**Introduction**

A city’s vibrancy, productivity, efficiency and innovation depends in large part on how efficiently it can connect job opportunities and workers to each other through economic, social, physical and intellectual networks (Bettencourt & West, 2010). An approach to urban planning that integrates land use and transportation strategies can facilitate this by optimising the spatial distribution of residents and job opportunities, relative to the connectivity provided by the transport network, so that the available transportation capacity can be used most efficiently to maximise the ability of workers to access the jobs that they seek.

To support this, methodologies are needed to analyse macro-scale patterns in the distribution of job accessibility (defined as residents’ ability to reach suitable job opportunities within a reasonable travel time or cost via the transport network) (Hansen, 1959). In the transportation research and urban planning literature, a wide range of accessibility indicators have been developed, but the measures that are used in practice tend to be those that are easiest to calculate and interpret (Geurs & Wee, 2004). However, this ease of use comes at a cost, as these indicators focus on the extent to which the overall job supply is spatio-temporally matched to the overall spatial distribution of workers’ residential locations, without accounting for worker characteristics (different workers may have different abilities to use the transport options available or to take advantage of the jobs that they can physically access), job characteristics (such as required skills or reliance on certain economic sectors) and travel time reliability (travellers need to account for a certain level of uncertainty in travel times on any given day).

This study demonstrates how these three dimensions can be integrated with accessibility analyses in a way that preserves the attractive simplicity of the accessibility indicators while allowing a more nuanced interpretation of the distribution of accessibility among the working-age population. Focusing on London, I develop a typology of neighbourhoods that categorises them by overall accessibility to jobs, the relative social disadvantage of their working-age population, the sectoral diversity of the available jobs and travel time reliability. In addition to providing insights into how the large-scale spatial structure of London could be adjusted to improve job-worker spatio-temporal matching, the results can also provide guidance for where to focus measures that support workers, encourage job growth in certain sectors and improve public transport reliability, thus allowing for closer coordination between land-use, transport, economic and social strategies.

**Literature Review**

Because of the importance of accessibility in understanding how cities function, researchers have developed a wide range of accessibility indicators (Geurs & Wee, 2004). Of these, “location-based” measures are widely used for city-level analyses, because they treat accessibility as a property of different areas (as opposed to a property of travellers or of components in the transport network) and thus can be used to spatially aggregate and visualise patterns in the distribution of accessibility (Shen, 1998; Sanchez, 1999; Kotavaara, et al., 2012; El-Geneidy, et al., 2016; Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018; Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018). In general, analyses using location-based measures show that accessibility levels vary widely within cities, largely because job distributions tend to be highly clustered, and transport connectivity is unevenly provided (areas with higher density tend to be better connected with faster, higher-capacity transport links).

It is widely recognised that one drawback of location-based accessibility indicators is that they match workers to jobs as if every worker and every job were interchangeable. To capture how accessibility levels vary across different types of workers and jobs, some studies calculate accessibility indicators for subsets of workers (such as low-income workers) matched to the jobs that are suitable for them (like jobs in sectors that tend to pay lower wages) (Shen, 1998; Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018), while others examine how accessibility levels vary by area-level indicators of social disadvantage (such as neighbourhood average income, or an index measuring neighbourhood residents’ deprivation levels along multiple dimensions) (Sanchez, 1999; Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018). These analyses have found that most cities have areas where more disadvantaged residents are burdened with poorer accessibility to jobs, though this seems to be a more systematic problem in poorer cities with less extensive public transport systems.

In the context of London, Ford et al (2015) showed that job accessibility varies significantly across space, but as far as I am aware there has not been a published analysis of how accessibility varies across different types of workers and jobs. Nonetheless, both the UK government (Social Exclusion Unit, 2003) and the GLA (2018) recognise that low accessibility may significantly hinder disadvantaged residents’ access to jobs as well as other services like healthcare, education and leisure, thereby constraining their options, increasing travel burdens, lowering quality of life and entrenching social deprivation. To make the situation fairer, authorities recommend targeting accessibility improvements to better connect areas with more disadvantaged residents to the opportunities they need.

Researchers have also increasingly recognised that the spatial distributions of workers, jobs and connectivity can all vary significantly over time (Tenkanen, et al., 2016; Järv, et al., 2018; Hu & Downs, 2019). Using geolocated social media or mobile phone data, workplace opening times and public transport schedules, researchers have built time series of these 3 variables over a typical day and calculated accessibility measurements for each area at each time point. However, the extant studies calculate accessibility based on “typical” (mean or ideal) values of these variables at each time point, without accounting for the stochastic distribution of possible values around the typical values. In particular, for travel times, while these studies account for large-scale variations due to differences in service schedules over different parts of the day, they do not capture the concept of reliability in that there is still a margin of uncertainty in travel times even if all components of the transport system are functioning as planned.

Methodological innovations in this direction have been hindered by a scarcity of data on the shapes of the stochastic distributions of travel times at the level of each trip. Such data has historically been collected through floating traveller surveys, in which a person repeatedly conducts a trip at the same time over different days and records the time needed to complete it. This is expensive and labour-intensive, and limited the availability of travel time variability data to only a few origin-destination pairs and a few repeated observations. However, recent advances in big data collection and dissemination in public transport systems, such as through systems for automatic fare collection, automatic vehicle location and real-time trip planning, have overcome this scarcity and allowed for new measures of travel time variability to be developed and applied at a large scale (+ citation). In particular, Uniman et al (+ citation) have used fare collection data from London’s Oyster Card system to reveal the distribution of travel times for trips actually performed on the Underground network. On the basis of this, they define the Reliability Buffer Time (RBT) as a measure of travel time reliability. Simply put, the RBT is the difference between the 95th percentile of travel times (representing an unusually slow trip) and the median travel time (representing a typical trip), and reflects the extra time that a traveller needs to budget into her trip in order to be 95% certain that they will not arrive late on any given day.

This study aims to bring together the methodological innovations in the measurement of accessibility across different subsets of workers and jobs, and in the measurement of travel time reliability, to characterise different neighbourhoods in London by job accessibility, job and worker characteristics and travel time reliability. In the next section, I present the methodology of this study and the data sources I will use.

To assess the extent to which socially disadvantaged populations are more likely to experience poorer accessibility, many researchers use location-based measures of social deprivation, such as neighbourhood average income (Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018) or an index combining multiple dimensions of disadvantage at the local scale (El-Geneidy, et al., 2016; Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018). In the UK, the Department for Housing, Communities and Local Government (DHCLG) has developed the Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) (2015) to reflect the relative degree of social disadvantage experienced by residents in small areas across a wide range of domains, including income, employment, health, education, crime, housing and the living environment. In this study, I use the IMD data to capture the spatial distribution of deprivation, and I follow the DHCLG guidance to focus on the relative ranking of the areas by IMD index scores, rather than on the raw scores themselves.

**Study Design and Data Sources**

This analysis will focus on accessibility to jobs from home locations. Even though not all trips (even during peak hours) are commutes from homes to work, home-based work commutes are a primary driver of travel demand during peak periods, and thus significantly shape public transport investments that need to be scaled to handle peak demand. In addition, most of the opportunities that people seek (such as education, healthcare or shopping) also provide jobs, so accessibility to jobs will at least somewhat capture accessibility to opportunities in general (Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018, p. 56).

Location-based accessibility measures are attractive for their ease of calculation and interpretation. The simplest location-based measures report accessibility in terms of “cumulative potential” (Geurs & Wee, 2004, p. 133), summing up the total number of jobs that can be physically reached within a certain travel time. However, such measures treat accessibility to jobs as non-excludable; that is, the fact that a particular worker can access a job does not deprive any other workers of the ability to access the same job. To address this theoretical drawback, Shen (1998) first proposed certain adaptations to the measure, which were then further developed in the public health literature (Luo & Wang, 2003; Luo & Qi, 2009; Wang, 2012) as the two-stage floating catchment area approach. This measure expresses accessibility as a ratio of jobs per working-age resident who can reach them (i.e. are within their catchment areas), and is a function of 1) the spatial distribution of the job supply, 2) the spatial distribution of the working-age population, and 3) the connectivity between areas.

An important property of this measure is that it allocates every job exactly once to potential workers in an excludable way (i.e. if a job is allocated to a particular worker, that job is no longer available to other workers), so that there is no double-counting of workers or jobs (Shen, 1998, pp. 363-364). Thus, this ratio accounts for both connectivity and competition effects: as the number of jobs within an area’s catchment increases, the ratio will increase, but as the number of potential workers who can reach the same catchment (and thus compete for the same jobs) increases, the ratio will decrease. This property is especially useful for assessing whether the local supply of jobs is more or less than what is needed by the local demand, and methods to assess the degree of inequality in distributions such as Lorenz curves can be straightforwardly applied.

The two-stage floating catchment area method involves 3 components:

1. The spatial distribution of jobs, stored in a column vector O of length n

where oi is the number of jobs in one of the n areas i;

1. The spatial distribution of working-age residents, stored in a column vector P of length n

where pi is the number of working-age residents in one of the n areas i, and;

1. A n by n matrix C of weights

where ci,j is the cost (in this study, time) of travelling from area i to area j, and f(ci,j) is an function that decreases as ci,j increases. Thus, f(ci,j) indicates the ease of travel from i to j.

Then, the accessibility values, stored in a column vector R of length n, is given by

where gives the weighted sum of the number of clients within each area’s catchment, divides element-wise the number of jobs in each area among the weighted sum of working-age residents within its catchment, and is a weighted sum of the number of jobs provided by each area to each working-age resident within each area’s catchment. Because the resulting quantities in the matrix R can be interpreted as ratios allocating jobs within each area’s catchment to working-age residents in a mutually exclusive way, I will term these quantities Job Provision Ratios (JPRs).

The use of this method requires two choices. The first choice involves which spatial units to use for the analysis. Some studies divide the city in question into a grid of equally-sized squares, in order to minimise distortions in the travel cost calculations due to differences in size and shape between areas (Kotavaara, et al., 2012; Tenkanen, et al., 2016; Järv, et al., 2018; Wang, et al., 2018; Hu & Downs, 2019). However, aggregating spatial data to these squares requires very fine-grained data (which is unlikely to be publicly available) or additional modelling and assumptions to reproject available data to the squares, at the risk of distorting the data. To avoid this, I follow the majority of extant studies (Shen, 1998; Sanchez, 1999; Luo & Wang, 2003; El-Geneidy, et al., 2016; Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018; Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018) in dividing up my study area into pre-existing spatial units, specifically the 983 Middle-layer Super Output Areas (MSOAs) within the GLA boundary. These are spatial data reporting units created by the UK’s Office of National Statistics that break up the UK’s land mass into areas that contain between 5,000 and 15,000 residents or between 2,000 and 6,000 households, and allow my analysis to directly incorporate a wide range of UK government statistics that are spatially disaggregated to the MSOA level.

The second choice involves how to define the function . Many studies define to decrease smoothly as increases (such as by using power or exponential functions of ), resulting in a “gravity”-based measure where accessibility increases as the “mass” increases and the “distance” decreases (Shen, 1998; Sanchez, 1999; Kotavaara, et al., 2012; Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018; Hu & Downs, 2019). This more accurately reflects the tendency for people to prefer nearer locations with more opportunities to further locations with fewer opportunities. However, origin-destination flow data and additional modelling is needed to estimate the parameters for the functions, and the resulting raw accessibility values are scores that have no intrinsic meaning and can only be interpreted relative to other scores (El-Geneidy, et al., 2016, p. 304).

In contrast, I will follow Luo & Wang (2003), El-Geneidy et al (2016), Tenkanen et al (2016), Deboosere et al (2018) and Järv et al (2018) to use what Geurs and van Wee (2004) call a “contour” measure, in which:

where X is some travel cost cut-off. This is undoubtedly a distortion of reality, as it treats all locations where as if they were equally attractive and all locations where as if they were totally unattractive. However, the distortion is relatively easy to understand and does not require further assumptions and modelling, and it has the benefit of maintaining the raw accessibility values as simple counts and ratios that can be interpreted directly (Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018, p. 55). At any rate, El-Geneidy et al (2016, p. 303) found that contour and gravity-based measures are highly correlated and can be used interchangeably. For the purpose of this study, I will set X to 45min, following TfL’s (2018, p. 224) own analyses.

A key dataset required for this study is the inter-area travel cost matrix. Most extant studies obtain this by compiling a multimodal transport network dataset, incorporating network link speeds, transport service schedules or assumed service frequencies, implementing a routing algorithm, and then finding the shortest route or routes between every pair of areas and calculating the associated costs. See Ford et al (2015, pp. 129-130) for a step-by-step guide. A significant benefit of this approach is that researchers have full knowledge of the underlying network data and routing assumptions used to generate the travel costs. However, the approach requires an extensive data compilation and cleaning effort, is sensitive to the researchers’ choice of routing algorithm, and does not incorporate real-time data on transport service performance.

An alternative that has become feasible in recent years is to use automated fare collection data to construct the time needed to actually complete trips in the public transport network (+ citation). This data source is especially promising because it reflects the full distribution of actual travel behaviours in the transport network. However, two factors limit its effectiveness in the context of London. First, while TfL’s automated fare collection system captures the boarding location of all travellers paying by contactless fare media, the alighting locations of customers using buses are not recorded, and need to be imputed using modelling, which may introduce systematic distortions into the data. Second, the raw data is highly protected because it is possible to use it to identify individual travellers in the system, and recent studies using TfL’s automated fare collection data have had to rely on data that is many years out of date.

In contrast, I obtain inter-MSOA travel data from Transport for London’s (TfL’s) Journey Planner (2019). This is a data service that provides the public with guidance on how to travel between any two points in London by walking, cycling or motorised public transport like buses or trains (but not by car or taxi), including information on the fare, time, distance and route for up to 6 travel options. This allows me to obtain travel cost data without having to build my own transport network dataset for London, and the results reflect the network and routing assumptions actually used by TfL to assist real travellers in London. Also, crucially, the Journey Planner accounts for real-time disruptions on the transport network; for instance, if a certain rail line is shut down due to a fault, the Journey Planner will not provide options that require travel on that rail line. Thus, this data source is uniquely suited to provide information on travel time variability due to real-time fluctuations in transport service performance.

The methodological benefits of using the Journey Planner data are compelling enough to justify its use in this study, but this does impose some constraints on this study’s design. This is because the Journey Planner provides information only for trips that do not involve cars or taxis, and is most reliable for trips within the GLA boundary. As such, my analysis will concentrate only on areas within the GLA boundary and will exclude travel by car or taxi. Fortunately, TfL data (2018) show that only 37% of trips within the GLA in 2017 used cars or taxis, while 80% of trips within the GLA boundary were by GLA residents. Nonetheless, I recognise that my results will be distorted by the fact that they omit accessibility by car and taxi, and do not account for trans-boundary effects (that is, the competition effects of the job and labour pools provided by areas outside the GLA boundary).

TfL maintains an application processing interface (API) for the Journey Planner (Transport for London, 2019), which allows for the automated bulk download of travel option data up to a maximum of 300 queries per minute. I used the API to compile the following databases:

1. The travel options for trips from each MSOA’s population-weighted centroid to every MSOA’s job-weighted centroid ending at 0830 on 22 March 2019. This constitutes the “baseline” travel option data for all 966,289 origin-destination pairs for a typical weekday AM peak, assuming all services run as planned. Due to the API request limit, collection of this database occurred over 1 month.
2. The travel options for selected trips beginning between 0600 and 0800 over 50 weekdays between 29 January 2019 and 25 April 2019. This captures the “real-time” variability in travel options during the weekday AM peak. Because of the API request limit, I only gathered data on trips starting from all 983 MSOAs’ population-weighted centroids that end at the job-weighted centroids of 7 MSOAs that correspond to 7 key transport nodes evenly spaced across London, totalling 6,881 origin-destination pairs. See Appendix XX for details on how the 7 destinations were selected.

With the baseline database, the matrix C can be easily constructed, and JPRs and job accessibility analyses can proceed along the lines that are well-established in the literature. In addition, the real-time database allows this study to make an initial foray into analysing how travel time variability affects job accessibility. Ideally, the real-time database should contain the distribution of travel times for all origin-destination pairs over 50 days, which would then allow the matrix C and the resulting JPRs to be adjusted to account for travel time variability. Unfortunately, the API call limit makes this impossible. Nonetheless, it is possible to visualise how travel times to the 7 selected destinations vary across all 983 origins, as well as to analyse how different modes of transport contribute to travel time variability for these 6,881 origin-destination pairs. I will also analyse how the spatial distribution of social disadvantage coincides with job accessibility and travel time variability.

**Results**

*Distributions of Jobs, Working-Age Residents, Inter-MSOA Connectivity and IMD Ranks*

As conceptualised in this study, each area’s job accessibility is a function of 3 components: the spatial distributions of working-age population and jobs, and the connectivity provided by the public transport system. Figure XX visualises the first two components. It is clear that the distribution of jobs is extremely concentrated in the centre of the GLA area, where the City of London, Westminster and Southbank are located. However, there are also smaller concentrations of jobs around some stations in the GLA’s rail network (black lines in the figure, including National Rail, Underground, Overground and Docklands Light Railway networks), most notably at Canary Wharf. In contrast, the distribution of working-age residents is more even, with lower residential densities in the areas with the most jobs near the centre, higher densities in a ring around the central job-rich core, and decreasing densities as one moves away from the centre.

The third component, area-to-area connectivity, is captured in the matrix C. Each value of ci,j in C is the minimum time (out of all available options) it takes to travel between the population-weighted centroid of MSOA i and the job-weighted centroid of MSOA j during the AM peak using the baseline database. It is difficult to visualise the entire matrix in a meaningful way, but Figure XX visualises the travel times for all trips originating from the most populous MSOA: Stratford, MSOA ID E02000726, (i.e. the row vector ), with all areas within 45min travel time from Stratford (i.e. the areas where f(cE02000726,j) = 1) outlined in blue and a dot density map of the distribution of jobs superimposed. In the JPR calculations, each MSOA j within the blue boundary will contribute some of its jobs to each working-age resident in Stratford; exactly how much each MSOA j contributes to Stratford depends on how many other working-age residents live in areas where they can also reach each MSOA j within 45min.

The relative social deprivation of different MSOAs is also of interest. Figure XX shows the ranking of each MSOA by IMD scores, together with 3 raw indicators of social disadvantage, namely the modelled mean household income in 2015 (post-housing costs and equivalised for household size) (+ citation), the estimated proportion of households in poverty in 2014 (+ citation), and the unemployment rate among working-age residents in 2017 (+ citation). For all 4 maps, MSOAs are binned into deciles by the distributions of each indicator, with the lowest decile of MSOAs (corresponding to the highest deprivation) visualised in dark red and the highest decile (the least deprived MSOAs) in dark green. In general, the spatial distribution of IMD rankings correspond quite well to the distributions of the 3 raw indicators of social disadvantage, with a swath of more deprived MSOAs running north-south and another swath running east-west along the northern bank of the River Thames.

*Analysis of Job Provision Ratios*

Figures XX, XX and XX visualise the steps needed to calculate the matrix R containing the JPRs for each MSOA. First, Figure XX shows the number of working-age residents who can reach each MSOA j within 45min, which is the result of . A dot density map of the distribution of working-age residents is also superimposed. It is clearly evident that the public transport system heavily emphasises fast connections to the centre of the GLA area, with central areas being within 45min travel time of the most working-age residents, and the number of residents able to reach each MSOA j within 45min declining as one moves away from the centre. Nonetheless, areas near major rail interchanges towards the outskirts may still be reachable by many residents within 45min, as they benefit from better rail connectivity by virtue of being en route to the centre from points outside the GLA.

Figure XX shows the number of jobs in each MSOA j that is provided to each working-age resident who can reach it, which is the result of . A dot density map of the distribution of jobs is superimposed. This ratio increases as the number of jobs in each MSOA j increases but decreases as the number of working-age residents who can reach it increases. A clear ring pattern can be seen, as in the most centrally located MSOAs, the sheer volume of jobs available offsets the high number of working-age residents who can reach it, while a ring of MSOAs around the centre have few jobs but benefit from good connectivity from areas around the GLA (which spreads the limited jobs available more thinly across larger catchments), and the MSOAs near the outskirts have few jobs but also suffer from poor connectivity from other areas (so that the few jobs available are shared only within small, sparsely populated local catchments).

Finally, Figure XX displays the JPR for each MSOA i, which is the sum of all the jobs contributed per working-age resident from each MSOA j within reach. This is the result from . In order to interpret whether an MSOA’s JPR is high or low, we need to compare it to an ideal case in which jobs, workers and connectivity were all evenly distributed throughout the GLA area, which would result in all MSOAs having JPRs equal to , the ratio of the total number of jobs to the total number of working-age residents. The value of in the GLA area is 0.88 jobs per working-age resident. To express the extent to which JPRs deviate from , JPRs are binned into 5 classes: 0 to 50% of (thus the number of jobs allocated is far too low for the number of working-age residents), 50% to 80% of (jobs allocated are somewhat insufficient for the working-age residents), 80% to 125% of (jobs allocated are roughly equal to working-age residents, this is a balanced state), 125% to 200% of (jobs allocated somewhat exceed working-age residents), and more than 200% of (jobs allocated far exceed working-age residents).

From Figure XX, we can see that few MSOAs in the GLA area have balanced JPRs. MSOAs near the centre have too many jobs allocated per working-age resident, while many MSOAs around the outskirts have too few jobs per working-age resident. This is because jobs are mostly concentrated in the centre, while working-age residents are relatively evenly spread out across the GLA, and the public transport system heavily prioritises fast connections to the centre. A notable exception is the relatively more balanced JPRs in the west, where Heathrow Airport provides a significant number of jobs, and connections between Heathrow and areas in the west are relatively good.

Because the JPRs reflect a distribution of jobs among working-age residents in an excludable way, it is straightforward to construct a Lorenz curve for the distribution of jobs among working-age residents, by sorting the MSOAs in ascending order by JPRs. This neatly summarises the extent to which the job allocation is uneven. This Lorenz curve is in the inset of Figure XX. Because jobs are highly concentrated in the centre while working-age residents are relatively spread out throughout the GLA area, there is significant unevenness in the job allocation, with the bottom 50% of working-age residents in the more job-poor areas sharing only roughly 20% of the jobs, while the top 10% of working-age residents in the most job-rich areas share 20% of the jobs.

*Analysis of Job Provision by Sector*

The job distribution data disaggregates jobs by Standard Industrial Classification Codes (SICCs). This allows me to calculate JPRs by sector and analyse the extent to which accessibility to jobs varies by sector. First, I aggregate the SICCs to 6 overarching sectors:

1. Primary and Extractive
2. Industrial
3. Retail, Logistics, Food & Beverage and Hospitality (hereafter consumer services)
4. Finance, Insurance, Real Estate, Professional and Administrative Support (hereafter high-end services)
5. Public Sector
6. Others

The pie chart in Figure XX shows the proportion of all jobs in the GLA area that belong to each sector. The high-end services sector is the largest in the GLA area, followed by consumer services and the public sector. Figure XX plots the distribution of jobs in each sector as a dot density map. Industrial and consumer services jobs are the most evenly spread out across the GLA area, while public sector jobs are somewhat clustered around some rail interchanges. Unsurprisingly, high-end services jobs are the most concentrated in the centre and at Canary Wharf.

For each MSOA, I calculate JPR values using the job distribution for each sector and plot maps of the sector-specific JPRs in Figure XX. The top left panel of Figure XX reproduces the map in the bottom panel of Figure XX for reference. Each map uses the same binning convention as the top left panel, except that the values of are now sector-specific. From the maps, we can see that accessibility to industrial jobs is most evenly distributed, while accessibility to public sector and consumer services jobs are also relatively evenly distributed albeit with significant over-provision at the centre of the GLA area. In contrast, accessibility to high-end services jobs is most unevenly distributed, with large swaths of MSOAs in the south, east and north having almost no jobs from this sector allocated per working-age resident, while MSOAs in the centre are allocated between 200% and 360% as many high-end services jobs per working-age resident as the overall GLA average.

When we plot Lorenz curves of the sectoral job allocation to the working-age population (lower right panel of Figure XX), we can assess the extent to which the unevenness of the accessibility to jobs in each sector contributes to the unevenness in overall accessibility to jobs. The Lorenz curves for the industrial, consumer services and public sectors are closer to the diagonal than the curve for all jobs, but the curves for the high-end services and other sectors are below the curve for all jobs. This indicates that the distributions of the latter two sectors tends to make accessibility to jobs more uneven in the GLA area. In particular, because the high-end services sector is the largest in the GLA, the high concentration of jobs in this sector in the centre of the GLA area tends to drive the unevenness in the distribution of accessibility to jobs in the GLA area.

Finally, because JPRs allocate jobs in an excludable way, we can decompose each MSOA’s JPR sectorally and analyse the proportion of each MSOA’s overall JPR that is contributed by each sector. This indicates the extent to which each MSOA is reliant on each sector for its job allocation. Figure XX visualises these sectoral contribution proportions, with each map visualising each sector’s proportional contribution to each MSOA’s JPR using quintiles of the distribution of sectoral proportional contributions. Firstly, it is clear that jobs in the primary & extractive and others sectors never make up a significant proportion of any MSOA’s job allocation. Secondly, areas near the outskirts in the northwest, north and east are especially reliant on industrial jobs, areas near the outskirts in the north, east and west (particularly around Heathrow) are especially reliant on consumer services jobs, and two swaths along the northern boundary of the GLA area and south of the Thames are particularly reliant on public sector jobs. Finally, the most centrally located areas are disproportionately reliant on the high-end services sector.

*Identifying Socially Deprived Areas with Poor Job Provision*

As we have seen above, accessibility to jobs as measured by JPRs vary considerably across space and by job sector, with some locations having significantly fewer jobs allocated per working-age resident and/or higher reliance on certain sectors for their job allocations. When these disparities coincide with other dimensions of social deprivation, two types of problems may arise. Firstly, if more socially deprived areas have lower JPRs, this indicates that there are too few jobs within 45min travel time from more socially disadvantaged residents, and this may constrain their ability to find and secure employment and/or force them to endure longer commutes. Secondly, if more socially deprived areas are more reliant on certain sectors for jobs, then the more disadvantaged residents there may be more vulnerable to skills mismatch (if the sectors of the available jobs require qualifications or experience that more disadvantaged residents are less likely to have) or sectoral shocks to the labour market (since there are fewer jobs in alternative sectors available).

To identify locations where low JPRs, high sectoral reliance and high social deprivation coincide, I carry out k-means clustering on MSOAs’ overall JPRs, proportion of job allocation contributed by the industrial, consumer services, high-end services or public sectors, and IMD rank. The results for 7 clusters are presented in Figure XX. The upper left panel visualises the distribution of IMD ranks in each cluster. Clusters 4 and 5 are most deprived, Clusters 0, 1 and 2 are less deprived and Clusters 3 and 6 are least deprived.

The upper right panel visualises the distribution of JPR values per cluster. Among the most deprived clusters, Cluster 4 tends to have JPR values below , indicating that these areas tend to have insufficient jobs within reach of their residents. However, Cluster 5 tends to have JPR values above , indicating that there are plenty of jobs available for their residents. Of the less deprived clusters, Cluster 0 experiences the greatest shortages of jobs, while Cluster 1 has a large surplus of jobs. For the least deprived clusters, Cluster 3 suffers from job shortages while the job allocation per working-age resident in Cluster 6 tends to be more balanced.

The lower left panel of Figure XX displays the distribution of sector-specific contributions to JPR values per MSOA in each cluster. This sheds more light on the nature of the job allocation situation in the most disadvantaged clusters. While MSOAs in Cluster 4 (containing about 15% of all working-age residents) suffer from job shortages within 45min travel time, they tend to rely equally on the consumer services, high-end services and public sectors for their jobs; though there are too few jobs available, the available jobs exhibit sectoral diversity. On the other hand, while MSOAs in Cluster 5 (containing about 16% of all working-age residents) enjoy many jobs per working-age resident, more than half of these jobs tend to come from high-end services. This may indicate that disadvantaged residents in these MSOAs are more likely to face a skills mismatch (they may lack the skills needed for jobs in the high-end services sector, especially for the most well-paid positions) and are more vulnerable to sudden shocks to employment in this sector.

It is also worth highlighting the situations for two other less socially deprived clusters. Cluster 1 (with 16% of all working-age residents) has the largest overprovision of jobs per working-age resident, and MSOAs in this cluster tend to be more reliant on high-end services for their job provision. The residents in the MSOAs in this cluster may be more able to benefit from the plentiful amount of jobs in high-end services available, and the sheer number of jobs available to them may better insulate them from sectoral shocks in the labour market. Cluster 2 (with about 8% of all working-age residents), on the other hand, has relatively balanced job provision and is most reliant on consumer services jobs. This captures the proximity of the MSOAs in Cluster 2 to Heathrow and the ecosystem of jobs that it provides.

*Analysis of Variability in Travel Times*

In addition to collecting data on the options to travel between every pair of MSOAs assuming all services run as scheduled, I collected AM peak travel option data on trips starting from the population-weighted centroids of all MSOAs and ending at the job-weighted centroids of 7 strategically located destinations over 50 days in real time. Thus, for each of these 6881 origin-destination pairs, I obtained a distribution of 50 minimum travel times. From this data, I then calculate the width of the 90% highest probability density interval (hereafter the interval width) for each origin-destination pair. The interval width indicates how compact the distribution of observed travel times is for each origin-destination pair; for example, an interval width of 5min means that the 95th percentile observed travel time (for an unusually slow trip) is only 5min more than the 5th percentile (for an unusually fast trip), indicating that travel times between that origin-destination pair are relatively reliable.

Each panel in Figure XX plots the interval width of trips originating in each MSOA and terminating at one of the 7 destinations (outlined in red in each map). To facilitate comparison of interval widths between different destinations, all maps use the same binning scheme to visualise the interval widths. In general, we can see that areas that are within walking distance of each of the 7 destinations have the narrowest interval widths, indicating that walking tends to be a reliable travel mode. This makes sense, as the flexibility of walking means that routes are unlikely to be totally blocked, and even if a route is blocked, the high density of the walkable network means that travellers are likely to easily find comparable alternative routes. Areas that are connected to the destination by rail also tend to have narrower interval widths, indicating that rail travel is generally quite reliable. Areas that are not directly connected to a destination by rail and that are too far to walk tend to have wider intervals, even if they are relatively near the destination. Such areas tend to rely more on buses to connect to each destination, and this indicates that travel times by bus are less reliable. Also, trips originating from locations further from a destination tend to have wider intervals, as these trips cover greater distances and tend to involve more interchanging, and the probability that a journey will be disrupted en route increases with the journey length and the number of interchanges.

Also, we can see that trips ending in destinations north of the Thames, particularly in the City but also in Finsbury Park, Harrow-on-the-Hill and Hammersmith, tend to have less travel time variability. This may be due to the more grid-like rail network north of the Thames, which provides commuters with more alternative rail routes if a particular section of the rail network fails. In contrast, travel times to Lewisham and Streatham tend to be more variable, possibly reflecting the more tree-like structure of the rail network there, which provides less network resilience against failures along the lines leading to these destinations. Finally, for all destinations, we can see that trips originating from the southeastern quadrant of the GLA area tend to have more variable travel times. This probably reflects the effects of less reliable rail services run by Southeastern and Southern Railways (+ citation).

*Analysis of Variability of Travel Times and IMD Rank*

An important question to investigate is the extent to which areas that are burdened by high travel times and/or low travel time reliability are also more socially deprived. To do this, I carry out another K-means clustering analysis, considering each MSOA’s median observed travel time and interval width for trips to the City (the MSOA that contains the most jobs), the median observed travel time and interval width for trips to one of the 6 other destinations that is closest to each MSOA (to capture the extent to which each MSOA is well connected to its local neighbours), and its IMD rank.

Figure XX presents the characteristics of each cluster when 7 clusters are identified. Clusters 1, 4, 5 and 6 tend to have lower IMD ranks that reflect higher social deprivation. Among these, Cluster 5 (containing about 24% of all working-age residents) tends to have lower and less variable travel times to the City and to their local destination. MSOAs in this cluster tend to be more centrally located and to have direct access to the rail system. Cluster 6 (with 12% of the working-age population) tends to have higher but less variable travel times to the City and their local destination. These tend to also have direct access to the rail network, but are located further from the City than MSOAs in Cluster 5. Cluster 1 (with 10% of all working-age residents) tends to have more reliable travel times to their local destination but less reliable times to the City, even though they may be located quite near the centre, indicating that there are reliability problems with the radial connections from these areas to the City. On the other hand, Cluster 4 (containing 10% of the working-age population) tends to have more variable travel times to the City and their local destination. While MSOAs in this cluster may also be relatively centrally located, they tend to not have direct access to the rail system, or the rail lines that they can access do not run radially to the centre of the network. Thus, residents in these MSOAs may need to rely more on slower and less reliable buses or to make longer rail trips with more interchanges, both of which would make their journey times less reliable.

However, it is also important to note that MSOAs in clusters with higher IMD ranks (and thus lower social deprivation) also tend to have longer and more variable travel times to the City and the local centroid. In particular, MSOAs in Clusters 2 and 3 (together accounting for nearly a third of the working-age population) tend to be located near the outskirts of the GLA area. Residents in these areas may find public transport less useful and reliable for connecting to important destinations.

*Contributions to Travel Time Variability by Travel Mode*

As we have seen, the level of travel time variability differs across trips. But why do some trips have more variable travel times than others? Three factors have already been mentioned: the distance covered for each trip, (as the probability that a disruption occurs at any point along a trip probably increases with the length of the trip), the reliability of different travel modes (walking or rail seem to be more reliable than the bus), and location-specific factors (like the extent to which the local network is gridlike rather than treelike, or the operators that provide services in the area).

To investigate the factors shaping travel time variability across trips, I carry out a set of linear regression analyses on the 6881 trips, with trip-level interval widths as the dependent variable. In an initial model, I use the distance covered by each mode of transport for the fastest option from the baseline data as covariates – that is, I investigate how the interval width of the time needed to complete a trip is correlated with the distance travelled by each mode for the fastest option, assuming all services run as scheduled.

The results for this model are shown in Column 1 of Table XX. The statistically significant results indicate that in general, increasing distance travelled by any mode tends to increase interval widths, in line with the idea that longer trips are more vulnerable to disruptions. Individual coefficient estimates also indicate that for every additional kilometre travelled by National Rail, the interval width increases by 0.1min. This result is in line with the observations above that unreliability in the services operated by some rail companies could contribute to more variable travel times. Every additional kilometre travelled by Overground also increases the interval width by 0.1min. The Overground was conceived to take over the operation of some National Rail lines to increase service reliability (Greater London Authority, 2018), so this result is discouraging. However, buses are by far the most unreliable mode of public transport, as every additional kilometre travelled by bus increases the interval width by 1min. The results also indicate that every additional km walked increases the interval width by 0.7min. This contrasts with earlier indications that walking is a reliable mode of transport, but can reflect that trips that involve more interchanging also require more walking, and the coefficient for distance walked reflects the increased vulnerability of trips with more interchanges to disruptions en route.

Because all the MSOAs are connected to each other via the same transport network, there is likely to be a mutual correlation structure between the interval widths of different trips. For instance, two MSOAs that are located along the transport line can be expected to have similar interval widths for trips via that line, as both will be affected by any disruptions along that line. If the non-independence of the interval widths between trips is not accounted for, the correlation structures among different observations of the interval widths may distort the coefficient estimates for the covariates included in the model.

One way to deal with such correlations is to use a spatially autoregressive model, in which the value of the dependent variable in each area depends on the mean of the value of the dependent variable in its neighbours. This captures the idea that areas that are near each other tend to be similarly connected to the larger network of areas and thus should experience similar network-related effects. To implement this, I first obtain for each MSOA a vector of travel times to the 7 destinations from the baseline data, and then calculated the Euclidean distance between every pair of vectors. Then, for each MSOA, I identify the 3 other MSOAs where this Euclidean distance is minimised; these are the MSOAs whose travel times to the 7 destinations are the most similar to those of the MSOA in question, assuming all services run as scheduled. Then, for each trip originating from the MSOA in question and terminating at each of the 7 destinations, I calculate the mean of the interval widths for trips starting from the 3 neighbours and ending at the same destination.

Figure XX displays the interval width and corresponding local mean of the interval widths among the 3 nearest neighbours for each of the 6881 origin-destination pairs, and Column 2 in Table XX presents the results for this model. Because of the high correlation between the two quantities, including this local mean as a covariate in the linear regression model significantly improves the fit of the model. The local mean interval width also allows the model to better capture the correlation between the interval widths of MSOAs that arise due to their locations in the transport network. Specifically, as the local mean interval width increases by one minute, the interval width of the MSOA in question tends to increase by 0.6min. The inclusion of the local mean also reduces the confounding of the estimated coefficients for the other covariates due to network effects, reducing the magnitude of the estimates by about 40% for bus and 70% for National Rail and Overground. However, the coefficients still indicate that bus is the least reliable mode, followed by National Rail. Interestingly, the coefficient for distance walked is now no longer statistically significantly different from 0, indicating that the coefficient estimate for walking obtained from the previous model was indeed due to the network effects from trips involving more interchanges being more vulnerable to disruption. Finally, increasing travel by tram seems to decrease interval widths. In London, trams tend to run on segregated rights of way, and thus may not be as vulnerable to disruptions as buses or trams in other cities that run in mixed traffic. However, because trams only serve areas in southern London and run orbitally, they do not play a significant role in most residents’ commutes.

While the regression models in Table XX generate one global estimate for the correlation between distance travelled by each mode and interval width, we have seen signs that the mode-specific effect may vary across locations (recall that National Rail services seem particularly unreliable in the southeast). To investigate this, I use locally-weighted regression, which uses only the trips originating from the closest neighbours for each MSOA and ending in the 7 destinations to fit a linear regression model to generate one estimate for each coefficient for each MSOA. I define as neighbours the 30 MSOAs whose travel times to the 7 destinations are most similar to those of the MSOA in question (using the same Euclidean distance calculation as the derivation of the local mean interval width). Figure XX illustrates for Stratford, which MSOAs are included in the locally-weighted regression and which are further considered for calculating the local mean of the interval width. As the travel time vectors for each MSOA are unique, the local regression for each MSOA is very likely to use a subset of local neighbours that is unique to that MSOA, and this will thus yield a vector of coefficient estimates that is unique to each MSOA.

First, we examine some diagnostics of the locally weighted regression implementation. Figure XX maps out the adjusted R2 values for the locally fitted regression models. The median local adjusted R2 is 0.36, similar to the adjusted R2 of the model in Column 2 of Table XX, but the local adjusted R2 can vary from as low as 0.09 in the east to 0.77 near Pimlico. The local adjusted R2 tends to be higher near the centre where the rail network is densest, but are quite low towards the outskirts; this indicates that travel time variability in the outskirts is less correlated with distance travelled by mode than with other factors that have not been included in the model. Next, Figure XX maps out the p-values for each coefficient estimate for each MSOA. Dark blue areas are where the coefficient estimates obtained were not statistically significantly different from 0. Grey areas are where p-values are missing; this indicates that there was no estimate for the coefficient for that MSOA, because there was no variation in that covariate among the MSOAs considered in the local regression.

Column 3 in Table XX displays a summary of the distributions of the coefficient estimates for each covariate obtained from the locally weighted regression. The distributions of local estimates contains the global estimates from Column 2, but capture the variation in the mode-specific effects across space. Further, Figure XX maps out the coefficient estimates for each covariate and each MSOA. Green shades indicate that a mode contributes less to travel time variability in that MSOA, while red shades indicate that the mode contributes more to travel time variability. Grey MSOAs indicate where the coefficient estimates were not statistically significantly different from 0 or were not available.

At the local level, travel by Underground, tram and Docklands Light Railway tends to reduce interval widths, reinforcing the earlier finding that some rail-based modes are more reliable. In contrast, travel by bus does not reduce interval widths anywhere in the GLA area, although there are areas near the outskirts of the GLA area and in a western wedge where the contribution of distance travelled by bus to interval widths is relatively smaller. However, in a swath of MSOAs running from the northeast to the south, bus travel seems to contribute disproportionately more to travel time variability. This could reflect the effect of congestion on roads leading to the City.

The results for National Rail are also interesting. Firstly, as mentioned previously, travel by National Rail in the south and southeast seems to disproportionately contribute to travel time variability in those areas. However, travel on National Rail also seems to increase travel time variability more in the northwest and northeast. This could be because orbital rail connections from these areas are poor, and National Rail lines from these areas terminate outside the City of London (at stations like Paddington, Marylebone, Kings Cross, Moorgate and Liverpool Street). Thus, passengers travelling via National Rail from these areas to any of the 7 destinations probably need to interchange for onward travel via Underground, Overground or local bus services. This need to interchange may make these trips more vulnerable to disruption. Finally, although travel by National Rail does tend to increase travel time variability overall, there are isolated locations in the southwest and the north where National Rail is dependable enough to actually reduce interval widths.

The results for Overground travel indicate that the Overground is less reliable north of the Thames and more reliable in the south. This seems to make sense, as north of the Thames, Underground services are much more available and reliable, while south of the Thames, where Underground coverage is poorer, the Overground may be an effective and more reliable alternative to National Rail and bus services. For the new TfL Rail service, the western sector seems to be particularly unreliable.

Finally, while walking may not have a statistically significant effect on travel time variability at the global level, there are locations with significant local effects. In the north, northeast and southwest, increasing distance walked tends to increase travel time variability, probably reflecting that trips from these areas to the 7 destinations tend to require more interchanging. In the southeast, however, increasing walking decreases travel time variability; it seems that rail and bus services in these areas are so unreliable that trips involving more walking tend to have more reliable travel times.

*Reliability of Travel Modes and Social Deprivation Levels of MSOAs*

A final question to investigate is the extent to which areas where certain travel modes are particularly unreliable are also socially disadvantaged. Again, I carry out a K-means clustering analysis using the MSOA-level coefficient estimates from the locally weighted regression (considering only distance travelled by bus, National Rail, Underground and walking, as coefficient estimates for these covariates are available for all MSOAs) and the MSOA-level IMD rank. The results for 6 clusters are shown in Figure XX.

Cluster 5 (containing 2% of working-age residents) immediately stands out as the MSOAs where National Rail services are particularly unreliable, while bus, Underground or walking tend to be more reliable. These are areas with direct access to stations served by Southern and Southeastern Railways, which are known to have reliability issues. Clusters 2 and 3 tend to contain MSOAs with lower IMD ranks and thus higher social deprivation. The distributions of the coefficients for Underground and walking for these clusters indicate that they enjoy similar levels of reliability for these modes. However, buses and National Rail contribute more to travel time variability for Cluster 2. The areas in Cluster 2 (containing 15% of the working-age population and including Waterloo, Shoreditch, Rotherhithe, Greenwich, the Docklands, Stratford, the Royal Docks, Barking and Leytonstone) are where improvements to travel time reliability by bus and National Rail are likely to particularly benefit more socially disadvantaged residents. Finally, Clusters 0 and 4 tend to contain less deprived MSOAs, with MSOAs in Cluster 0 (with 21% of the working-age population) having less reliable National Rail services than those in Cluster 4.

**Discussion**

*Results in the Context of Extant Literature*

The analysis of job accessibility in the GLA area, as captured by MSOA JPRs, indicate that job accessibility is unevenly distributed across space, with locations nearer the centre and near major public transport network nodes having more jobs allocated per working-age resident and locations towards the outskirts and with poorer connections to the public transport network having too few jobs per working-age resident. Other studies of Boston (Shen, 1998), Montreal (El-Geneidy, et al., 2016), Santiago (Neihaus, et al., 2016), Bogota (Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018) and 11 major Canadian cities (Deboosere & El-Geneidy, 2018) also found similar patterns where job accessibility is highest where the public transport network is densest. This is an unsurprising finding, as the cost of building and operating public transport infrastructure means that connectivity cannot be evenly provided everywhere, and needs to be prioritised to connect to areas with the most destinations (usually job-rich city centres).

The analysis of how social deprivation intersects with differences in job accessibility reveals a more complex picture. Whereas in poorer cities, the most accessible areas tend to be home to richer households (Neihaus, et al., 2016; Guzman, et al., 2017; Guzman & Oviedo, 2018), there does not seem to be a similar systematic trend between high accessibility and low social deprivation in London. In contrast, many socially deprived areas are also centrally located, well connected to the public transport network and sufficiently provided with jobs per working-age resident. This is probably due to the historical development pattern in London, where large amounts of social housing were built near the centre in the postwar period, while richer households prefer to live in larger homes and less urban environments further from the centre. Nonetheless, there are pockets of socially deprived areas that also have poor job accessibility, similar to what El-Geneidy et al (2016) and Deboosere & El-Geneidy (2018) found for Canadian cities.

The analysis of each MSOA’s sectoral dependency for its job allocation gives some insight into some dimensions of job accessibility other than the spatial balance provided between the working-age population and the available jobs by the public transport network. In particular, it reveals where more socially deprived MSOAs may be particularly reliant on high-end service jobs, which could make them more vulnerable to a mismatch between the skills the workers have and those required by the available jobs, and to sectoral shocks in the labour market. This angle is not well explored by the extant studies, which mostly focus on accessibility to all jobs in general, mainly due to a scarcity of spatial job distribution data that disaggregates jobs by type. Nonetheless, Shen’s (1998) analysis of accessibility to jobs in manufacturing, administrative support, sales, services and agriculture sectors for low-income workers also reflected a similar concern that not all jobs that a worker can physically reach may actually be suitable for her.

As far as I am aware, there are no extant studies that incorporate travel time reliability into a job accessibility analysis. Nonetheless, I believe that the types of analysis of travel time reliability presented here can productively enhance our understanding of job accessibility. Firstly, we should recognise that the travel times used to calculate accessibility measures actually come from a distribution, which imply that the accessibility level for any given area should also form a distribution. If we focus on just a representative point estimate for each area’s accessibility level (such as the accessibility assuming that all services run as scheduled, or the average travel time for each origin-destination pair), then our analysis would overlook substantial actual variation, and would be unable to account for the real need to account for travel time fluctuations that faces urban commuters. Secondly, analysing travel time variability allows us to consider how improvements to reliability can enhance accessibility. Improvements to increase travel time reliability are likely to be less expensive and to entail less large-scale disruptions than investments to reduce overall travel times (which may require the construction of new rail lines or the purchase of more vehicles), and thus can provide a range of “low-hanging fruits” to deliver material improvements to commuters’ daily experiences in the short term.

*Recommendations for Urban Developments in the GLA*

Urban planning approaches that integrate land use and transport planning aim not only to facilitate the growth of population and opportunities in cities, but also to distribute that growth in such a way that people can easily connect with the opportunities they seek. In particular, the distribution of working-age residents, jobs and transport connectivity should be optimised to ensure that each resident is provided with sufficient job opportunities within easy access.

The results from this study can be helpful to this end. Firstly, the map of overall JPRs in Figure XX reveals locations where there are too few or too many jobs allocated per working-age resident. This can directly guide the distribution of future growth to shape the overall urban structure, with new housing supply being directed to locations with too many jobs per resident, and job growth being encouraged in areas with too few jobs per resident. Transport connectivity between areas with high JPRs and low JPRs can also be enhanced, to put more residents within reach of areas with job surpluses. This may be especially effective where adjacent areas have very different JPRs.

Secondly, the typologies of MSOAs derived from the K-means clustering analyses can be used to prioritise and customise interventions to benefit more disadvantaged areas first. For instance, referring to Figure XX, the more socially deprived and job-poor MSOAs in Cluster 4 could benefit from new public transport infrastructure to directly connect them to job-rich areas, whereas the more deprived MSOAs in Cluster 5 that experience high job provision but a high reliance on the high-end service sector may be suitable targets for skills development programmes. The K-means clustering results in Figure XX also reveal socially deprived locations where investments to improve transport service reliability can be targeted towards specific travel modes, particularly National Rail for MSOAs in Clusters 2 and 5 and bus for Cluster 2.

To a certain extent, these recommendations are in line with what the GLA already plans to do to improve transport connectivity and distribute growth more equitably throughout London. For instance, the upcoming Elizabeth Line is expected to greatly improve connectivity from the east and west of London to the centre, placing more workers within 45min travel time of the job-rich centre, and this should help to move the JPRs in areas along the route towards a more balanced state. A similar effect can be expected from the proposed Crossrail 2 project, which runs from the north through the Lea Valley to the southwest (+ citation), though arguably the leg north of the Thames should be prioritised as it would benefit more socially deprived areas that have insufficient job accessibility than the southern leg. The Mayor’s Transport Strategy (Greater London Authority, 2018) also calls for improvements to bus connectivity and reliability (pp.155-9), improvements to rail reliability south of the Thames (particularly through the conversion of National Rail services to Overground services through “metroisation”) (pp.180-1), and the encouragement of housing and job growth in areas with good connections by public transport (p.214). The findings from this study can add further justifications for pursuing these strategies.

Nonetheless, the findings can aid in prioritising areas for the implementation of these strategies. For instance, the Transport Strategy (2018) recommends encouraging job growth in four strategic transport interchanges, Lewisham, Stratford, Clapham Junction and Willesden Junction, to put more jobs within easy reach of workers. This is a sensible strategy, as these four locations are surrounded by areas with low JPRs (from Figure XX). However, Figure XX also shows that the number of working-age residents that can reach Lewisham within 45min travel is relatively low; this indicates that connectivity to Lewisham should be improved in tandem with the delivery of more jobs there.

*Recommendations for Further Research*

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