Collaboration Office (2019).

Indicator	Regional Green Infrastructure Plan (2013)	Green Infrastructure Plan (2019)
Vacant land	*	*
Non-Brownfields		*
Areas Without Tree Canopy		*
Parks	*	*
Impervious Surface		*
Redevelopment Areas	*	
Improvement Districts / Community Development Block Grant Areas		*
Areas with Existing Green Infrastructure Strategies	*	
Potential Stream Corridor Rehabilitation locations	*	
High Inflow Areas to the Deep Tunnel	*	*
Potential Drainage Problem Areas	*	*
Potential High Sewer Inflow and Infiltration Areas	*	*
Known Stormwater Issue Areas (e.g. Sewer Backups)	*	*
High Pollutant Loading Areas	*	*
Depth to Bedrock		*
Depth to Groundwater		*
City-Owned Properties		*
Milwaukee Public Libraries and Schools		*
Schools		*
Parking Lots		*
Selective Sewer Separation Opportunities		*
Slopes		*

212 **Co-production methodology and process**

213 The process of co-producing Milwaukee's FHVA took place over six phases (Figure 1). A total
214 of 26 online meetings took place over the course of the project, during which members of the
215 team involved in the process suggested, discussed, and provided feedback to specific actions
216 taken during the project. While certain phases of the project occasionally overlapped (and by
217 addressing more than one phase in a single meeting), they primarily followed a sequential
218 progression. We hence present each phase in order to facilitate their interpretation.

219



220

221 **Figure 1:** Flowchart showing the different phases followed during the co-production process, along with their
 222 objectives and their specific outputs.

223

224 *Phase 1: Brainstorming and scoping phase*

225 An initial team composed of researchers and a local environmental justice organization
226 gathered to identify specific research needs, potential research questions, and a project
227 timeline. In this phase, the conversations focused on developing a common understanding of
228 Milwaukee's current green infrastructure planning and policies context. In parallel, the team's
229 research goals and capacities were defined and aligned. As a result, it was concluded that an
230 accessible, easy to interpret assessment of Milwaukee's uneven flood risk distribution would
231 be beneficial for a diverse range of stakeholders in the city. In addition, the links between
232 health and flooding vulnerability was identified as a missing dimension in common flood risk
233 analyses, with only a few exceptional examples such as the Flood-Health Vulnerability Index
234 developed by San Francisco's Department of Public Health (Wolff and Connerford, 2016) and
235 a New York City-based vulnerability index focused on the adverse effects of coastal flooding
236 on health (Lane et al., 2013). Consequently, it was specifically noted that including health-
237 related variables would enrich the assessment beyond more common vulnerability criteria.

238 *Phase 2: Specialist recruitment*

239 Milwaukee-based key stakeholders were identified and invited to partner with the project in
240 order to a) incorporate participants that fulfilled the knowledge needs identified by the initial
241 team and b) involve potential end-users of the tool to be developed as recommended by Swart
242 et al. (2017). Local healthcare providers with experience and/or knowledge on the interlinks
243 between healthcare and flooding were contacted and invited to participate in the process, as
244 well as data visualization practitioners with expertise in developing interactive geospatial tools
245 for communication. The contacted stakeholders were invited to propose other participants to
246 join the team, allowing a snowballing-based recruitment. After the recruitment of additional
247 specialists, the team was composed of 14 active participants (3 members of an environmental
248 justice organization, 7 healthcare specialists, 3 researchers, and 1 data visualization
249 specialist).

250 *Phase 3: Data Scouting and indicator selection*

251 Flood exposure and vulnerability indicators were scouted and prepared for a selection
252 process.

253 For exposure, two indicators reflecting flooding exposure in roads and residential properties
254 were proposed by the researchers present in the team, based on experience mapping flood
255 risk in other city-based projects (Table 3). The rationale for assessing exposure based on
256 roads and residential parcels is two-fold. First, it allows for a bi-dimensional assessment of
257 exposure to flooding with impacts on two separate sectors (transportation and private
258 residential properties). Second, both indicators were available at the finest resolution possible,
259 with both roads and residential parcels being available as vectorial data delimiting their exact
260 boundaries. Residential units were considered impacted by flooding if their distance to any
261 type of flooding was less than 10m in order to account for the resolution of the flood risk
262 simulation (Bertsch et al., 2022; Iliadis et al., 2023) and to account for possible indirect impacts
263 on properties such as limited accessibility.

264 Two different flood hazards were considered: fluvial flooding and pluvial flooding. Fluvial
265 flooding was considered based on the Flood Insurance Rate Map (FIRM) developed by the
266 Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). FEMA is in charge of generating flood

267 hazard maps that inform regulations, such as the obligation of flood insurance if a dwelling is
 268 located within the 100-year floodplain, the so-called Special Flood Hazard Area (SFHA)
 269 (Pralle, 2019). For pluvial flooding, a hazard map was generated using the City Catchment
 270 Analysis Tool (CityCAT) to simulate the flow of surface runoff during a 100-year, 1-hour storm
 271 (with a total precipitation of 3.03 inches). CityCAT computes the flow of water in real time
 272 accounting for infiltration based on the distribution of pervious / impervious surfaces (Glenis
 273 et al., 2018). The CityCAT tool uses several inputs: a digital elevations model (DEM)
 274 representing the local topography, a map of pervious land cover, a map of soil textures, and
 275 a design storm. The tool has been widely used to simulate flooding events across whole cities
 276 at varying resolutions (Glenis et al., 2013; Guerreiro et al., 2017; Iliadis et al., 2023). In the
 277 case of Milwaukee, a 10m resolution was used to simulate urban runoff, and a depth threshold
 278 of 4 inches (10cm) was set to map pluvial flooding hazard. A detailed description of the pluvial
 279 modeling process and the data inputs employed is provided in the Additional File 1. The two
 280 flood hazard types were combined into a single flood hazard layer, which was then used to
 281 develop the exposure indicators considered.

282 **Table 3:** Exposure indicators used to develop Milwaukee’s FHVA exposure index.

Indicator	References	Data Source
% Total road area flooded	(Papilloud et al., 2020; Stefanidis et al., 2022)	Milwaukee’s TopoPlanimetric map 2020 (Milwaukee County Land Information Office, 2020)
% Residential units exposed to flooding	(Ferguson and Ashley, 2017; Paulik et al., 2023; Stefanidis et al., 2022)	Milwaukee’s Master Property List (MPROP), 2021. (Milwaukee Open Data, 2021)

283 For vulnerability, three main categories were considered: Health-, sociodemographic-, and
 284 household vulnerability (Table 4). Health vulnerability variables were selected under the
 285 guidance of the healthcare practitioners present in the team. First, health indicators available
 286 at the city level were scouted and presented to the team. Indicators were sourced from Health
 287 Compass Milwaukee (Milwaukee Health Care Partnership, n.d.), a local data repository that
 288 provides a comprehensive source of spatially distributed health-related information in
 289 Milwaukee County. Indicators were grouped into a preliminary list of 16 health-related
 290 variables suggested by the team’s healthcare practitioners. Then, each participant (including
 291 both healthcare experts and non-experts) was asked to vote for what they considered to be
 292 the 3-5 most relevant health variables. Based on the voting, 8 health-related variables relevant
 293 for assessing flood vulnerability were selected. These were further narrowed down considering
 294 multicollinearity and avoiding variables whose indicators presented considerable data gaps
 295 (e.g. missing values across census tracts). Multicollinearity was checked using the Variance
 296 Inflation Factor (VIF), using the recommended threshold of $VIF < 5$ (McPhearson et al., 2021;
 297 Snee, 1973) to avoid high collinearity between variables. Different combinations of healthcare
 298 variables were presented to receive feedback from the healthcare practitioners in order to
 299 ensure that decisions based on the data’s collinearity and quality were validated based on
 300 their expertise. In parallel to the selection of health vulnerability indicators, other vulnerability
 301 themes were discussed and selected. Two additional vulnerability themes (sociodemographic
 302 and household) were defined based on Wolff and Comerford (2016)’s themes applied to San
 303 Francisco’s Flood-Vulnerability Index. In cases when data was not available to replicate a
 304 given indicator under each vulnerability theme, alternative indicators fitting under the

305 vulnerability theme at hand were proposed by members of the team based on other
306 information sources on social vulnerability (e.g. CDC's Social Vulnerability Index (Flanagan, et
307 al., 2011)) and data availability. Under each vulnerability theme, the number of variables
308 considered was limited in order to facilitate the interpretation of the index and to reduce
309 collinearity.

310 **Table 4:** Indicators selected and aggregated for the development of the different social vulnerability sub-indices.
311 References refer to case studies that used a similar indicator to assess vulnerability and/or the distributional justice
312 of flood risk.

SV theme	Indicator	References	Data Source
Health Vulnerability	% Adults with Diabetes	(Wolff and Comerford 2016)	Health Compass Milwaukee (datasets for year 2019) (Milwaukee Health Care Partnership n.d.)
	% adults with poor mental health over last 14 days	(Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et al. 2020)	Health Compass Milwaukee (datasets for year 2019) (Milwaukee Health Care Partnership n.d.)
	Age-adjusted Emergency Room visits rate due to asthma	(Wolff and Comerford 2016; Peirce et al. 2022)	Health Compass Milwaukee (datasets for year 2019) (Milwaukee Health Care Partnership n.d.)
	% Population with a Disability	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et al. 2020; Madajewicz 2020)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% Adults without a Health Insurance	(Tate et al. 2021)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
Sociodemographic Vulnerability	% Residents aged below 18 and above 65 years old	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et al. 2020; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020; Madajewicz 2020; Tate et al. 2021; Chang et al. 2021)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% People with a salary below twice the federal poverty level	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020; Tate et al. 2021)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% People aged above 25 years old without a high school diploma	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et al. 2020; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020; Tate et al. 2021)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% of the population aged 5 that speaks English "not well" or "not at all"	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et al. 2020; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020; Tate et al. 2021)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% of residents self-identified as Black, Indigenous, People of	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Wolff and Comerford 2016; Chakraborty et	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019

	Color (Identifying as non-white and/or Hispanic / Latinx)	al. 2020; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020; Tate et al. 2021)	(US Census Bureau 2020b)
Household Vulnerability	% Households without a car	(Flanagan et al. 2011; Chakraborty et al. 2020; Herreros-Cantis et al. 2020)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019 (US Census Bureau 2020b)
	% Households built before 1950	(Chakraborty et al. 2020)	Milwaukee's Master Property File 2021 (Milwaukee Open Data 2021)
	% Households composed of a single adult living alone	(Wolff and Comerford 2016)	US Census Bureau, 5-year estimates for period 2015-2019

313

314 *Phase 4: Spatial analysis*

315 Generating the vulnerability index required a previous development of three separate
316 vulnerability sub-indices, one per vulnerability theme considered. A sub-index approach was
317 selected by the team to enable end-users to easily interpret vulnerability as a compound of
318 different themes or dimensions. Aggregating the three sub-indices ensured equal influence of
319 each theme on the final index, regardless of them having a different number of indicators
320 considered. The data aggregation process and methodology were iteratively reported to the
321 team by presenting intermediate and preliminary results, in order to ensure a common
322 understanding of the quantitative outcomes of the analysis. The aggregations of indicators for
323 each sub-index were computed by calculating the sum of the normalized indicators conforming
324 each sub-index. This approach was deemed suitably interpretable by the team.

325 Exposure and vulnerability hotspots were mapped by individually selecting census tracts that
326 ranked in the top 25% (top quartile) for the exposure and vulnerability indices, respectively.
327 Then, both maps were overlapped to highlight locations where high vulnerability and high
328 exposure co-occur. This approach was selected based on inputs by the team and external
329 stakeholders regarding the difficult interpretability of a fully aggregated index. In an aggregated
330 risk index, discerning whether high risk is the result of high exposure, high vulnerability, or a
331 combination of both required diving into the underlying data. The results were presented to
332 the full team to gather internal feedback and reactions on the hotspots identified, and to
333 consider potential locations within Milwaukee that may serve as a zoomed-in case study and
334 in future advocacy and engagement work.

335 *Phase 5: Output design and development*

336 As the analytical work reached completion, discussions shifted towards designing a user-
337 friendly communication tool to disseminate the spatial analysis carried out. The main purposes
338 for the tool were defined collectively during brainstorming sessions facilitated during the online
339 meetings. The purposes of the communication tool were defined in alignment with those of
340 the spatial analysis as a) to support advocacy and capacity-building efforts by multi-
341 disciplinary groups ranging from non-governmental organizations to healthcare providers
342 interested in urban adaptation to climate change and b) to broaden local decision-makers'
343 understanding of the spatially explicit attributes that define flood risk and that should be

344 considered in risk mitigation policies and interventions. A story map format was selected given
345 its advantages for dynamically representing spatial data while accompanying it with contextual
346 text. Story maps are web-based applications capable of visualizing spatial data in an
347 interactive manner (e.g. allowing to zoom in/out, navigating the map, and clicking on spatial
348 features to access expanded information). Maps can then be supported by additional features
349 such as text, graphs, and audiovisual materials. As web-based applications, story maps can
350 easily be made publicly available and shared. The story maps application developed by the
351 Environmental Systems Research Institute (ESRI) was chosen given its suitable functionality
352 as a communication and education tool (Cope et al., 2018; Harder and Froyen, 2017). The
353 design of the story map focused on developing a clear, concise narrative of the analysis
354 developed and its conclusions, as well as a consistent graphic layout (Covi and Kain, 2016).
355 Two parallel tasks were carried out to develop the story map: A written technical report and a
356 storyboard. The technical report summarized the key methodological steps taken during the
357 spatial analysis, while the storyboard organized the project's narrative and identified the types
358 of data and content necessary in each section of the map. The storyboard was created using
359 a slideshow presentation program, which allowed any member of the team to contribute
360 regardless of their GIS skills. The researchers of the team led the development of the technical
361 report, and the environmental justice organization members of the team focused on structuring
362 the storyboard and transferring it into an actual prototype of the tool. Both products were
363 presented as drafted outputs, requesting the rest of the team for inputs and feedback during
364 meetings. The process of co-designing the story map involved designing, balancing, and
365 integrating different mediums such as written text, graphs, maps, and their different layers.

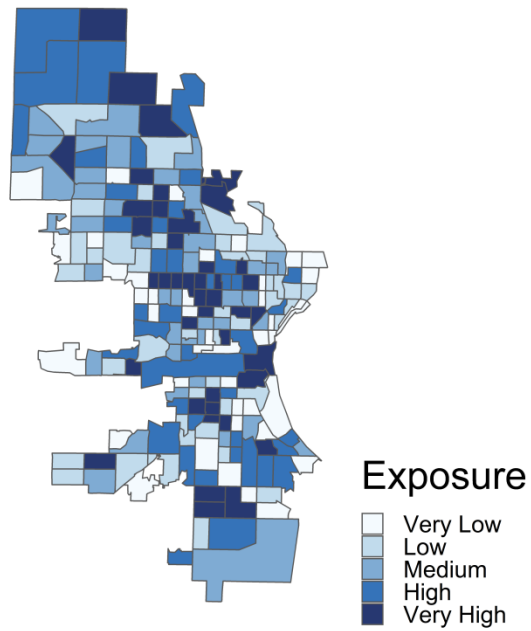
366 *Phase 6: External validation and feedback*

367 To strengthen the validity and applicability of the project's output, external input was collected
368 at the beginning and the ending of the project to review the project's goals, methods, and
369 output's design. State-level public health officials from Wisconsin's Department of Health
370 Services (DHS) working at the intersection of climate and health were consulted for feedback
371 on the project's goals. Conversations sought to identify challenges faced by officials in the
372 development of similar integrated flood risk assessments. Preliminary and final results were
373 presented to the same officials via live demonstrations of the developed story map in order to
374 receive feedback and to inform them of the tool's availability. An additional live demonstration
375 of the was carried out with the local environmental justice organization Milwaukee Water
376 Commons in request for feedback on the storymap's relevance and usability.

377 **Milwaukee's Flood Health Vulnerability Assessment: Spatial Analysis Results**

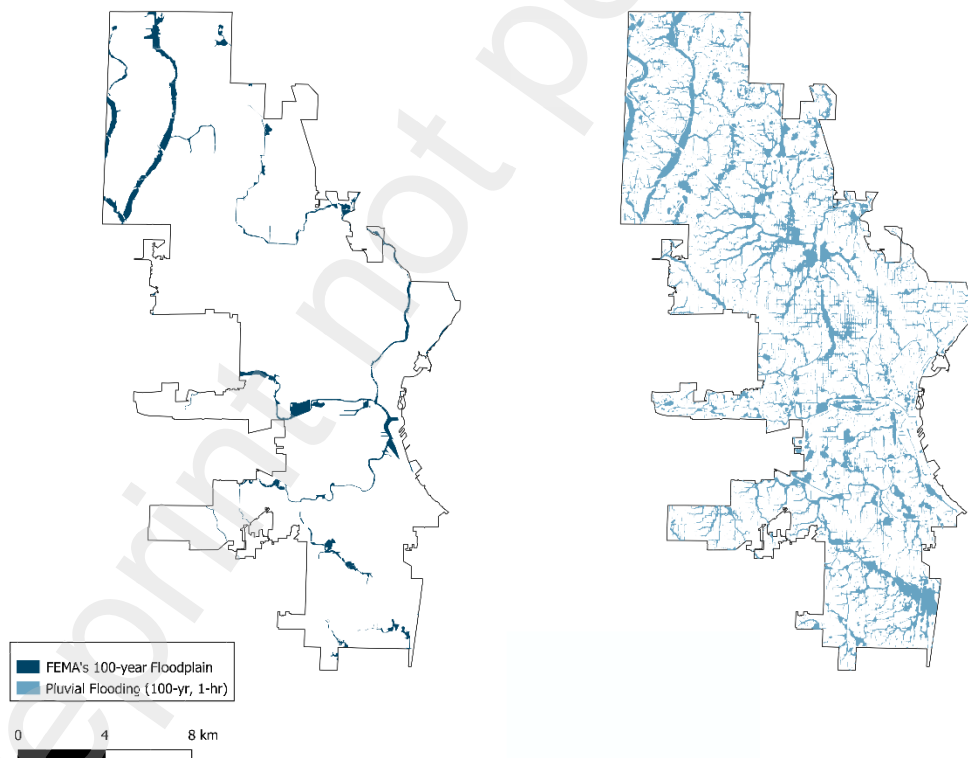
378 The results of the spatial analysis show the spatial distribution of flood exposure and flood
379 vulnerability in Milwaukee at the Census Tract level. Exposure (Figure 2) shows a scattered
380 distribution across the city. This spread is heavily influenced by the two flood hazard layers.
381 As shown in Figure 3, the pluvial flood hazard layer developed with the CityCAT modeling tool
382 covers a much larger area of the city than the fluvial flood hazard layer developed by FEMA.
383 While FEMA's flood hazard layer covers a total area of 985 hectares (ha), the pluvial flood
384 hazard layer highlights up to 4715 ha that flood due to the accumulation of surface runoff in
385 lower-lying areas.

386



387

388 **Figure 2:** Flooding Exposure Index in Milwaukee, with scores sorted in quintiles.

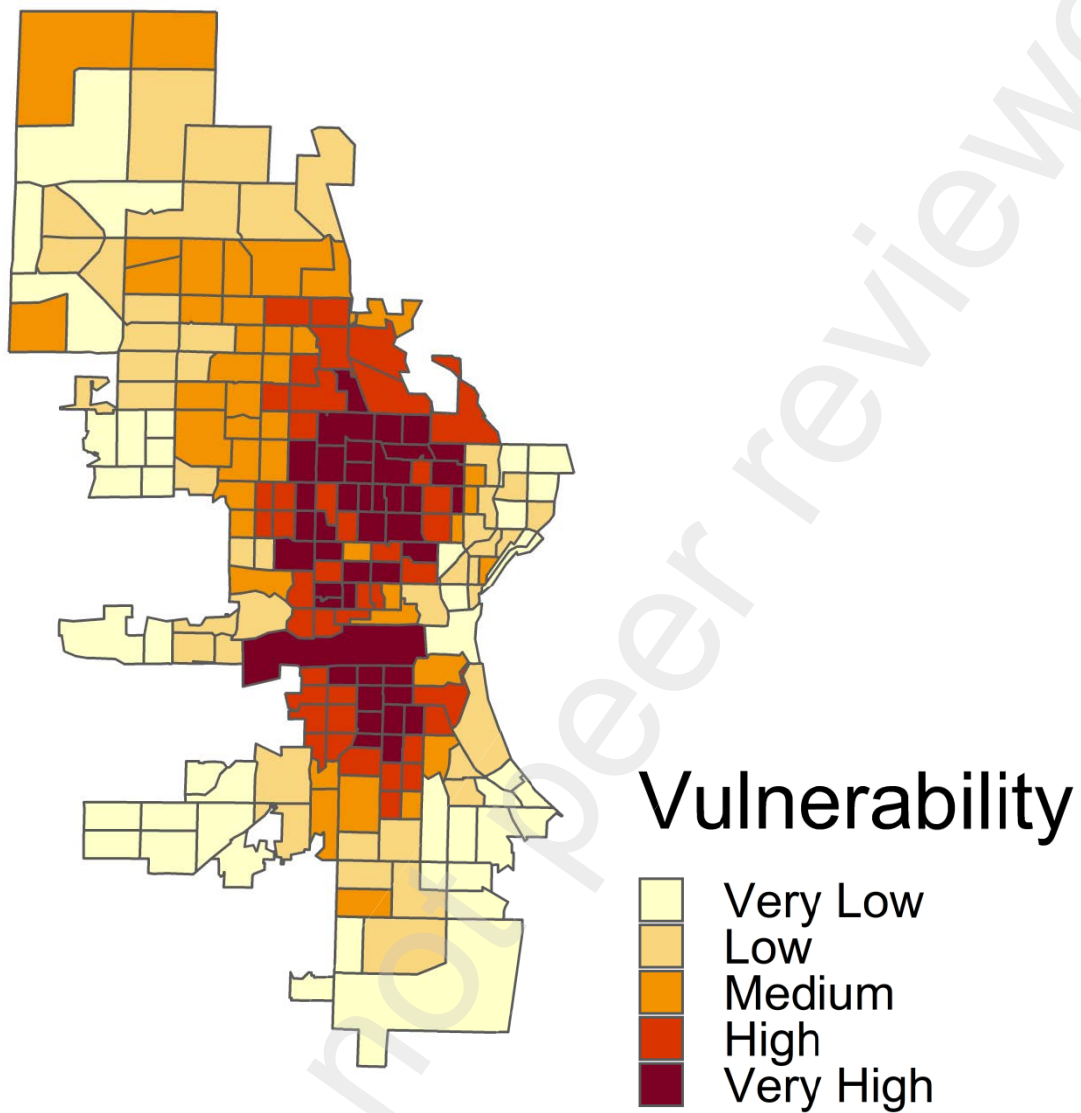


389

390 **Figure 3:** Flood hazard distribution of the two flooding hazard types considered in the study. On the left, flood
 391 hazard according to FEMA's Special Flood Hazard Area (100-year floodplain). On the right, pluvial flooding
 392 according to a 100-yr 1-hour rain event simulated in CityCAT.

393 Flood vulnerability, in contrast, exhibits a clustered distribution with higher values concentrated
394 in the city's center (Figure 4). This pattern is consistent across the sub-indices developed for
395 each vulnerability theme, with minor variations in their north-south distribution. For instance,
396 the socioeconomic vulnerability sub-index shows high index values further South of the city's
397 center, while high health vulnerability spreads further North instead. Finally, household
398 vulnerability shows its high vulnerability values more concentrated in the city's center without
399 reaching as far North or South as the other two sub-indices.

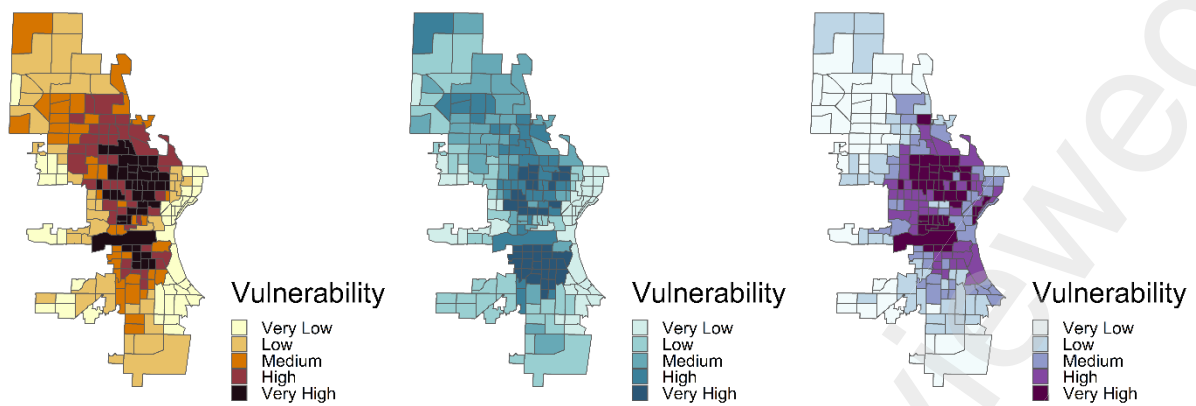
400 The distinct distributions of the exposure and vulnerability indices drive the distribution of
401 hotspots and their co-occurrence. Due to the clustering of high vulnerability census tracts in
402 Milwaukee's center, the co-occurrence of high exposure and high vulnerability is constrained
403 to the same area (Figure 6). Out of a total of 209 census tracts, 18 were identified as both a
404 vulnerability and exposure hotspot. Additionally, 34 census tracts are identified as vulnerability
405 hotspots, and the same number of tracts are identified as exposure hotspots. Roughly 47,800
406 people (~8% of the city's total population) live in the tracts identified as exposure and
407 vulnerability hotspots, with an additional ~86,600 (~14%) people living in census tracts
408 identified as vulnerability hotspots, and ~100,700 (~17%) in exposure hotspots. To facilitate
409 interpretation by Milwaukee's residents, the zip codes that overlapped with either type of hotspot
410 were also identified (Table 5).



411

412 **Figure 4:** Social Vulnerability Index resulting from the aggregation of the three vulnerability sub-indices. The
413 vulnerability level categories correspond to a quintile-based classification.

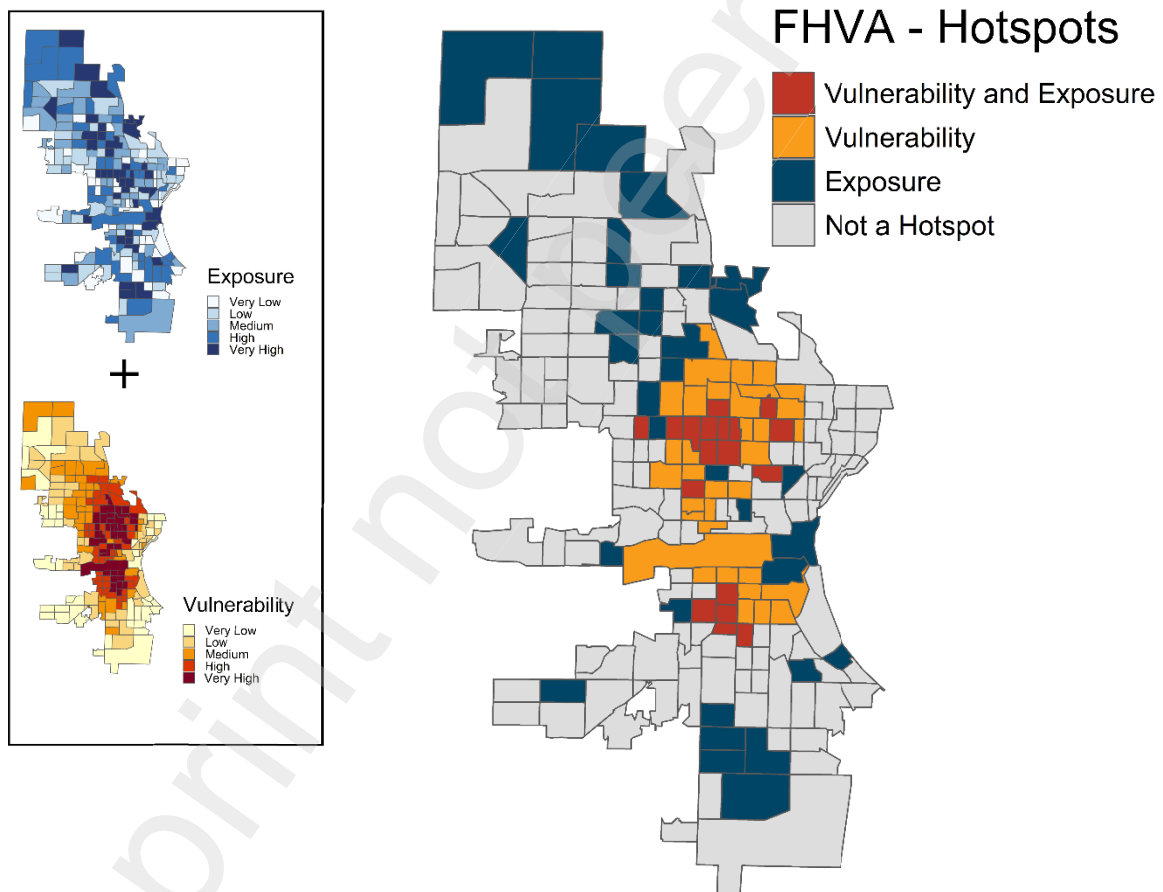
414



415

416 **Figure 5:** Vulnerability sub-indices generated from the aggregation of indicators selected under each vulnerability theme. The vulnerability themes aggregated correspond to health variables (left), socioeconomic (middle), and household (right). The vulnerability level categories correspond to a quintile-based classification.

419



420

421 **Figure 6:** Overlap between Flood Exposure and Social Vulnerability hotspots across Milwaukee. Hotspots for exposure and vulnerability are defined as the top quartile (top 25%) of the two indices, respectively.

422

423
424
425

Table 5: Zip codes in Milwaukee that intersect with one or more types of hotspot. Zip codes and census tracts have different boundaries, due to which any given zip code will intersect with more than one census tract. To account for this, for each zip code, every different hotspot type is listed.

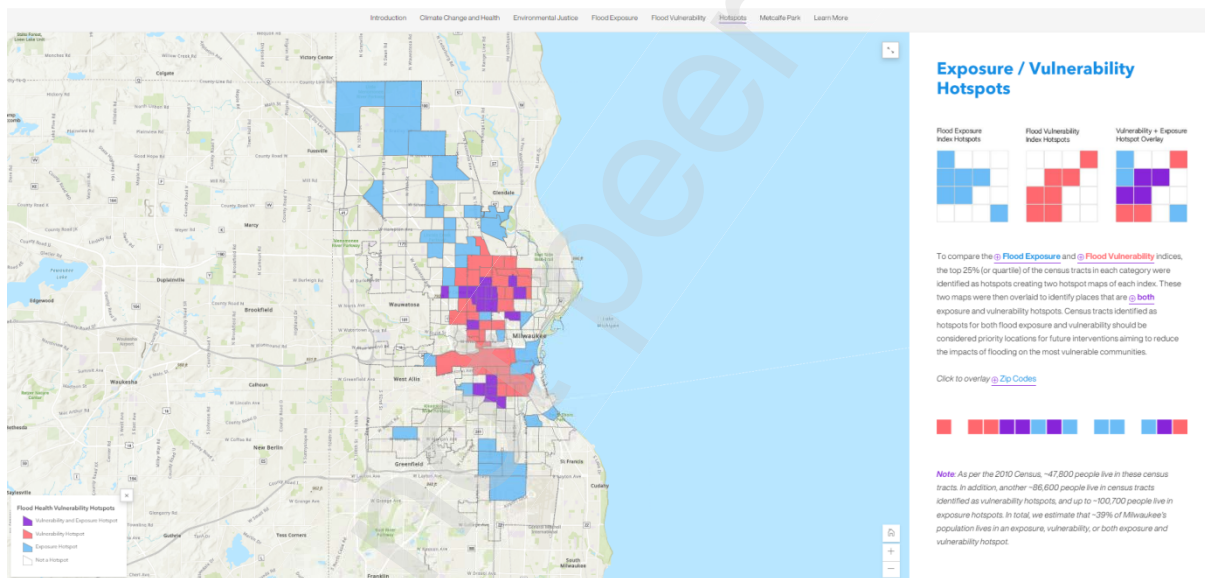
Zip Code	Types of Hotspots
53224	Exposure
53223	Exposure
53225	Exposure
53218	Exposure
53209	Exposure; vulnerability
53216	Exposure; vulnerability
53206	Exposure and vulnerability; vulnerability
53212	Exposure and vulnerability; exposure; vulnerability
53210	Exposure and vulnerability; exposure; vulnerability
53208	Exposure and vulnerability; vulnerability
53205	Exposure and vulnerability; exposure; vulnerability
53233	Exposure; vulnerability
53203	Exposure; vulnerability
53202	Exposure
53204	Exposure and vulnerability; exposure; vulnerability
53214	Exposure; vulnerability
53215	Exposure and vulnerability; vulnerability
53219	Exposure
53221	Exposure
53207	Exposure

426 **Milwaukee’s Flood Health Vulnerability Assessment: The Story Map**

427 The resulting story map is presented as a scrolling thread structured in eight different sections
428 (<https://storymaps.arcgis.com/stories/3e8187206bb542d897bceb8a3694a416>).

429 First, an introduction highlights the project’s goal, defined as “to provide critical information on
430 both flood exposure and social vulnerability to support community-based advocacy and future
431 planning to mitigate potential flood and health risks”. The assessment’s structure is presented,
432 guiding the reader through its exposure-vulnerability assessments. In two additional
433 informative sections, the connections between climate change and health, as well as climate
434 change and environmental justice, are presented. In these sections, the distributions of flood
435 risk, tree canopy, and impervious surfaces in Milwaukee are presented. Additional context is
436 provided by comparing these factors with legacies of historic segregation, known as redlining
437 (Rothstein, 2017), illustrating the path dependencies connecting past racist policies with the

438 current distributional injustices of environmental risks (Hoffman et al., 2020; Mitchell and
439 Franco, 2018). In this latter section, local contextual information is provided linking flooding
440 exposure to socially vulnerable communities and to green infrastructure planning in
441 Milwaukee. This allows to leverage the project's goal of illustrating the need to prioritize
442 interventions in locations where vulnerability and exposure to flooding converge. The three
443 following sections summarize the methods and results for assessing exposure, assessing
444 vulnerability in its separate themes, and identifying hotspots based on the overlay of exposure
445 and vulnerability (Figure 7). A seventh section provides a case study focused on a particular
446 location in Milwaukee, Metcalfe Park (Figure 8). Metcalfe Park was selected as a case study
447 given its overlap with census tracts classified as exposure and vulnerability hotspots, as well
448 as with historically segregated areas. This case study aims to illustrate how the tool could be
449 used at the neighborhood level to closely understand flooding exposure, its potential impacts,
450 and to identify opportunities for interventions. Additional layers not included in the spatial
451 analysis are provided for further context, such as the presence of polluted industrial sites.
452 Finally, a concluding section provides information to get involved in future activities, flood
453 preparation tips, and contact information for the different groups involved in the assessment.
454



455
456 **Figure 7:** Milwaukee's Flood Health Vulnerability Assessment - Story map presenting the overlay between
457 exposure and vulnerability hotspots.



458

459 **Figure 8: Milwaukee's Flood Health Vulnerability Assessment - Story map zoom into Metcalfe Park as an example**
 460 **case study, presenting high resolution flood hazard data and additional spatial data such as the location of polluted**
 461 **sites.**

462 The story map includes functionalities that were added as a result of the internal and external
 463 feedback. Added functionalities were designed to facilitate the interpretation of the data
 464 presented, avoiding any possible "black-box" effect. For instance, the census tracts presented
 465 in any of the maps can be clicked on to deploy an attribute table with the specific indicator
 466 values that led to the tract's index value. In addition, a "View Alone" button allows users to
 467 isolate and visualize a specific indicator, allowing city-wide visualizations. Feedback received
 468 from potential users was highly focused on facilitating the geographic navigation of the maps,
 469 given that census tracts are not a familiar spatial unit for people. Because of this, an interactive
 470 zip-code layer was added. Additionally, the story map's user-friendliness is further enabled by
 471 using a basemap including street names.

472 **Discussion**

473 In this study, we presented Milwaukee's Flood Health Vulnerability Assessment and the
 474 underlying co-production process that was triggered by an observed lack of consideration for
 475 key vulnerability aspects in the spatial planning of green infrastructure in Milwaukee

476 (Milwaukee Metropolitan Sewerage District, 2013; The City of Milwaukee Environmental
477 Collaboration Office, 2019). Ultimately, the project's outcomes aim to serve as advocacy and
478 planning tools by illustrating the critical need for accounting for different dimensions of risk,
479 taken as an aggregate of hazard, exposure, and vulnerability, when designing and allocating
480 climate change adaptation interventions such as green infrastructure (Hoover et al., 2021;
481 Meerow, 2020). In addition to the project's results, the co-production process through which
482 they were produced also aimed to empower civic organizations that may lack access to data,
483 information, and knowledge needed to support their efforts to advocate for policy changes and
484 have their needs addressed (Chambers et al., 2021). The process resulted in a spatial analysis
485 that identifies exposure and vulnerability hotspots, which co-occur in Milwaukee's central area.
486 Additionally, a story map envisioned as a support tool for advocacy organizations, city officials,
487 urban planners, and healthcare practitioners was produced as a tool to present the methods
488 and results to a wide audience in an appealing, educational manner that combines spatial data
489 visualization with supporting text, graphs, and audiovisual materials (Hoffman et al., 2020).

490 The indicators and hotspots mapped in this study may not only inform the siting of UGI and
491 other NBS, but their implementation and design processes. For instance, areas with high
492 disability or elderly rates may require interventions to focus on physical accessibility; high
493 poverty rates may flag a need to ensure that jobs created in the implementation process
494 provide opportunities to address wealth inequalities (Grabowski et al., 2023); and communities
495 with a high rate of residents unable to properly communicate in English may ensure that the
496 participatory processes linked to NBS and UGI planning offer information in other languages
497 (Teron, 2016). UGI itself has been observed to provide a wide range of health benefits such
498 as reducing stress levels, reducing risks for cardiovascular disease, and improving immune
499 responses (Nieuwenhuijsen, 2021). Hence, health vulnerabilities like those mapped in this
500 study may be used to inform the siting and design of UGI beyond the flood zones considered.
501 Besides advancing the mapping of vulnerability in Milwaukee, this study considers pluvial
502 flooding by simulating a 100-year, 1-hour storm event. The addition of pluvial flooding is critical
503 to avoid the underrepresentation of flood hazards in Milwaukee's FHVA. Accounting for pluvial
504 flooding allowed the identification of locations with potential to experience flooding while being
505 far from FEMA's riverine floodplains. For instance, pluvial flooding was identified in the 30th
506 Street Corridor and N 35th Street, a high vulnerability area in which Milwaukee's Metropolitan
507 Sewerage District is currently deploying several large-scale UGI projects to address persistent
508 flooding (Milwaukee Metropolitan Sewerage District, 2021a, 2021b).

509 *Co-production process: benefits and lessons learned*

510 Facilitating the interaction between domain experts and data scientists is crucial to realize the
511 benefits that data science has to offer (Viaene, 2013). In the initial stages of the co-production
512 process, the assessment team was expanded in order to incorporate holders of specific
513 knowledge domains that were identified as lacking in the original team. The inclusion of health
514 experts in the team was found to be crucial. For instance, the preliminary indicators list
515 proposed asthma rates of the adult population as an indicator, to which health experts pointed
516 the critical importance of including pediatric populations in asthma metrics. In addition to
517 domain experts, including other potential end-users (e.g. environmental justice organizations)
518 was valuable to ensure the study's final usability (Hoffmann et al., 2020; Lemos et al., 2012).
519 Choosing to step away from an originally intended "index" approach was the most important
520 impact of including end users and consulting with external public officials. It was made clear
521 that aggregating all the data into a single index makes it virtually impossible to understand the
522 underlying drivers of a high value. Therefore, a "modular" approach by which vulnerability and

523 exposure indices are kept separate, enabling the user to understand the distinct distributions
524 of both factors, was selected. Additionally, the hierarchical conceptualization of vulnerability
525 as an aggregate of sub-indices or themes (Reckien, 2018; Tate, 2012) was also selected to
526 facilitate the interpretation of the final results, as well as enabling users to focus on particular
527 themes that may be of higher concern depending on the use case.

528 The benefits of this co-production process so far highlighted are the result of the high
529 interdisciplinarity of the team (Vollstedt et al., 2021). Furthermore, the incorporation of
530 healthcare practitioners as domain experts fills a need for carrying out interdisciplinary
531 research with health, climate change, and racial justice scholars (Deivanayagam et al., 2023).
532 This interdisciplinarity and interaction between researchers and stakeholders with domain
533 expertise is key to enable collective learning (Olazabal et al., 2018). A key component of co-
534 production is the problem definition, which posed major challenges at the initial stages of the
535 project. Several iterations were needed to refine the project's goals and to develop a frame of
536 collaboration grounded on a mutual understanding of the project's capacities, assumptions,
537 and the different roles of the members of the team. This is not identified as a weakness of the
538 project, but a strength. It has been shown that involving stakeholders and other participants in
539 the very initial stages of the project increases the value, educational potential, and the
540 credibility of its outcomes (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). The challenges encountered,
541 however, call for specifically budgeting time and resources in the initial stages of co-production
542 projects, as highlighted by others (Christel et al., 2018).

543 *Study limitations and future steps*

544 Future steps complementing the process presented may focus on limitations and further
545 research needs identified. On the co-production side, future iterations may explore the further
546 participation of policy makers and/or residents from select communities. Including policy
547 makers in the co-production process would increase the usability of their products in UGI
548 planning. For instance, urban planners and policy makers may provide feedback on the
549 indicators used in the assessment, highlighting whether specific indicators should be excluded
550 or added based on their needs. Involving policy-makers, however, would require addressing
551 potential power imbalances that may arise if their institutional authority influences decisions
552 made during the co-production process. Involving local residents in the development of future
553 tools may facilitate ongoing dialogues on self-advocacy and disaster preparedness. The story
554 map developed has proven useful in contexts such as education and city-wide advocacy.
555 Journalism, in addition, has emerged as an unexpected use of the tool since its release.
556 Besides a feature specifically focused on the story map itself (Looby, 2022), additional media
557 pieces have been published relying on the story map to illustrate climate change,
558 sustainability, and local concerns on exacerbating flooding due to highway expansions
559 (Chester, 2023; Schulte and Looby, 2023a, 2023b). However, the story map's capacity to
560 engage with the residents of disproportionately vulnerable and exposed neighborhoods is yet
561 to be evaluated. Given examples of story maps created as environmental justice advocacy
562 tools that engaged directly with community members during their development (Lung-Amam
563 and Hawkins, 2020), the current story map may trigger new co-production cycles rather than
564 forcing residents to adhere to its already existing version.

565 Regarding future analytical steps, understanding how current and projected UGI is distributed
566 and performing in Milwaukee would reveal if interventions effectively address the areas most
567 in need of flood risk mitigation identified in this study. Accounting for the performance of UGI
568 in addition to the distribution of risk would enable a supply-demand assessment in which

569 distributional injustices of both UGI and hazards are presented and related to each other
570 (Herrerros-Cantis and McPhearson, 2021). In addition, coupling flood risk with the distribution
571 of polluted sites has been identified as a research avenue of interest for which a new co-
572 production cycle, including the recruitment of specialists in water quality and pollution, would
573 be needed.

574 *Climate adaptation planning in Milwaukee: recent developments*

575 Milwaukee's FHVA was triggered as a reaction to Milwaukee's city-wide UGI plans. Several
576 developments in Milwaukee's adaptation planning context have occurred in parallel to the
577 project. Albeit positive, these developments underscore the need for empowering the voices
578 of organizations advocating for a risk and vulnerability-centered approach towards prioritizing
579 and designing UGI.

580 In June 2023, Milwaukee County released the Milwaukee County Climate Action 2050 Plan,
581 a county-wide vulnerability assessment focused on extreme heat, flooding, and air quality
582 (Milwaukee County, 2023). The assessment presents promising aspects such as the inclusion
583 of residents' views through a city-wide survey and workshop discussions. However, the report
584 acknowledges the over-representation of white, higher-income residents (90% of the survey
585 respondents). Furthermore, the report presents other limitations such as not providing a
586 region-wide, spatially explicit flood vulnerability assessment and relying on CDC's Social
587 Vulnerability Index as a pre-packaged, generalist vulnerability product. Some of these
588 limitations may reflect the way in which local residents participated in the assessment as
589 sources of information in the initial stages of the project, rather than as knowledge co-
590 producers. Finally, the County's assessment exclusively considers FEMA's flood hazard areas
591 to assess exposure, hence overlooking the widespread distribution of pluvial flooding. In
592 September 2023, Milwaukee city officials announced the award of \$12 million in funding to
593 increase access to green spaces and expand urban tree canopy in order to address the
594 challenges posed by climate change and create healthier communities (Urban Milwaukee,
595 2023; USDA Forest Service, 2023). The grant program explicitly states an intention to target
596 disadvantaged communities, reinforcing the need for a city-wide understanding of the
597 distributions of risk as a combination of vulnerability and exposure.

598 **Conclusions**

599 In order to achieve a just and effective mobilization of resources for flood risk mitigation, cities
600 investing on UGI and other types of NBS must explicitly consider the uneven distribution of
601 flooding exposure and vulnerability. The mapping of risk to extreme weather events in cities
602 has been developed over several iterations from an academic standpoint. However, the
603 methods and knowledge developed through risk mapping processes lack relevance or
604 accessibility to city governments and place-based civic organizations.

605 Here, we presented the result of a co-production process that was rooted in the inclusion of
606 potential end-users and experts with relevant knowledge for increasing the study's validity and
607 applicability to advocacy, urban planning, and education. The presented exercise triggered a
608 shared learning process, allowing for the integration of the different expertises present in the
609 team. The study's co-production approach facilitated the incorporation of voices commonly
610 underrepresented in UGI planning, such as environmental justice advocates calling for an
611 equitable distribution of resources. As a result of the process, exposure and vulnerability
612 hotspots across Milwaukee were identified, concentrated in the central areas of the city.
613 Besides the assessment, a web-based story map was developed for communication

614 purposes. The story map allows not only to visualize flooding exposure and vulnerability
615 hotspots in Milwaukee, but also to disseminate the assessment's methods in an accessible
616 and understandable manner.
617

Preprint not peer reviewed

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Co-producing research and data visualization for environmental justice advocacy: The Milwaukee Flood-Health Vulnerability Assessment

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