University of Padova

Department of Mathematics "Tullio Levi-Civita"

Master Thesis in Computer Science

An Algorithmic Approach to the 15-Minute City

Supervisor

Prof. Francesco Silvestri

University of Padova

Master Candidate

Marco Lam

Student ID

2072114

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Abstract

The 15-Minute City is an urban planning concept introduced in the last decade that promotes accessibility. It emphasizes that residents should be able to meet basic needs—such as groceries, education, healthcare, and leisure—within a 15-minute travel time from their homes. The concept aims to deliver environmental, social, and economic benefits by reducing reliance on automobiles, encouraging active transportation, and enhancing residents' quality of life through easy access to essential services and amenities. The concept has gained traction during the COVID-19 pandemic, which highlighted the significance of local services and amenities in urban settings.

The 15-Minute City concept has been explored across various research fields, including urban planning, transportation, and environmental science. Within the field of Computer Science, although methodologies have been developed for the topic, a generalised purpose algorithmic approach to identify a 15-Minute City is still lacking. Most existing studies are data-driven, focusing on specific cities with solutions that are often neither algorithmic nor generalised.

This thesis aims to develop a general, adaptive, and efficient algorithm to identify city areas that can be classified as a 15-Minute City. It examines several existing algorithms for graph data structures, such as Breadth-First Search, Dijkstra's algorithm, Johnson's algorithm, and their variations. The proposed 15-Minute City algorithm synthesises ideas and techniques from these algorithms to offer a comprehensive and efficient solution for determining 15-Minute City areas.

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1 Introduction

The 15-Minute City is an urban design concept that promotes accessibility to essential urban functions within a 15-minute travel from the homes of residents. The concept was first proposed by Moreno in 2016 as a solution to build safer, more resilient, sustainable and inclusive cities and to harmonise the notion of Smart Cities [1]. In 2021, Moreno et al. discussed the relationship between the concept of the "15-Minute City" to Urban Planning Pandemic Response, its Emerging Variations (i.e. 20 minute city [2]), walkable neighbour [3] smart cities.

The formal "15-Minute City Concept" proposed by Moreno et al. in 2016 argues that residents should be able to enjoy a higher quality of life where they will be able to effectively fulfil six essential urban social functions to sustain a decent urban life. These include

1. Living
2. Working
3. Commerce
4. Healthcare
5. Education
6. Entertainment

Later in 2021, the authors then proposed the "modified 15-Minute City" framework, depicting the four identified dimensions that could be incorporated with the already existing one proposed.

1. Density
2. Proximity
3. Diversity
4. Digitisation

Since COVID-19 pandemic, this topic has gained a tremendous amount of attention and has growth exponential in popularity [4, 5] among various research fields in literature, especially in urban design research [4]. The concept of the 15-Minute City has been studied and shown that it brings benefits to the society including environmental, social, and economical impacts [5]. Although the 15 minutes threshold has attracted the most attention, the notion of the *t*-Minute City has also been considered [1]. Some examples are the 20-Minute City in Tempe, Arizona [2], the 30-Minute City in Sydney, Australia [6] and Olivari et al. studied 5 to 60 Minute City in Ferrara, Italy [7].

Most 15-Minute City studies in literature have employed data-driven approaches, these studies focus on a specific city or location and their methodologies are therefore only applicable to the specific location of interest. For example, Weng et al. [3] and Olivari et al.[7] relied on census data on population density for their respective studies which may not be available for some countries and regions. The choice of amenities to be included in the 15-Minute City is subjective and varies from one study to another. There is also a lack of research on the complexities and computational challenges of implementing the 15-Minute City concept in practice.

In 2023, Lima and Costa noted that computational approaches to 15-Minute City design presents significant challenges such as "data availability and quality", "computational cost" and "adaptability" [4]. In this thesis, we aim to address the latter two challenges mentioned by Lima et al. [4]. We propose an algorithmic approach to the 15-Minute City concept that is general, adaptable and efficient. The algorithm developed will be implemented in Rust programming language, we will show that it satisfies the latter two challenges by Lima et al. by evaluating its performance through a number of case studies and applying the algorithm to a series of cities in Europe of different sizes. Finally, we will also compare the "15-Minute City" generated by the proposed algorithm to some existing solutions in literature.

The structure of the thesis is the following: in Chapter 2, we will introduce the graph data structure and any relevant existing graph search algorithms. Chapter 3 will discuss a series of existing research on the 15-Minute City. In Chapter 4, we will formally define our problem statement for the thesis, the proposed solutions will be discussed and analysed in Chapter 5. The proposed solution will then be implemented in Chapter 6, where we will apply the algorithm to a number of European cities including Padua, Chapter 7 will cover any discussions and observations we have made from the case studies.

2
Preliminary

We begin by defining the graph data structure and exploring several well-known graph search algorithms, which will be used or adapted throughout this thesis.

2.1 Graphs

Graph is a mathematical data structure in Graph Theory representing pairwise relationships between objects. The earliest scientific paper related to graphs was the "Seven Bridges of Königsberg" by Leonhard Euler published in the 18^{th} century. The "Seven Bridges of Königsberg" was proven to have no solution to the problem of crossing each of the seven bridges exactly once and returning to the starting point. Euler represented the problem by a graph, where the land masses were represented by vertices and the bridges were represented by edges.

In general, a graph can be defined as $G(V, E)$, where V is the set of vertices and $E \subseteq V \times V$ is the set of edges. The edges can be directed or undirected, and weighted or unweighted. Labels can also be assigned to the vertices and edges, which can be used to represent additional information about the graph. For example, in "Seven Bridges of Königsberg", the vertices could be labelled with the names of the islands/areas and the edges could be labelled with the names of bridges. Furthermore, the edges could be weighted with the length of the bridges.

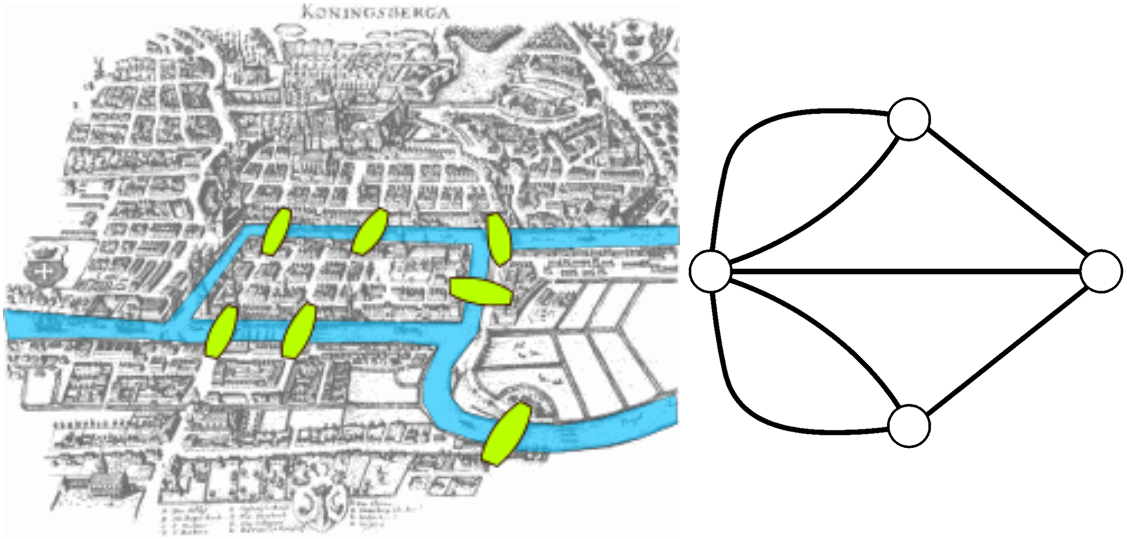


Figure 2.1: Konigsberg Bridges and its graph representation

2.2 Graph Search Algorithms

In this section, we will discuss 3 types of graph search algorithms, the graph traversal problem, minimum spanning tree and the shortest path problem. The graph traversal problem is a problem of visiting all the nodes in a graph, while the shortest path problem is a problem of finding the shortest path between two nodes in a graph. The algorithms discussed in this section are fundamental graph algorithms and we will discuss their characteristics, properties.

2.2.1 Graph Traversal Problem

The Graph Traversal Problem is a problem of visiting all the nodes in a graph. There are two types of graph traversal algorithms, Breadth-First Search (BFS) and Depth-First Search (DFS). Both algorithms can be used to search for connected components of a graph and search for cycles, and have complexity $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$.

Breadth-first Search (BFS)

Breadth-first Search algorithm is a single-source graph search algorithm for graphs containing unweighted, undirected edges. The algorithm searches the graph from the source node level by level, that means the algorithm will search all nodes adjacent to the source node, before moving on to searching all nodes adjacent to these nodes. The visited nodes will be marked so

that the algorithm will not be stuck in a cycle. An example of an application of this algorithm is maze solving, where it can be used to find the shortest path through a maze from the source node (i.e. entrance/exit).

Depth-First Search (DFS)

Depth-First Search algorithm is another popular single-source graph search algorithm for graphs with unweighted, undirected edges. Depth-First Search starts from the source node, travels along one of its edges and visits the adjacent node, the algorithm then repeats the process to this adjacent node and so on. Once the algorithm gets to the final node (i.e. there are no edges connected to this node where the adjacent node has not been visited), the algorithm travels to the previous level and checks if that node has an alternate adjacent node through a different edge. This process is then repeated until all nodes have been visited which can be reached to from our source node. Similar to Breadth-first Search algorithm, this algorithm can be used to detect connected components of a graph and search for cycles.

2.2.2 Minimum Spanning Tree

Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) is a Graph Theory problem of finding a tree that connects all the nodes in a graph with the least possible total edge weight and without any cycles. There are several algorithms that can be used to solve the minimum spanning tree problem, such as Prim's algorithm and Kruskal's algorithm. These algorithms can be used to find the minimum spanning tree in a weighted, undirected graph.

Prim's Algorithm

Prim's algorithm is used for finding the MST within a weighted, undirected graph. Prim's algorithm starts from the source node, it keeps a record of the nodes it has selected. It repeatedly searches for the edge with the smallest weight that connects a node from the selected set of node and another node outside of this set. Prim's algorithm is a greedy algorithm and an example of an application is used in network design problems to find the minimum cost to connect all nodes in a network. The complexity of Prim's algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(|E| + |V| \log |V|)$.

Kruskal's Algorithm

Kruskal's algorithm is similar to Prim algorithm that it is a greedy algorithm which finds a MST in a weighted, undirected graph. The algorithm finds and records the minimum

weighted edge, and selects the 2 nodes connected by the edge. It then searches and records for the next smallest weighted edge and the nodes connected by it. The algorithm repeats the process until all nodes have been selected and the edges recorded form the minimum spanning tree. Kruskal's algorithm can be used in clustering problems where the objective is to group similar items together while minimising the total dissimilarity. It has a complexity of $\mathcal{O}(|E| \log |V|)$.

2.2.3 Shortest Path Problem

The Shortest Path Problem is a problem of finding the shortest path between a pair of nodes in a graph. There are several algorithms that can be used to solve the shortest path problem, such as Dijkstra's algorithm, Bellman-Ford algorithm, Floyd-Warshall algorithm, and Johnson's algorithm. These algorithms can be used to find the shortest path in a graph with weighted edges. Two applications for these algorithms would be network routing to find the shortest paths in computer networks and GPS navigation to find the shortest route between two locations.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra's algorithm finds the shortest path from a single source node to all other nodes in a non-negative, weighted graph. It begins from the source node, in every iteration, Dijkstra's algorithm considers all of the current node's neighbours and update their tentative distances through the current node. If this distance is smaller than the previously assigned distance then update the assigned distance to the new one. The current node is then marked as visited and its tentative distance is then fixed. The algorithm then repeat the same steps on each of the neighbour nodes in the ascending order of their temporary tentative distances, until all nodes in the graph have been visited. Dijkstra's algorithm has a complexity of $\mathcal{O}((|V| + |E|) \log |V|)$.

Uniform Cost Search

Uniform Cost Search is a variant of Dijkstra's algorithm which finds the shortest path from a single source node to all other nodes in a non-negative graph. The main difference is that while Dijkstra's algorithm initialises the priority queue with the distance of the source node to 0 and all other nodes to ∞ within the graph, Uniform Cost Search initialises these only when they are needed. This has a benefit of reducing the space complexity of the algorithm,

especially in a large graph. The time complexity of Uniform Cost Search is however, the same as Dijkstra's Algorithm at $\mathcal{O}((|V| + |E|) \log |V|)$.

Bellman-Ford Algorithm

Bellman-Ford algorithm is another algorithm which finds the shortest path from a single source node to all other nodes in a graph with negative edge weights and no negative weights cycles. The algorithm relaxes the edges in the graph by updating the distance of the destination node if the distance of any possible source node plus the weight of the edge is less than the current distance of the destination node. The algorithm then repeats the process for all edges in the graph until no more updates can be made. The algorithm then checks for negative cycles in the graph by relaxing the edges one more time. The complexity of Bellman-Ford algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(|V||E|)$.

Floyd-Warshall's Algorithm

Floyd-Warshall's algorithm finds the shortest path from every node in a graph to every other nodes. The algorithm works by considering all possible paths between two nodes and updating the shortest path if a shorter path is found. The algorithm then repeats the process for all pairs of nodes in the graph. The algorithm is able to handle negative edge weights and negative cycles in the graph. The complexity of Floyd-Warshall's algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(|V|^3)$.

Johnson's Algorithm

Johnson's algorithm is similar to Floyd-Warshall's algorithm that it finds the shortest path from every node in a graph to every other nodes with negative edge weights. The algorithm works by first adding a new node to the graph and connecting it to all other nodes with an edge weight of 0. The algorithm then runs the Bellman-Ford algorithm on this new graph to find the shortest path from the new node to all other nodes. The algorithm then reweighs the edges in the graph to remove the negative edge weights. The algorithm then runs Dijkstra's algorithm on the reweighed graph to find the shortest path from the source node to all other nodes. This algorithm utilises the benefits of both Bellman-Ford and Dijkstra's algorithm to find the shortest paths in a graph with negative edge weights. The complexity of Johnson's algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(|V||E| + |V|^2 \log |V|)$. Hence, Johnson's algorithm is more efficient than Floyd-Warshall's algorithm in a sparse graph, where the number of edges is less than the number of nodes squared.

3

Review of literature

As mentioned in the Introduction, the 15-Minute City concept has been well-studied in a variety of research fields, especially since the 2021 global pandemic. In this section, a selected number of previous studies related to the 15-Minute City concept will be discussed. These works will be grouped according to their methodologies and approaches, which include graph representation, grid tessellation, flow data, Walk Score, and other related studies.

Table 3.1 provides a short description of these different methodologies in determining the "15-Minute City" concept, as well as the references to the papers which we will cover in the remaining of this chapter. Each of these papers will be studied and discussed in detail in their respective sections in the sections below. In the final section of this chapter, we will also cover studies conducted in other research areas and the general concept of the 15-Minute City.

3.1 Graph Representation

A graph in the context of Graph Theory, it contains a set of vertices (nodes) and a set of edges that connect pairs of vertices. In the settings of city planning, a map can be represented as a graph where the vertices are the discrete locations, such as an interaction, an address etc. The edges can be used to represent the streets, with a weight which could be the length of the particular street, or any relevant measures. The graph representation is a common approach to model and visualise the urban environment and it can be useful to find the 15-Minute City.

Table 3.1: Summary of relevant previous works

Approach	Paper	Description
Graph Representation	[8], [9], [10]	Maps represented by graphs as a mathematical structure
Grid Tessellation	[11], [7], [12]	Maps divided according to various shapes and 15-MC calculations are applied to each area independently
Flow Data	[13], [6]	Use foot travel data to incorporate human mobility patterns
Walk Score	[14], [3]	Proprietary methodology based on sets of specific factors

3.1.1 Graph Representation of the 15-Minute City: A Comparison between Rome, London, and Paris

Barbieri et al. defined the general *t*-Minute City (hereafter *t*-MC) on an urban graph with respect to a given set of services [8]. The urban graph is represented by a planer graph $G(V, E)$, where an urban graph is a connected graph can be drawn without any edges crossing.

In this urban graph, the nodes of G are the intersections of the roads, and the lengths of the edges are proportional to the travel time with a coefficient, which is the speed of the pedestrians. Services $f \in V$ are then placed by adding an extra node to the graph, or label the nearest junction with the service.

Given a list of N_i services of type i, $(C_1^i, C_2^i, ..., C_{N_i}^i)$ are the nodes that reach f^i in less than 15 minutes. The set of vertices that form a 15-MC with respect to services of type i is given by the union of all these vertices

$$C^i = \bigcup_{j=1}^{N_i} C_j^i \subseteq V$$

If services f_p, f_q of the same type are far enough, it is possible that $C_p \cap C_q = \emptyset$. The authors noted that these "gaps" can be recognised as "the places where it is necessary to intervene to reconnect". Then for K types of services, the set of the 15-minute vertices is

$$C = \bigcap_{i=1}^{K} C^i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{K} \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{N_i} C_j^i \right) \subseteq V$$

Finally, the authors define G_C as the graph induced on G by the vertices C, such that the 15-MC graph is the subgraph G_C of the urban graph G. To formalise, let the service matrix $\mathbf{s}$ contains all service types of interest and their locations, then the set C depends on the travel time t, the service matrix $\mathbf{s}$, and the travel speed v, the graph of the 15-MC can be defined as

$$G_C = G_C(C, E_C; t, \mathbf{s}, v) \subseteq G$$

A metric/ratio $\gamma(r, x_0; t, \mathbf{s}, v)$ was also defined as a function of the radius r with respect to a given origin x_0, which can be used to characterise the 15-MC and compare different cities or areas of the same city, where

$$\gamma(r, x_0; t, \mathbf{s}, v) \equiv |C(r, x_0; t, \mathbf{s}, v)|/|E|$$

A possible generalisation of the index was then suggested which takes into account the properties or weights $w(e), e \in E$ of each edge, such as the length of the path, the population density or the slope of the streets

$$\gamma = \frac{\sum_{c \in C} w(c)}{\sum_{e \in E} w(e)}$$

If $w(\cdot)$ is the population density, the edges of the parks and archaeological area have $w = 0$, and the index γ is not biased.

The authors then applied the model to the cities of Rome, Paris, and London, they claimed to have used a "shortest path search algorithm" for graph search [15] to calculate for f^i for service types pharmacies, post offices and supermarkets.

This paper transforms map data into planar graphs, the algorithm starts from services rather than address, this reduces computational complexity due to the fact that there are less services than overall locations in a map. The authors referenced an article about Dijkstra algorithm for graph search algorithm but their implementation was not mentioned.

3.1.2 Exploring the 15-minute neighbourhoods

According to the authors (Caselli et al.), "in the proposed study, the 15-Minute City theme is addressed with an analytical model designed and developed using GIS to assess existing conditions of accessibility to neighbourhood services for all the resident social groups." [9]

The GIS-model is implemented by improving and integrating a Territorial Information system (managed with ArcGIS software). Extracting the pedestrian paths feature class to gen-

erate a link-node graph with all walking routes available. The model also considers that users "might choose to walk along road margins or cross in the proximity of road intersections."

The paper studied the area covered that can be travelled to "neighbour cores" within 15 minutes by the following calculation:

$$\text{Length}(km)/(3km/h \times 60min) + \text{DF}(min)$$

where DF is the delay factor at crossings, with DF $=$ 20 seconds for non-signalised crossings and 40 seconds for signalised.

The authors applied the calculations to the Cittadella District in Parma, Italy. They then compared this area with its population distribution to study the proportion of population covered by the 15-Minute City.

The authors did not explicitly define the neighbour cores, only by "urban nodes well served by necessities shops and services, such as supermarkets, grocery stores, bars, drugstores, and banks." However, using such nodes to calculate for 15-Minute City contributes to faster running time. The actual 15-Minute City search approach was not mentioned, and population data may not be a widely available data source for a generalised solution.

3.1.3 The inclusive 15-Minute City: Walkability analysis with sidewalk networks

The paper proposed a framework for assessing multi-factor walkability on a sidewalk network model [10]. The sidewalk network model is defined as a graph where the nodes are intersections or crosswalks, the edges have 3 types: sidewalks, crosswalks, and pedestrian-only paths and 4 attributes: length, width, slope, and pedestrian hazard. The pedestrian-only paths includes pedestrianised streets, living streets, and paths through parks and plazas. Pedestrian hazard is a metric to describe how dangerous each sidewalk segment by using a fine-grained map of estimated pedestrian safety in Barcelona [16] and by exploiting Deep Learning tools. The resulting network is denser than the road network (approximately 4 to 1 in both nodes and edges). Each node of the graph has also been assigned a population according to census data.

This network is then simplified by a percolation analysis according to the sidewalks' properties (i.e., width, slope, or hazard). The authors then noted that an average, 1260 metres can be travelled in 15 minutes at a walking speed of 1.4 m/s, in accordance with literature [17]. Using government data, the authors selected a list of services.

To find such a set of links, the authors extended the classic Dijkstra algorithm to

1. explore all nodes within the threshold time from a single source, and
2. record all edges that can be traversed within the threshold, not only the ones that form part of a shortest path.

The implementation of the proposed solution was written in Python, using the igraph library [18]. The authors then studied the impact of population size of the largest and second largest connected component of Barcelona's sidewalk networks by changing the parameters of percolation analysis.

This model takes hazard as a factor. The percolation analysis is a main focus of the study. The Supplementary notes included the modification of Dijkstra algorithm. However, population data and the list of services originated from government data, which could be a limitation.

3.2 Grid Tessellation

Grid Tessellation methods divide the map into a grid of "cells", where each cell is considered as a separate area. This method is useful to divide the map into smaller areas and calculate the 15-Minute City for each area independently. This method could be useful to reduce computational complexity and to study the 15-Minute City in a more granular level.

3.2.1 Urban accessibility in a 15-Minute City a measure in the city of Naples, Italy

The authors (Gaglione et al.) in this paper proposed a 4 steps methodology through a GIS environment to define the areas accessible in 15 minutes within a given location [11].

1. With a systemic approach, 17 variables have been identified by
    - The characteristics of the population.
    - The characteristics of urban fabrics, in particular their shape.
    - The physical characteristics relating to safety, amenities and pleasantness of the pedestrian. network.

2. The relationships among different groups of characteristics were identified through a (Pearson) correlation analysis to remove some variables.

3. Relating the demand (users) to the supply (local urban services). The authors used a proximity analysis by calculating the Euclidean distances from the centroids of the census sections to the related closer local urban services, then study how users can move along the pedestrian network by labelling 13 characteristics on each pedestrian path. The authors noted that the urban areas accessible in 15 minutes are defined "on the basis of the travel times defined on each link of the pedestrian network and the distribution and location of all the local services examined."

4. The population density is then compared with the 15-minute accessible areas. Individual age groups are also studied in this context.

The authors then explored the effect of choosing different grid size, shapes etc. in terms of the results of the minute city. In this paper, the authors did not specifically state the walking speeds used by each age group and by the whole population for the model. This paper once again uses the population distribution to study the proportion of population covered by the 15-Minute City. The authors did not mention the algorithm used to calculate the 15-Minute City.

3.2.2 Are Italian cities already 15-minute?

Olivari et al. proposed a data-driven approach solution by defining the NExt proXimity Index (NEXI), which exploits the data to answer the question: "Which parts of your city or town already follow the 15-minute model?" [7]

A list of service categories is selected, including Education, Entertainment, Grocery, Health, Post Office, Banks, Parks, Restaurants, Cafes, Bars and Shops. The nodes of the road network are the intersection points of the network geometries and the points of interest are the geographical location of the various services. For each node the algorithm computes the time needed to reach at an average walking speed, to the closest point of interest of any given category, being constrained to move only on roads accessible to pedestrians. More specifically, the time needed to reach the points of interest is computed as $t = l/s$, where:

- l is the length of the shortest route to the PoI (Point of Interest), on a road network made only of walkable roads,
- s is the approximate walking speed of an average person, that is 5 km/h.

If all categories can be reached within 15 minutes, the node is then considered to be a 15-minute node. Using a 5 km/h speed, the maximum reachable distance in 15 minutes is 1250 metres. "if the average time to reach all the categories from the nodes in that area is lower or equal to 15 minutes".

The algorithm computes the level of proximity of a given area as the mean of the levels of proximity of the nodes inside that area. Therefore, an area is 15-minute if the average time to reach all the categories from the nodes in that area is lower or equal to 15 minutes. The authors used hexagons with a diameter of 250 metres as the smallest resolution unit.

In this paper, 3 NEXI indices are proposed by the authors:

1. The NEXI-Minutes assigns to each category for each area a value of time which is the average time to reach each category.
2. The NEXI-Global takes inspiration from the Walk Score methodology, measuring the global proximity to all service categories on a scale that goes from $0 - 100$, where 0 means that none of the categories is at least within a 30-minute walk, while 100 means that all categories are within a 15-minute walk and all values in between describe an intermediate situation.
3. A discomfort index which takes population into account, where

$$\text{Discomfort} = (100 - \text{Global}) \times \text{Population}$$

The approach deployed in this paper is data-driven, it can be considered as a Grid Tessellation method built on top of a graph representation method, as the authors first calculated travel times from each node of the graph to each service category, then applied Grid Tessellation to calculate for each NEXI scores. The paper uses population census data and the graph search algorithm is not mentioned.

3.2.3 Travel-time in a grid: modelling movement dynamics in the "minute city"

Pezzica et al. claimed to "provide initial insights and recommendations for developing more robust 15-Minute City models" and emphasised "the importance of technical modelling steps in determining the mapping outputs which support the assessments of 15-minute cities" [12]. In the paper, the authors experimented on evaluating grid-based methods and identified four noteworthy variables:

1. Grid tessellation choices
2. Software application pick
3. Speed selection for travel-time calculations
4. Classification rules' adoption for mapping urban functions against mapped amenities

The authors emphasised that the lack of standardised modelling protocols in grid-based *t*-Minute City assessments can lead to inconsistent planning decisions, which can hinder synchronic comparisons and foster the formulation of exclusive policies and inconsistent planning decisions. Hence, it is crucial to undertake concerted efforts towards standardisation, including by bridging the gap between the planning practice and software development communities, to effectively address the existing challenges in *t*-Minute City modelling and representation. This entails establishing shared modelling protocols, algorithms (across various software applications), and standardised data inputs. All these can substantially enhance the consistency and reliability of grid-based *t*-Minute City assessments focused on travel-time estimates. Ultimately, advancing research, fostering collaboration, and promoting knowledge sharing, can elevate the quality of evidence generated through spatial analysis, leading to better-informed decisions in *t*-Minute City planning.

3.3 Flow Data

3.3.1 Towards a 15-minute city: A network-based evaluation framework.

In the context of 15-Minute City, it is suggested that the allocation of facilities should account for how people access and use local service and amenities rather than merely considering population size [19].

The authors in this paper proposed a methodological framework for evaluating 15-Minute City based on network science approaches. The paper proposes a network-based approach to evaluating 15-Minute City [13]. This approach differs from mostly used accessibility measurements by accounting for human mobility patterns.

The network-based evaluation framework contains 3 parts:

1. Optimal mobility network is estimated based on the spatial distribution of urban amenities and population using a maximum flow algorithm.

2. The actual origin-destination network is obtained using mobile phone signalling data.
3. The differences between actual origin-destination network and the optimal network are measured to provide insights on the extent to which human mobility patterns, as a reflection on the usage patterns of urban amenities, match or do not match the schemes of urban planning and construction.

The authors then applied the framework model to a case study in Nanjing, China. This paper relies on data which may not be available in all cities, including population census data and mobile phone signalling data.

3.3.2 Measuring polycentricity via network flows, spatial interaction and percolation

This paper studied polycentricity based on inflow and outflow trip data and considered 3 network-based centricity metrics [6], including

1. Trip-based centricity Index
2. Density-based centricity Index
3. Accessibility-based centricity index

In particular, accessibility-based centricity index computes the total number of jobs available and the number of workers available within a time threshold from a location. The time threshold was set to 30 minutes in the study to align with the polycentricity-inspired masterplan proposed by The Greater Sydney Commission (GSC) in 2018 which applies to the Sydney-GMR (Sydney Greater Metropolitan Region), noting that "access to jobs, goods and services is provided to the community in three largely self-contained regions."

3.4 Walk Score

3.4.1 Walk Score

Walk Score is a proprietary measure of how walkable a location is based on the distance and availability of nearby amenities, such as grocery stores, restaurants, schools, parks, etc. The higher the Walk Score, the more walkable the location is.

According to the Walk Score methodology [14], for each address, hundreds of walking routes to nearby amenities are analysed. Points are awarded based on the distance to amenities in each category. Amenities within a 5 minute walk (0.25 miles, about 0.4 kilometres) are given maximum points. A decay function is used to give points to more distant amenities, with no points given after a 30 minute walk. Walk Score also measures pedestrian friendliness by analysing population density and road metrics such as block length and intersection density. Walk Score utilises data sources include Google, Factual, Great Schools, Open Street Map, the U.S. Census, Localise, and places added by the user community.

The Walk Score calculation can be summarised into 4 steps

1. Assigning raw weights for selected amenities
2. Calculating distances from each location (community, data from government) to the selected amenities
3. Computing the total scores based on the distances and modifying the scores according to decay factors (e.g. street intersections and block length)
4. Normalising scores to $0 - 100$

Walk Score ranges from 0 to 100, with the following descriptions:

- $90 - 100$: Walker's Paradise. Daily errands do not require a car.
- $70 - 89$: Very Walkable. Most errands can be accomplished on foot.
- $50 - 69$: Somewhat Walkable. Some errands can be accomplished on foot.
- $25 - 49$: Car-Dependent. Most errands require a car.
- $0 - 24$: Car-Dependent. Almost all errands require a car.

Although the Walk Score algorithm is not open source, it is interesting to note that it considers walking distance between 5 to 30 minutes. Its calculation has been validated [20].

3.4.2 The 15-Minute Walkable Neighbourhoods: Measurement, Social Inequalities and Implications for Building Healthy Communities in Urban China

In this paper, Weng et al. noted some of the limitations of the Walk Score calculation [3], such as

1. It targets at overall population and the walking demands of different pedestrian groups have not been included in the assessment.
2. The decay effect of amenity varies greatly among population groups and categories of amenities.
3. Actual traffic situation has not been considered when calculating distances based on Euclidean distance.

The authors proposed a modified method to measure 15-minute walkable neighbourhoods based on the Walk Score metric, taking into account pedestrians' characteristics and amenity attributes (scale and category). 6 categories of amenities were studied in the city of Shanghai, China, including education, medical care, municipal administration, finance and telecommunication, commercial services, and elderly care. A questionnaire was conducted to 132 respondents to conclude the parameters considered in the metric. A decay factor was also used to account for different age groups etc in terms of walking speed. The map data of Shanghai was captured from Baidu Map. This paper did not discuss any algorithms used and modification on the Walk Score calculation is heavily based on a questionnaire of a small sample size.

3.5 Other work

3.5.1 A Grammar-Based Optimisation Approach for Designing Urban Fabrics and Locating Amenities for 15-Minute Cities

This paper uses a geometric grammar based approach to explore computation to support decision-making concerning the layout of urban fabrics and the location of amenities in a neighbourhood [21]. The authors (Lima et al.) used an inductive method for qualitative content analysis. However, the authors noted that this solution "does not address irregular or non-orthogonal urban block patterns, and the influence of nearby amenities located outside the studied fabric was not considered."

3.5.2 The Quest for Proximity: A Systematic Review of Computational Approaches towards 15-Minute Cities

Lima and Costa developed a comprehensive overview of the use of computational tools to support the analysis and design of 15-Minute Cities using a systematic literature review [4].

They noted that the topic of the 15-Minute City has growth exponentially in popularity and especially in the field of urban design. They concluded that computational approaches to 15-minute city design presents significant challenges such as "Data availability and quality", "Computational cost" and "Adaptability".

3.5.3 The 15-minute city: Urban planning and design efforts toward creating sustainable neighbourhoods

Khavarian-Garmsir et al. collected 103 documents, dealing with underlying principles, sustainability advantages, and critics of the 15-Minute City concept [22]. The authors defined 7 dimensions which constitute the 15-Minute City:

1. Proximity
2. Density
3. Diversity
4. Digitisation
5. Human scale urban design
6. Flexibility
7. Connectivity

The authors summarised the sustainability contributions in social, economical and environmental aspects in the society by 15-Minute City and also the barrier of implementations.

3.5.4 The Theoretical, Practical, and Technological Foundations of the 15-Minute City Model: Proximity and Its Environmental, Social and Economic Benefits for Sustainability

15-Minute City has four main cornerstones (proximity, diversity, density, and digitisation). The authors in this paper (Allam et al.) explored the proximity dimensions of the 15-Minute City and how it could influence mixed land use to yield environmental, social, and economic benefits [5].

3.5.5 Urban Transition and the Return of Neighbourhood Planning. Questioning the Proximity Syndrome and the 15-Minute City

Marchigiani and Bonfantini developed an evidence-based approach to a deeper analysis of policy design and implementation of the 15-Minute City [23]. They concluded that the implementation and effectiveness of the 15-Minute City depend on the concrete and contextual conformation of each city. The authors ended the paper stating that city development "needs some design framework and structure capable of addressing transformations, and their space and time location and sequences" on top of the "15 minute device" and that "it needs a syntax for an urban planning course of action that is incremental and adaptive but not limited to the contingent, blurred, and agnostic appeal of a catchy label."

4

Problem Statement

In the previous chapter (3), several studies have discussed the needs for standardisation in the methodology used in the 15-Minute City. In particular, Pezzica et al. argued that "the absence of standardised modelling protocols imposes significant limitations on the application of Minute City models, hinders synchronic comparisons, and can indirectly foster the formulation of exclusive policies and inconsistent planning decisions" [12]. Lima and Costa also noted that "introducing computational approaches to 15-Minute City design presents significant challenges and potential bottlenecks. On the other hand, exploring these challenges as opportunities for inserting new research is also possible since the theme is rising", some of these challenges are "data availability and quality", "computational cost" and "adaptability" [4]. Furthermore, Marchigiani et al. found that the approach to 15-Minute City needs to be changed and adapted to each location case by case [23].

A number of other literature studies discussed in Chapter 3 have mentioned the use of a graph search algorithms to find the 15-Minute City or the travelling time from the source location of interest. Notably, Caselli et al. (Section 3.1.2, [9]) defined 15-Minute City from the "neighbour cores" and Rhoads et al. (Section 3.1.3, [10]) used a modified Dijkstra's algorithm to compute a 15-Minute City on side-walk networks with a walkability analysis. The grid tessellation approaches used by Gaglione et al. (Section 3.2.1, [11]) and Olivari et al. (Section 3.2.2, [7]) also searched for travelling time in a spatial space.

With these in mind, the aim of this thesis is to develop a general, adaptable algorithm to identify the 15-Minute City, where a person can travel to all their essential needs within 15

minutes from their home. Graph Theory is a well-established field and there exist many efficient graph search algorithms. In this thesis, we will develop an algorithm by adapting various techniques from existing algorithms, along with inspirations from a number of approaches explored in literature which we discussed in the previous chapter (3).

The solution proposed in this thesis should be able to support different types of graphs and service locations. The designed algorithm will focus on the "computational cost" and "adaptability" challenges listed by Lima and Costa [4]. The algorithm should allow for an arbitrary set of service types. The edge weights in the graph use time unit, as this promotes the freedom for the users to incorporate different characterise to the roads which could affect the travelling time, such as the the street width, slope, mode of transportation, or the safeness of travelling through a particular street. Therefore, the solution to the problem stated in this section can be considered as an adaption or a modification to the existing approaches to the 15-Minute City problem, specifically with an improvement of the computational efficiency in mind.

Formally, the algorithm to the 15-Minute City problem should satisfy the following properties.

Inputs

1. A graph $G(V, E)$ representing the area of which t-Minute City is computed. V is the set of vertices representing locations within the area, and E is the set of weighted, undirected edges such that $E \subseteq V \times V$ and the weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_+$ of the edges are proportional to the time required to travel along the corresponding edge, in minutes.
2. For every vertex $v \in V$, v contains the label $v.l \in \{0,1\}^p$, where $v.l[i]$ represents the availability of service type i of the location.
3. A time threshold t in minutes.

Output

A set of vertices $R \subseteq V$ which can reach to at least one location of each service type within t minutes. i.e. denote $d(v, w)$ as the shortest path distance between v and w, and $v.r[i] \in \{0,1\}^p$ as a binary vector indicating whether v can reach a location of service type i within t minutes, such that

$$v.r[i] = 1 \iff \exists w \in V,\ \ w.l[i] = 1 : d(v, w) \leq t$$

then, we have

$$\forall v \in R, \quad v.r = 1$$

In this setting, a location $v \in V$ in this graph could be a location of an amenity of interest, or a road junction, such that $v.l \in \{0\}^p$. More specifically, given a list of services of p distinct types and their locations, each location can be inserted into the graph by

- Labelling the closest node in the graph by the service type, or
- Adding a vertex to V along an existing edge in E, in such a way that the distance from the vertex to the nearest road junction is minimised.

4.1 Graph Search Algorithms to the 15-Minute City

In Chapter 2, we have discussed the graph data structure and the algorithms that could potentially assist in solving the 15-Minute City problem. It can be seen that the Minimum Spanning Tree problem is not directly applicable to the 15-Minute City problem, as the problem is not about connecting all the nodes in a graph with the least possible total edge weight. As for the Graph Traversal algorithms BFS and DFS, these algorithm are designed for unweighted graphs which are not enough for us to represent city maps.

The All-Source-Shortest-Path algorithms such as Floyd-Warshall's algorithm and Johnson's algorithm are not suitable for the 15-Minute City problem either, as it is unnecessary to find the shortest path between every pair of nodes in the graph, while 15-Minute City problem is about finding the reachable essential needs within 15 minutes from residence. This leaves us with the Single-Source-Shortest-Path algorithms such as Dijkstra's algorithm, and Bellman-Ford algorithm. While Bellman-Ford algorithm has an advantage of supporting negative edge weights, it is not useful for our problem as the edge weights in our graph use time unit and therefore, non-negative. Finally, Dijkstra's algorithm and Uniform Cost Search are the most suitable algorithms for the 15-Minute City problem. Therefore, our proposed solution will be based on Dijkstra's algorithm and Uniform Cost Search.

5 Proposed Solutions

5.1 Dijkstra's Algorithm

During the development of the 15-Minute City algorithm, a number of approaches were considered which were unfeasible in the end. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 4, All-Source-Shortest-Path algorithms such as Floyd-Warshall's algorithm are not best suited to our problem as it is unnecessary to search from all nodes in the graph. However, another approach to the All-Source-Shortest-Path problem is simply to run Dijkstra's algorithm repeatedly from each node.

Taking inspiration from the approach used by Barbieri et al. ([8], 3.1.1), the 15-Minute City algorithm will use the modified Dijkstra's algorithm to find the 15-Minute City with the service locations of each service type as the source nodes, rather than searching from every vertex in the graph. This approach is expected to be more efficient as the number of service locations is expected to be far smaller than the number of vertices in the graph, i.e. $S \subset V \Rightarrow |S| < |V|$. Therefore, the first solution proposed in this thesis is a modified version of Dijkstra's algorithm, adapting the methodologies used by Pezzica et al. [24], which incorporate the Dijkstra's algorithm with a (Minimum) Priority Queue data structure. The data structure maintains a dynamic set Q of elements, each set element in Q has a key and it supports the following dynamic-set operations.

- INSERT(Q; x; k): inserts element x with key k into set Q.

- MINIMUM(Q): returns element of Q with smallest key.
- EXTRACT-MIN(Q): removes and returns element of Q with smallest key.
- DECREASE-KEY(Q; x; k): decreases value of element x's key to k. Assuming $k \leq x$'s current key value.

All operations take $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ time in an n-element heap with the exception of MINIMUM(Q) being $\Theta(1)$.

We extend the algorithm so that the algorithm will stop once all nodes within t minutes have been visited. For each node considered in the algorithm, a new label $v.d$ is created where $v.d \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ representing the distance from the current source node of the algorithm, initialised to ∞.

As the 15-Minute City concept is primarily used to study cities' characteristics, the input graph of the algorithm is expected to be far larger than a single "15-Minute City". Therefore, it is necessary to stop the algorithm once all nodes within t minutes have been visited to prevent the algorithm from running indefinitely. The modified algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.1.

The modified Dijkstra's algorithm shown above only searches for vertices within t minutes from a single source node. For our context of the 15-Minute City, this needs to run for each location of each service type. The 15-Minute City algorithm as the solution of the problem is shown in Algorithm 5.2.

5.1.1 Analysis

The time complexity of the modified Dijkstra's algorithm depends on the following:

- Initialisation: $\mathcal{O}(|V|)$
- INSERT: $|V| \cdot O(|\text{INSERT}|) = O(|V| \cdot |\text{INSERT}|)$
- EXTRACT-MIN: $|V| \cdot O(|\text{EXTRACT-MIN}|) = O(|V| \cdot |\text{EXTRACT-MIN}|)$
- DECREASE-KEY: $|E| \cdot O(|\text{DECREASE-KEY}|) = O(|E| \cdot |\text{DECREASE-KEY}|)$

The time complexity of the algorithm is also affected by the data structure used to implement the priority queue. A binary heap is a common choice for implementing a priority queue, which has a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(\log |V|)$ for INSERT, EXTRACT-MIN and

Algorithm 5.1 Modified Dijkstra's Algorithm

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, source vertex s,
time threshold t and i denotes the index of the service type

Output: Assign $v.r[i] = 1$ for vertices that can reach to source node s within threshold t

```
for each vertex v ∈ V do
    v.d ← ∞
end for
s.d ← 0
Q ← ∅
for each vertex v ∈ V do
    INSERT(Q, v)
end for
while Q ≠ ∅ do
    v ←EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
    if v.d > t then
        Q ← ∅
    else
        v.r[i] ← 1
        for each vertex u ∈ Adj[v] do
            if u.d > v.d + w(u, v) then
                u.d ← v.d + w(u, v)
                DECREASE-KEY(Q, u, u.d)
            end if
        end for
    end if
end while
```

Algorithm 5.2 15-Minute City Algorithm

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, a time threshold t and a list S of service vertices of p types

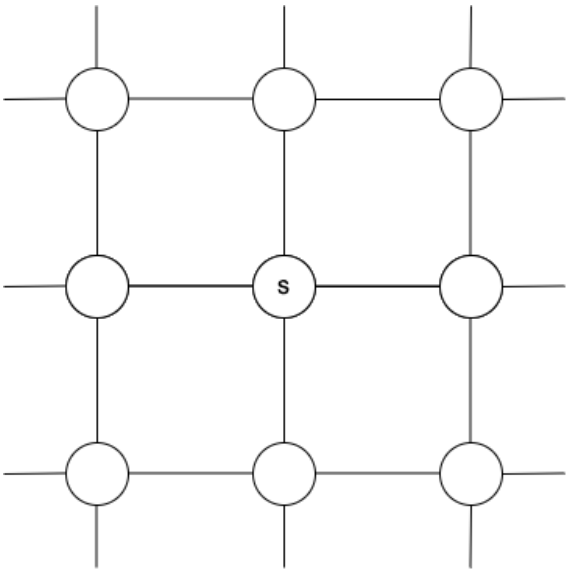
Output: Set $R \subseteq V$ representing the t-Minute City

```
for all vertex v ∈ V do
    v.r ← {0}^p
    v.l ← {0}^p
end for
for all service v ∈ S do
    v.l[i] ← 1 for each service type i which belongs to vertex v
end for
for each service type i ∈ {1, ..., p} do
    for each vertex s where s.l[i] = 1 do
        Modified_Dijkstra(G, w, s, t, i)
    end for
end for
R ← ∅
for each vertex v ∈ V do
    if v.r = 1 then
        R ← R ∪ {v}
    end if
end for
```

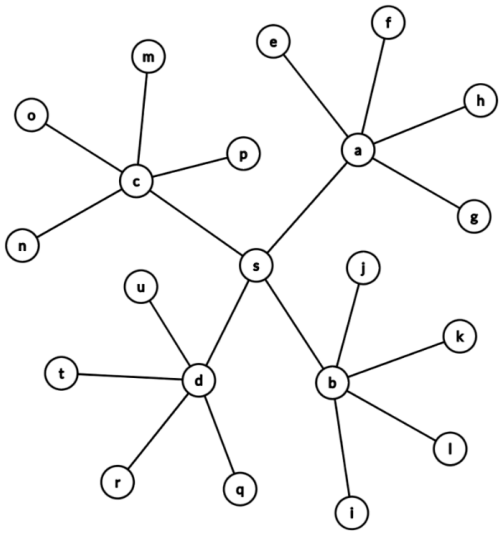
DECREASE-KEY operations. However, if a Fibonacci heap is used instead, the time complexity of the operations is reduced to $\Theta(1)$, $\mathcal{O}(\log |V|)$ and $\Theta(1)$ respectively.

As the latter two operations in the algorithm dominates the former two operations, the time complexity of algorithm 5.1 is $\mathcal{O}((|V| + |E|) \log |V|)$ if a binary heap is implemented. This can be reduced to $\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$ if a Fibonacci heap is considered instead.

For the complete 15-Minute City Algorithm 5.2, the algorithm is run for each location of each service type. Denote q as the maximum number of locations for any service type, the time complexity of the algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(p \cdot q \cdot (|V| \log |V| + |E|))$ if a binary heap is implemented and $\mathcal{O}(p \cdot q \cdot (|V| \log |V| + |E|))$ if a Fibonacci heap is implemented. In both cases, the time complexity consider the size of the entire graph, which could be arbitrarily large when a city or a large area is studied. Due to the fact that the modified Dijkstra's algorithm stops once all nodes within weight t are searched, it is important to note that the actual complexity of the algorithm could be potentially much smaller.



(a) Example of a grid city



(b) Example of a tree city at 2 levels

As for the complexity of the algorithm as a whole, we need to consider 2 cases: the first is a general case where we assume the size of the graph is larger than the size of the subgraph that is the 15-Minute City. The second case is the case where the entire graph is classified as the 15-Minute City. In the second case, the complexity of the algorithm is then lower than the complexity of the first case.

1. Cases where the city is larger than the "15-Minute City"

Example Consider a city with only square grids and each edge has a weight of 1 (figure 5.1a). The algorithm will effectively search a total of 1,024 edges and 545 nodes for $t = 15$, as these are the number of nodes and edges that is possible to be traversed in 15 steps. In general, for a grid city (where each node has a degree of 4) given a time threshold t, the number of nodes and edges searched by the modified Dijkstra's algorithm can be calculated as follows:

$$|\text{Edges}| = (2 \cdot (t+1))^2$$
$$|\text{Vertices}| = 1 + 2 \cdot (t+1) \cdot (t+2)$$

This structure of a grid-like city can be applicable to cities such as New York and Barcelona.

Generalisation However, if the graph of interest has the following characteristics:

- Starting from the source node s.
- Every node has d successors with d edges of weight 1.

An illustration of the graph with 2 levels and $d = 4$ are shown in figure 5.1b. In this arrangement, given a time threshold t and d the number of nodes branching out from each parent node, the number of nodes and edges need to be visited are as follows:

$$|\text{Edges}| = \sum_{l=1}^{t+1} d^l = d \cdot \left(\frac{1 - d^{t+1}}{1 - d} \right)$$
$$|\text{Vertices}| = 1 + |\text{Edges}|$$

For example, setting $t = 15$ and $d = 4$, the graph will have $|E| = 5,726,623,060$ and $|V| = 5,726,623,061$.

By limiting the maximum degree for each node in the graph, this graph structure can be considered as the worst case in time complexity for the algorithm with the maximum possible degree of $d + 1$ with time threshold t. Fixing the degree of the nodes, any other arrangement of the graph (such as a clique) will have an equal or smaller time complexity, as the number of nodes visited will be smaller, and the number of edges unchanged. The time complexity of the modified Dijkstra's algorithm is then:

$$\mathcal{O}(|V|) = O(\sum_{l=1}^{t+1} d^l) = O(d^{t+1})$$

$$\mathcal{O}(|E|) = O(1 + \sum_{l=1}^{t+1} d^l) = O(d^{t+1})$$

and

$$\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|) = O(d^{t+1} \log d^{t+1} + d^{t+1}) = O(d^{t+1} \log d^{t+1})$$

Therefore, the time complexity of the 15-Minute City algorithm on this graph is:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot q \cdot d^{t+1} \log d^{t+1}\right)$$

To generalise this notation to edge weights other than 1, define ε as the minimum edge weight in the graph. Then the algorithm can travel at most $\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor$ edges in t minutes. Therefore, the time complexity of the algorithm can be expressed as:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot q \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} \log d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}\right)$$

The space complexity of Dijkstra's algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(|V| + |E|)$. In the modified version of this algorithm, this is simply $\mathcal{O}(d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} + d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}) = O(d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor})$. Therefore, the space complexity of the 15-Minute City algorithm on this graph is:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot q \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}\right)$$

2. Cases where the city is smaller than the "15-Minute City"

In this case, the city is smaller than the 15-Minute City, the algorithm will search all nodes in the graph. The time and space complexity of the algorithm are simply just

$$\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|) \text{ and } \mathcal{O}(|V| + |E|)$$

Therefore, the 15-Minute City algorithm in this case is then

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot q \cdot (|V| \log |V| + |E|)\right) \text{ and } \mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot q \cdot (|V| + |E|)\right)$$

as the modified Dijkstra's algorithm will be run $p \cdot q$ repetitions.

5.2 Uniform Cost Search Adaption

For the space complexity of the proposed algorithm above, it is important to note that the modification algorithm of Dijkstra's algorithm inserts all $|V|$ vertices of the graph into the priority queue set Q, this is repeated for each service location of each type. Therefore, the space complexity would be $\mathcal{O}(p \cdot q \cdot |V|)$. Hence the algorithm proposed may not be suitable for large graphs for space complexity.

The problem described here can be solved by adapting a technique from the "Uniform Cost Search" algorithm. The algorithm is an extension of Best-first search, it is similar to Dijkstra's algorithm, as well as some of the modification to Dijkstra's algorithm we proposed above. However, Uniform Cost Search algorithm does not insert all vertices into the priority queue. Instead, it only inserts the vertices that are reachable within the time threshold t. A modification of this algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.3. This algorithm can then be used in Algorithm 5.2 to replace the modified Dijkstra's algorithm in 5.1.

5.2.1 Analysis

In this implementation, the algorithm is more efficient in practice as it only inserts vertices that are reachable within the time threshold t into the priority queue. However, in the worst case, both time complexity and space complexity remain unchanged.

5.3 Inspiration from Johnson's algorithm

Johnson's algorithm uses both Dijkstra and Bellman-Ford as subroutines and performs better than Floyd-Warshall algorithm in sparse graphs. For the goal of the 15-Minute City algorithm, the set of service vertices can be far smaller than the entire graph in size. Thus, all-pairs shortest path algorithms are not optimal solutions to the problem. However, Johnson's algorithm's approach in connecting multiple nodes with a newly inserted node and 0 weight can be applied to the 15-Minute City problem.

This approach can be applied to the 15-Minute City problem by adding a new vertex s to the graph and adding edges from the new vertex to all service vertices of the same type. This allows us to eliminate the inner loop of Algorithm 5.2 where Modified_Dijkstra(G, w, s, t, i) is called. This alternate approach of the 15-Minute City algorithm is shown in Algorithm 5.4.

Algorithm 5.3 Modified Dijkstra's Algorithm 2

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, source vertex s,
time threshold t and i denotes the index of the service type

Output: Assign $v.r[i] = 1$ for vertices that can reach to source node s within threshold t

```
Q ← ∅
INSERT(Q, s)
while Q ≠ ∅ do
    v ←EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
    if v.d > t then
        Q ← ∅
    else
        v.r[i] ← 1
        for each vertex u ∈ Adj[v] do
            if u ∉ Q then
                u.d ← v.d + w(u, v)
                INSERT(Q, u)
            else if u.d > v.d + w(u, v) then
                u.d ← v.d + w(u, v)
                DECREASE-KEY(Q, u, u.d)
            end if
        end for
    end if
end while
```

Algorithm 5.4 15-Minute City Algorithm 2

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, a time threshold t and a list S of service vertices of p types

Output: Set $R \subseteq V$ representing the t-Minute City

```
for all vertex v ∈ V do
    v.r ← {0}^p
    v.l ← {0}^p
end for
for all service v ∈ S do
    v.l[i] ← 1 for each service type i which belongs to vertex v
end for
for each service type i ∈ {1, ..., p} do
    Create a new vertex s
    Add edges from s to all vertices v where v.l[i] = 1 and w(s, v) ← 0
    Modified_Dijkstra_2(G, w, s, t, i)
    Remove s and all edges connected to it
end for
R ← ∅
for each vertex v ∈ V do
    if v.r = 1 then
        R ← R ∪ {v}
    end if
end for
```

5.3.1 Analysis

For each service type, the proposed approach increases the number of vertices by 1 and the number of edges by the number of service vertices of the same type. Denote q_w as the maximum number of vertices of the same service type, then for each service type, Algorithm 5.3 is run, where the algorithm starts from the newly inserted vertex s, it visits at most q_w vertices and continues its search as before. The time complexity of the Modified_Dijkstra_2 algorithm is then:

$$\mathcal{O}(q_w \cdot (d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} \log d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor})) = O(d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} \log d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor})$$

and space complexity:

$$\mathcal{O}(q_w \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}) = O(d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor})$$

which are the same as before.

However, the time and space complexity of the 15-Minute City algorithm are now:

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} \log d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}\right) \text{ and } O\left(p \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}\right)$$

respectively, which are smaller by an order of q_w compared to the previous algorithm.

As for the case where the 15-Minute City is found to be the entire graph, the time and space complexity of the algorithm are now

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot (|V| \log |V| + |E|)\right) \text{ and } \mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot (|V| + |E|)\right)$$

as the algorithm is run p times in repetitions instead of $p \cdot q$ times in our first proposed algorithm.

5.4 Adaption to existing papers

The intuition of our algorithm was inspired by solution approached by Barbieri et al. [8] which we have discussed in Chapter 3.1.1, where we focus on graph searching from services and that we define the 15-Minute City as an interaction of the sets of vertices that can reach to each service type within t minutes, it is easy to see that we can adapt our algorithm into the mathematical notations used by Barbieri et al. In particular, Barbieri et al. denoted

$$C^i = \bigcup_{j=1}^{N_i} C_j^i$$

as the nodes that can be reached by f^i, where f^i is the set of locations of service type i. It is immediately to see the the sets C^i for each service type i, is equivalent to the sets of nodes where $v.r[i] = 1$. Furthermore, the 15-Minute City C defined by the authors

$$C = \bigcap_{i=1}^{K} C^i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{K} \bigcup_{j=1}^{N_i} C_j^i \subseteq V$$

is equivalent to our algorithm's output set R. Our proposed algorithm focuses on efficiency and computational cost while the approach by Barbieri et al. did not mention the methodology used in calculating the 15-Minute distance. Moreover, Barbieri et al. proposed to use a planar graph. However, it is not clear if a planar graph would be able to represent bridges/tunnels etc effectively, as the definition of a planar graph is that it can be drawn on the plane in such a way that its edges intersect only at their endpoints.

Our algorithm can also be adapted to a number of existing papers which we discussed in Chapter 3, as most of the work referenced the process of calculating the "15 minutes" distance without explicitly laying out the steps taken or methodology used, similar to the paper by Barbieri et al. Notably, Caselli et al. (Section 3.1.2, [9]) defined the "neighbour cores" within Parma, Italy and determined the 15-Minute City from these locations. Our algorithm can be adapted to search from these "neighbour cores" instead of service locations.

While Rhoads et al. (Section 3.1.3, [10]) used a modified Dijkstra's (Egohood) algorithm to compute a 15-Minute City on side-walk networks with a walkability analysis, their work was more focusing on the effect of the percolation analysis on the 15-Minute City (or Egohood by their definition). Their algorithm can be found in the supplementary materials and it is show in Algorithm 5.5, it is interesting to note that the priority queue used in the Egohood is implemented differently to our Modified Dijkstra's algorithm 5.3. It is not clear how their priority queue works as the algorithm is not inserting new nodes in the first iteration of the loop.

If there is a typo in the algorithm, where the most inner if statement is actually

$$u \notin Q \text{ and } u.d > v.d + w(u, v)$$

The algorithm is not updating the distance of the vertex u if it is already in the priority

Algorithm 5.5 Egohood Algorithm

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, source vertex s, time threshold t
Output: A set G_s containing edges that can be travelled by s within t minutes

```
G_s ← ∅
s.d ← 0
for each vertex v ∈ V \ {s} do
    v.d ← ∞
end for
Q ← ∅
INSERT(Q, s)
while Q ≠ ∅ do
    v ←EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
    for each vertex u ∈ Adj[v] do
        if v.d + w(u, v) ≤ t then
            G_s ← G_s ∪ {(u, v)}
            if u ∈ Q and u.d > v.d + w(u, v) then
                u.d ← v.d + w(u, v)
                INSERT(Q, u)
            end if
        end if
    end for
end while
```

queue Q. However, with this problem fixed, the Egohood algorithm is rather similar to our Modified Dijkstra's algorithm 5.3.

Lastly, the grid tessellation approaches used by Gaglione et al. (Section 3.2.1, [11]) and Olivari et al. (Section 3.2.2, [7]) also involve calculating travelling time between nodes. In particular, the NEXI indices which Olivari et al. have defined requires to search for travlling times between nodes and services as one would in the Graph Representation approach. Thus, our algorithm can be adapted to search for travelling time in such an approach with grid tessellation as well.

6

Implementation & Experiments

In this chapter, we will discuss the implementation of our proposed algorithm in practice. Recall that we aim to solve the challenges of "computational cost" and "adaptability" [4] to the 15-Minute City problem with an algorithmic approach, it is important that the algorithm is implemented in a low-level language to promote efficiency in our experiments. The codes used in this chapter are available on the Github repository at www.github.com/marcohoucheng/Algorithmic-Approach-to-15-Minute-City/.

6.1 Implementation

Rust is a low-level programming language which has gained significant popularity in the field of Computer Science in recent years. It is a statically typed language to promote safety and concurrency. Rust achieves these goals by using a unique ownership model to manage memory allocation and deallocation at compile time, preventing common errors such as null pointer dereferencing and data races. This makes Rust an attractive choice for programming where performance and reliability are critical.

In our implementation of the algorithm, we opted to build the algorithm with the minimum amount of non-official crates (packages for Rust). With this in mind, we have used the `petgraph` and the `ordered_float` crates: `petgraph` [25] supports an undirected graph data structure `UnGraphMap` while `ordered_float::NotNan` [26] is a necessary extension to the priority queue as the standard library's Binary Heap implementation only supports Inte-

ger ordering as according to 754-2008 - IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic [27]. It is important to note that while Fibonacci Heap has been used in our solution, we have opted to use a built in Binary Heap in our code, it is due to the fact that there is a lack of suitable implementation of Fibonacci Heaps in Rust.

The implementation of our code takes 2 csv files in inputs, nodes.csv and edges.csv. nodes.csv contains the nodes identifier in the graph, along with a label field for the type of the service the node contains, or it can be empty. edges.csv contains the source, target and weight for every edge in our graph. Precisely, the node identifier fields id, source, and target should be represented by integers, which is u64 in Rust, where u stands for "unsigned". Furthermore, label should be a string or empty, and weight should be of type float, or f64. The table 6.1 shows a summary of the data types for each input variable.

Table 6.1: Summary of input data type

Input	Data Type	Rust Type
id	Integer	u64
source	Integer	u64
target	Integer	u64
weight	Float	f64
label	String	String

The algorithm is implemented in Rust as a single thread application. In practice, it would be wise to parallelise the algorithm to take advantage of the concurrency ability of Rust to utilise the multi-core processors in modern computers.

6.2 Data Preparation

The data preparation for the algorithm is done in Python, this is due to the flexible and well-supported nature of the programming language. In this experiment, we obtain the map data from OpenStreetMap via the OpenStreetMap API and the osmnx library [28]. As oppose to Google Maps, OpenStreetMap does not require an API key in order to download map data. The obtained map data is stored as a MultiDiGraph object from the NetworkX library [29], the MultiDiGraph object supports a directed graph and allows for multiple edges between any two nodes, this will be converted to a MultiGraph object which represents an undirected graph and duplicated edges will be removed in the subsequent steps detailed below.

The list below lays out the steps taken to obtain the map data in high-level:

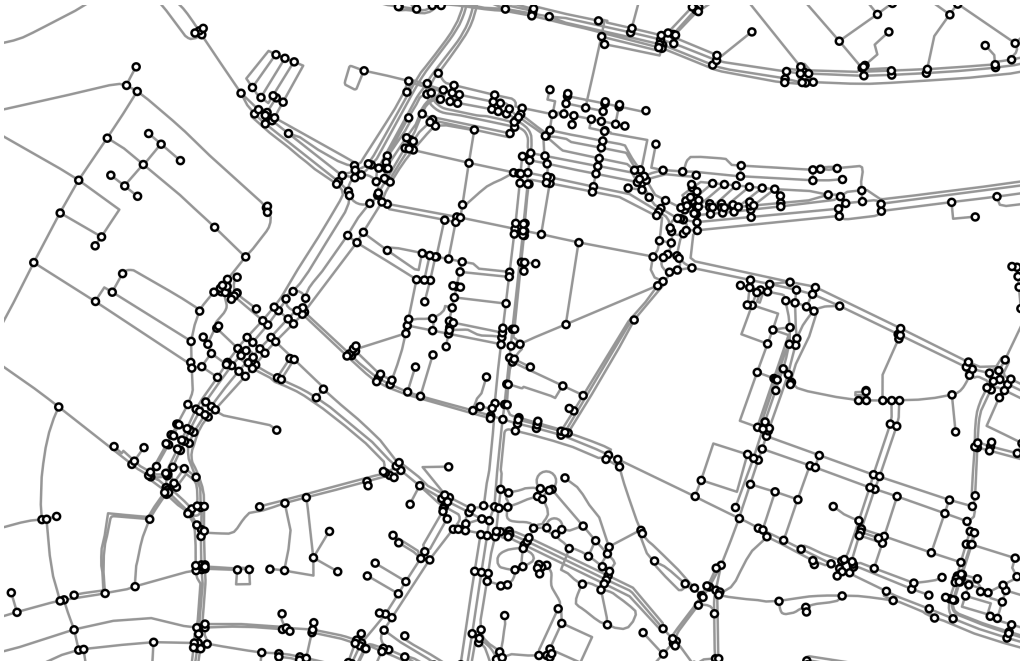
1. Download map data as an `MultiDiGraph` object with the `osmnx` library and the `network_type` set as `all`. Area could be selected by one of the following:
    - City administration boundary
    - A bounding box of coordinates
    - A user-defined radius from a location given by its coordinates
2. The graph is simplified by merging nodes that are within 20 metres of each other, this eliminates having too many nodes at junctions and pedestrian areas. (see figure 6.1)
3. The directed graph is transformed into an undirected graph.
4. For the selected service locations
    - Locate the closest point of the closest edge (i.e. street) from each location.
    - For each location, insert a new node to the graph and replace the original edge by 2 newly inserted edges to connect the new node. (see figure 6.2)
5. Remove parallel edges by only retaining the edge with the minimum weight.
6. Export the graph data into `nodes.csv` and `edges.csv`.

6.3 Experiment

The data preparation of the experiments in this thesis are conducted on a MacBook Pro with a M1 Pro ARM-based processor at 3.2GHz. The machine has 8 CPU cores and 16GB of RAM. We opted to test the algorithm on an older machine to showcase its usability and computational efficiency. Therefore, the algorithm implemented in Rust will be tested a 2015 MacBook Pro with a dual-core Core i5 (I5-5287U) processor at 2.0GHz with 8GB of RAM. The Rust compiler version is 1.79.0. The Python version is 3.12.0. The versions of the Python libraries and Rust crates used are as follows:

Rust crates:

- `petgraph`: 0.6.5



(a) Original graph. The administrative area of the Padua city contains 22783 nodes and 31863 edges.

(b) Simplified graph. The administrative area of the Padua city contains 7953 nodes and 14696 edges.

Figure 6.1: An example of graph simplification showing the train station of Padua and its surrounding areas.

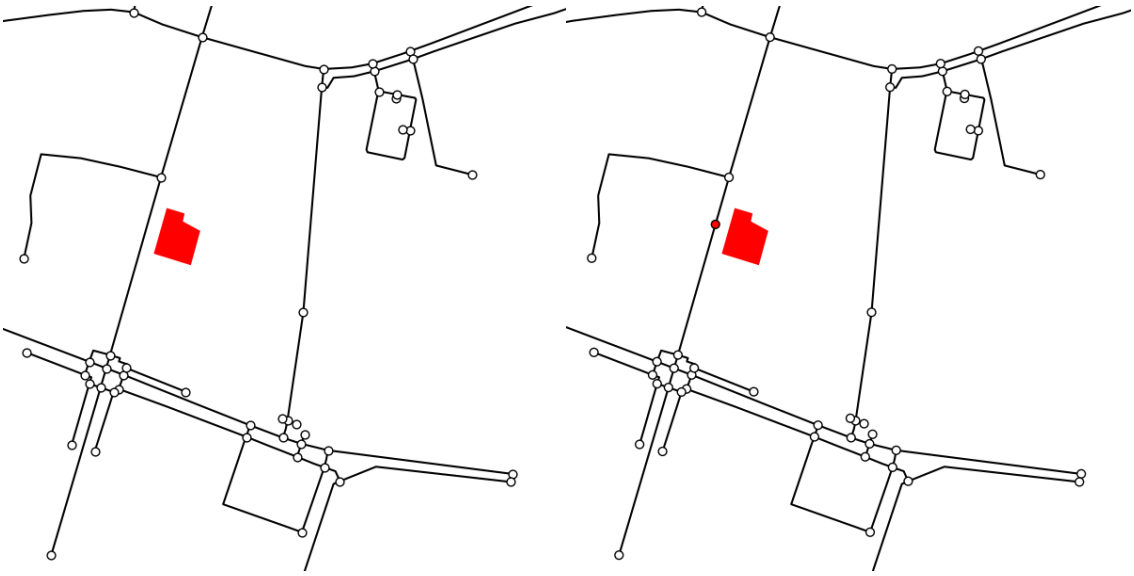


Figure 6.2: A simple visualisation of how a service location is inserted into the graph. Left - The original graph and the red polygon represents the actual location of the service. Right - The graph after the service location has been added, on a point of the closest edge where the true location is the closest to. The newly inserted node is coloured red.

- `ordered_float`: 1.0.2

Python libraries:

- `osmnx`: 1.9.3
- `networkx`: 3.3
- `pandas`: 2.1.4
- `shapely`: 2.0.4

According to Browning et al. [30], the average walking speed is 1.42 m/s, while Murtagh et al. [31] concluded that it is 1.31 m/s. There are many other scientific studies on average walking speed for the general population, as well as for specific groups such as the elderly, children, and people with disabilities. In our experiments, we will use the average walking speed of 1.22 m/s, which is slower than the the average walking speeds concluded from the 2 studies. However, this is a conservative estimate to account for a wider range of the population and also the fact that people may walk slower in urban areas due to congestion, obstacles, and other factors. The walking speed of 1.22 m/s was also used in the experiments by Barbieri et al. ([8], 3.1.1). This will allow us to compare our results with theirs in the later section.

Similarly, we will follow Barbieri et al.'s suggestion to include 3 types of amenities to include in our experiment, these are supermarkets, post office and pharmacies. In addiction, we will include coffee shop. In OpenStreetMap, these are represented by the following tags:

- Supermarket: `shop=supermarket` or `shop=convenience`
- Cafe: `amenity=cafe` or `amenity=bar` (for Italian cities)
- Pharmacy: `amenity=pharmacy`
- Post Office: `amenity=post_office`

Most bars in Italy also serve coffee, so we will include them in the cafe category.

6.3.1 Padua, Italy

For the first experiment of the thesis, the 15-Minute City of Padua is computed, where the University of Padua is located and where this thesis was conducted. The city of Padua is located in the Veneto region in Northern Italy, and it is the capital of the province of Padua. The map data of Padua is obtained from OpenStreetMap using the `osmnx` library in Python with the administration border of Padua. The map data has been processed and transformed into a graph data structure as we have mentioned in Section 6.2. In this graph, there are 8458 nodes and 15230 edges, which given an average degree of

$$2 \times \frac{|E|}{|V|} = 2 \times \frac{|15230|}{|8458|} \simeq 3.6$$

According to the data from OpenStreetMap, the city of Padua has 110 supermarkets, 316 cafes, 70 pharmacies and 26 post offices. Therefore, in our 15-Minute City algorithm, it creates a new node for each service type, and they are connected to 110, 316, 70 and 26 nodes in the graph, respectively. Note that these nodes may not be mutually exclusive, as it is possible for a node to be labelled with multiple service types.

Based on the data from OpenStreetMap, the vast majority of the historic city centre, as well as the area of Arcella of Padua is within a 15-minute walk of a supermarket, cafe, pharmacy, or post office. This is consistent with the idea of the "15-Minute City" where essential services are within walking distance of most residents. The results of the algorithm can be visualised and it is shown in figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: 15-Minute City of Padua, Italy. Black edges represents the 15-Minute City.

To measure the running time, we can run the algorithm repeatedly for 110 iterations and take the average running time. The first 10 runs of the algorithm are excluded from the average to account for the warm-up time of the CPU. The average running time of the algorithm for the 15-Minute City is 0.385 seconds.

Table 6.2: Padua t-Minute City

t	Number of Nodes	time (ms)	t	Number of Nodes	time (ms)
1	2	45.22	**18**	4899	299.34
2	46	66.99	**19**	5092	299.23
3	151	87.20	**20**	5263	321.14
4	355	114.86	**21**	5443	318.85
5	630	141.96	**22**	5594	335.31
6	908	166.31	**23**	5771	336.26
7	1245	197.75	**24**	5937	432.36
8	1645	200.38	**25**	6086	321.61
9	2075	235.65	**26**	6234	352.17
10	2500	221.54	**27**	6396	367.79
11	2906	262.13	**28**	6531	374.57
12	3294	256.85	**29**	6644	368.52
13	3632	280.82	**30**	6765	382.55
14	3963	267.52	**35**	7287	399.95
15	4239	385.10	**40**	7713	397.03
16	4489	323.90	**45**	7969	425.01
17	4709	456.84	**60**	8344	415.90

As discussed in Chapter 1, the 15-Minute City is an urban city planning concept which we have seen many variations of in literature. This includes the study of 10, 20 and 30 minute cities. Therefore, we can run our algorithm multiple times to create a heatmap of the city of Padua for 1 to 30 minute cities. In summary, the number of nodes and the average running times for the 1 to 30 minute cities can be seen in table 6.2 and the heatmap of the *t*-Minute City of Padua can be seen in figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4: t-Minute City heatmap of Padua, Italy. Darker edges represents a smaller t value.

6.4 Adaption to existing papers

In this section, we will apply our algorithm and compare with the results of the papers by Barbieri et al. in the cities of Rome, London and Paris [8], Caselli et al. in the city of Parma, Italy [9] and Olivari et al. in the cities of Ferrara and Bologna of Italy [7]. We will discuss the usefulness of our algorithms, the similarities and differences between our results and theirs. The images are also available in Chapter 9 in higher resolution.

Note that in this section, the visualisation of our experiments will use different colour schemes to match with the papers presented as closely as possible.

6.4.1 Rome, London and Paris

Noted by Barbieri et al. [8], the planar graph of Rome, London and Paris were obtained from OpenStreetMap using the `osmnx` library in Python. In the paper, the authors have defined 1.22 m/s as the average walking speed, which is the same as our experiment and slower than the average walking speed to be more inclusive to the population. The authors chose pharmacies, post office and supermarkets as the selected amenities as the "three primary needs of food, health, and administration". Bounding boxes of the 3 cities are also provided in the paper. However, the authors have not provided the `network_type` parameter in the `osmnx` library, which is important to obtain the correct map data. Furthermore, the authors have not mentioned any pre-processing steps to the map data, we also found that the bounding boxes provided in the paper are not accurate, as the bounding box of both Paris and London did not provide the same area of the city as the figure shown in the paper. Therefore, we manually defined the bounding box as closely as possible for the city of Paris. The bounding box for London city is bigger than the visualisation shown by the paper of Barbieri et al., to test the performance of our algorithm when the number of services increase. Figure 6.8 shows the full area of London captured in this experiment. The bounding boxes used to obtain the areas of Rome, Paris and London from OpenStreetMap are as follows, where the bounding boxes are the coordinates in the order of north, south, east, west.

- **Rome**: $(41.9952, 41.7882, 12.6281, 12.3644)$
- **Paris**: $(48.9520, 48.7650, 2.4900, 2.2100)$
- **London**: $(51.6792, 51.2473, 0.2774, -0.4944)$

As for our implementation, trying to recreate as close as possible to the map data used by the authors, we followed the author's choice of service types to include all supermarkets, pharmacies and post offices within the bounding boxes. Using the walking speed 1.22 m/s in the algorithm, table 6.3 shows the summary of the data obtained from OpenStreetMap for the 3 cities, as well as the size of the 15-Minute City, number of supermarkets, pharmacies and post offices and the running time of the algorithm, on average over 100 iterations as described in section 6.3.

Table 6.3: Summary of Rome, London and Paris data, where 15-MC denotes the number of nodes belong to the 15-Minute City, and S, P and PO denotes Supermarkets, Pharmacy and Post Office, respectively.

City	$\|V\|$	$\|E\|$	15-MC	S	P	PO	time (ms)
Rome	41,211	74,491	20,552	921	475	153	1,214.82
London	266,609	436,944	136,890	6,689	1,379	753	7,149.71
Paris	75,899	167,076	63,420	3,915	1,778	483	2,849.83

Furthermore, figures 6.5, 6.7, 6.6 shows the comparison of the 15-Minute City of Rome, London and Paris, respectively, between our implementation and the results provided by Barbieri et al.

Figure 6.5: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (L) and our findings (R) of Rome's 15-Minute City

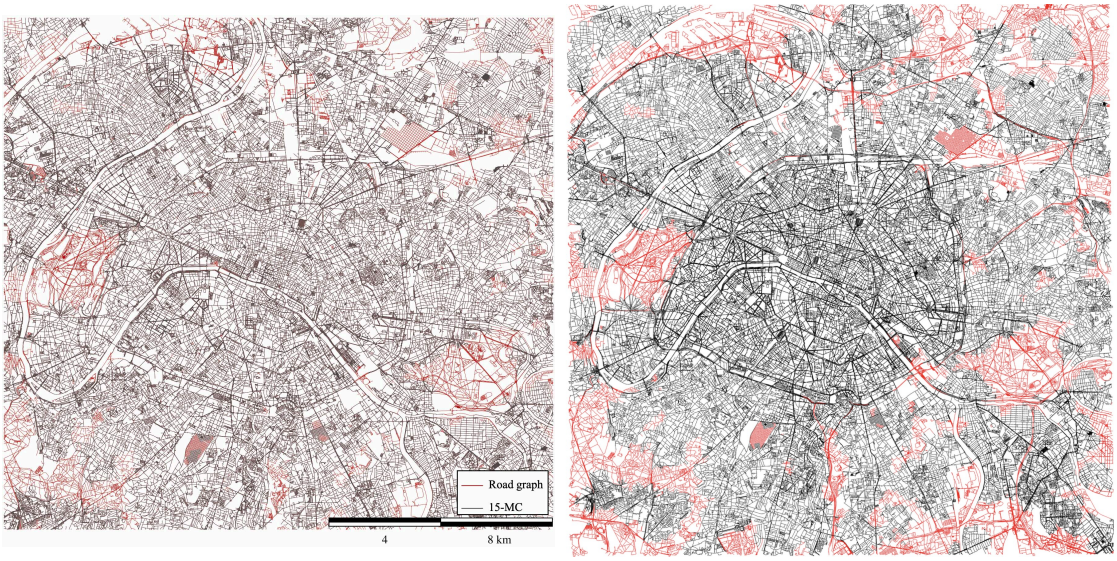


Figure 6.6: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (L) and our findings (R) of Paris's 15-Minute City

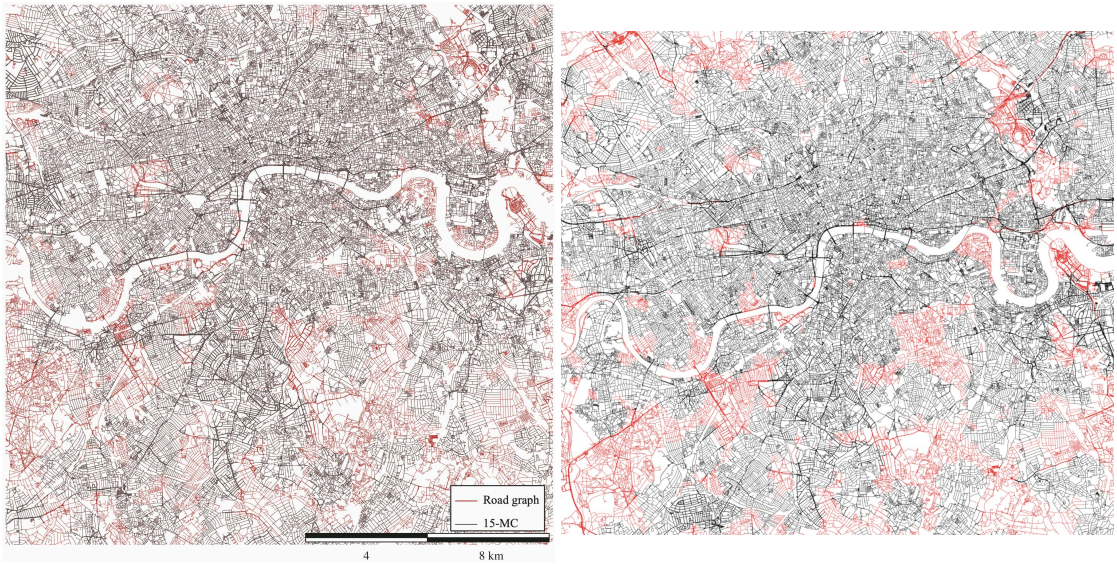


Figure 6.7: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (L) and our findings (R) of London's 15-Minute City

Figure 6.8: The entire graph of London with 266,609 nodes and 436,944 edges.

6.4.2 Parma, Italy

Caselli et al. studied the 15-Minute City for the northern portion of the Cittadella district, Parma, Italy [9]. In the paper, the authors used a ArcGIS software with a GIS-model which improved and integrated a Territorial Information system. A walking speed of 3 km/h was used, which is equivalent to 0.83 m/s, the authors noted that this is due to a recommendation by the National Research Council (2000) "in urban areas with large numbers of older pedestrians". A delay factor is also used in their model where the model adds 20 seconds to unsignalised crossings and 40 seconds to signalised crossings. This can be incorporated into our algorithm by adding the delay factor to the edge weights of the graph for crossings. The models used in this paper defined "neighbour cores" as "urban nodes well served by necessities shops and services, such as supermarkets, grocery stores, bars, drugstores, and banks." The 15-Minute City is defined as the area where the "neighbour cores" are within 15 minutes of walking distance, the paper also separated the 16-Minute City into "0 – 5 minutes",

"5 − 10 minutes" and "10 − 15 minutes" regions.

Since the authors did not include the coordinates of the "neighbour cores", nor the methodology used to obtain them. We will try locate these locations on OpenStreetMap manually to estimate the coordinates used in our algorithm, along with the walking speed of 0.83 m/s. In the end, we captured the map data of the region by using the centre coordinate point (44.7908, 10.3349) and a radius of 1500 metres through the OpenStreetMap API. For the sake of simplicity, we will not include the delay factor in our model. Following our approach used in Section 6.3, we will compute a heatamp of the 15-Minute City of the northern portion of the Cittadella district, Parma, Italy. The results of our implementation against Caselli et al. can be seen in figure 6.9. The comparison shows that our algorithm could be use to replicate the work done by the authors of this paper, as the regions of the "5-Minute City", "10-Minute City" and "15-Minute City" are closely matched between both implementations.

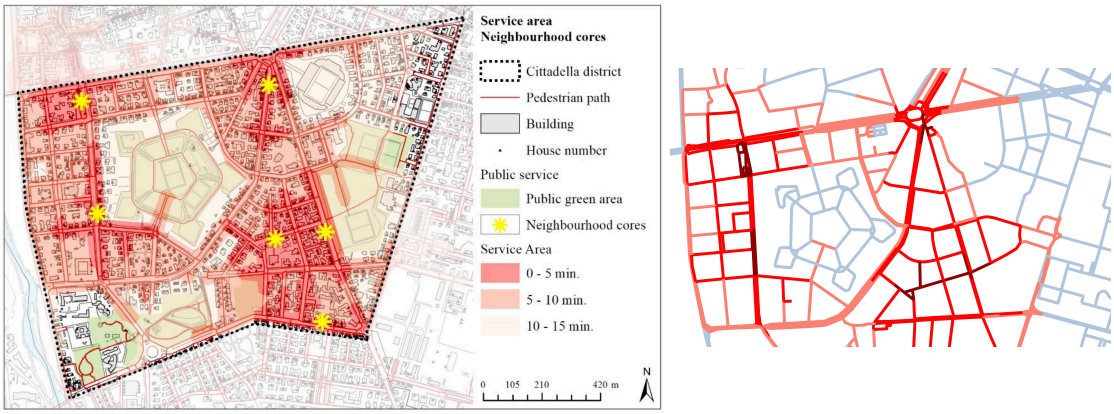


Figure 6.9: A comparison between Caselli et al. (L) and our findings (R) of Parma's 15-Minute City

6.4.3 Ferrara and Bologna, Italy

In the paper by Olivari et al. [7], the authors defined the "Next Proximity Index" and proposed the questions of whether the cities of Ferrara and Bologna, Italy are "15-Minute". Although the 15-Minute City approach here is Grid Tessellation based, the first "Next Proximity Index", NEXI-Minute for each service type is calculated by the time taken to reach to the closest service of the type, averaged from all nodes within the grid area. The other two NEXI indices are built on top of the first index. Therefore, our algorithm can be used to aid with calculating the time taken to travel from each node to each service type. In this paper, the authors opted to use a walking speed of 5 km/h (1.39 m/s) without giving any specific reasons,

and they have selected the following list of service types which are "mainly inspired by the Walk Score methodology" [14].

1. Commerce & Retail
2. Education
3. Entertainment
4. Grocery
5. Healthcare
6. Post/bank offices
7. Public parks
8. Restaurants

Figure 6.10 shows the specific details of all service types included in their study.

Categories and included amenities

NEXI category	OSM category	OSM feature
Education	amenity	college, driving school, kindergarten, language school, music school, school, university
Entertainment	amenity	arts centre, brothel, casino, cinema, community center, conference centre, events venue, fountain, gambling, lovehotel, nightclub, planetarium, public bookcase, social centre, strip club, studio, swinger club, theatre
Grocery	shops	alcohol, bakery, beverages, brewing supplies, butcher, cheese, chocolate, coffee, confectionery, convenience, deli, dairy, farm, frozen food, greengrocer, health food, ice-cream, pasta, pastry, seafood, spices, tea, water, supermarket, department store, general, kiosk, mall
Health	amenity	clinic, dentist, doctors, hospital, nursing home, pharmacy, social facility
Posts and banks	amenity	atm, bank, bureau de change, post office
Parks	amenity	park, dog park
Sustenance	amenity	restaurant, pub, bar, cafe, fast-food, food court, ice-cream, biergarten
Shops	shops	department store, general, kiosk, mall, wholesale, baby goods, bag, boutique, clothes, fabric, fashion accessories, jewelry, leather, watches, wool, charity, secondhand, variety store, beauty, chemist, cosmetics, erotic, hairdresser, hairdresser supply, hearing aids, herbalist, massage, medical supply, nutrition supplements, optician, perfumery, tattoo, agrarian, appliance, bathroom furnishing, do-it-yourself, electrical, energy, fireplace, florist, garden centre, garden furniture, gas, glaziery, groundskeeping, hardware, houseware, locksmith, paint, security, trade, antiques, bed, candles, carpet, curtain, doors, flooring, furniture, household linen, interior decoration, kitchen, lighting, tiles, window blind, computer, electronics, hifi, mobile phone, radio-technics, vacuum cleaner, bicycle, boat, car, car repair, car parts, caravan, fuel, fishing, golf, hunting, jet ski, military surplus, motorcycle, outdoor, scuba diving, ski, snowmobile, swimming pool, trailer, tyres, art, collector, craft, frame, games, model, music, musical instrument, photo, camera, trophy, video, videogames, anime, books, gift, lottery, newsagent, stationery, ticket, bookmaker, cannabis, copy node, drycleaning, e-cigarette, funeral directors, laundry, moneylender, party, pawnbroker, pet, pet grooming, pest control, pyrotechnics, religion, storage rental, tobacco, toys, travel agency, vacant, weapons, outpost

Figure 6.10: NEXI Categories in detail

Olivari et al. obtained the map data of Ferrara and Bologna from OpenStreetMap using the `pandana` library in Python and with the `network_type` as `walk`. The authors provided a map visualising the averaged NEXI-Minute index over all service types of Ferrara. We will try to recreate the 60-Minute City of Ferrara and Bologna by using the service types mentioned by the authors in our algorithm, along with the walking speed of 1.39 m/s. The map data we have obtained from OpenStreetMap is summarised in table 6.4. In the paper by Olivari et al., one of the results shown was the average NEXI-Minute index over all service types in each grid. In this section, we attempted to use our implementation of the *t*-Minute City between 5 to 60 minutes on the same area of Ferrara, as we don't have the necessary information to find the areas of each grid specified by Olivari et al. The results of our implementation against Olivari et al. for the city of Ferrara can be seen in figure 6.11. Although we were

not able to compute the average NEXI-Minute for each grid, our implementation of the 15-Minute City still closely aligns with the result achieved by Olivari et al. Figure 6.12 also shows our implementation applied to the city of Bologna.

Table 6.4: Summary of Ferrara and Bologna.

City	Ferrara	Bologna
$\|V\|$	10,323	15,923
$\|E\|$	15,741	24,782
Education	114	328
Entertainment	29	135
Grocery	157	605
Health	76	264
Posts and Banks	68	281
Parks	399	583
Sustenance	408	1,502
Shops	349	1679
15-MC	2,576	10,232
Running time (ms)	486.83	1,167.75

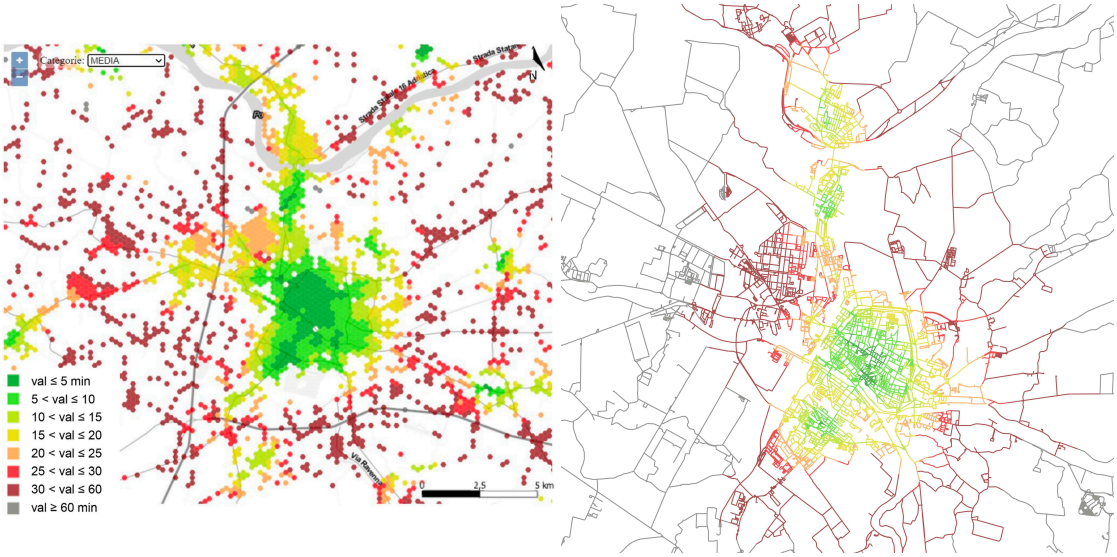


Figure 6.11: A comparison between Olivari et al. (L) and our findings (R) of Ferrara's 60-Minute City

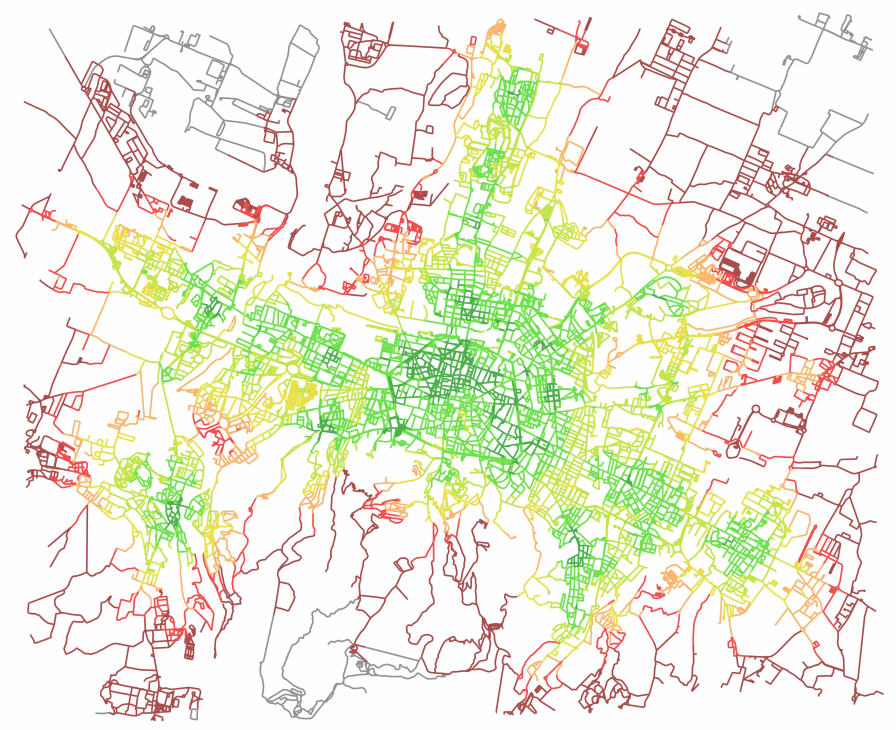


Figure 6.12: The 60-Minute City of Bologna

7 Discussion

In the previous chapter, we presented the results of our experiments on a number of selected cities. We have shown that our 15-Minute City algorithm is computationally efficient, as the running time on a single thread implementation is less than 10 seconds even for a city as large as London. We have also shown that the algorithm is flexible and can be used to measure the accessibility of different types of amenities, such as coffee shops, post offices, and supermarkets. Our algorithm can be used in many approaches to the 15-Minute City concept, as many existing solutions relay on calculating an area reachable within 15 minutes (or t minutes) from a given location as the first step.

However, while conducting these experiments, we have encountered several challenges. The first challenge was the quality of the data. The data we used was obtained from OpenStreetMap, which is a crowd-sourced map of the world. While OpenStreetMap is a valuable resource, it may not always accurate or complete. The map data we received was very messy, for example, there could be multiple edges between the same node, which resulted in a graph that could be simplified further. However, in our experiment, it was difficult to remove the "correct" nodes and edges without messing with the good quality data. The `network_type` parameter in the `osmnx` library also did not solve this problem, as `driving` network does not include pedestrian paths, while `walk` network does not include small roads that may be shared with pedestrians without the presence of pedestrian paths. The technique we employed to insert service locations into the graph was also not fool-proof, as we relay on the coordinates given by the OpenStreetMap API, which may not always be accurate. Even if the

coordinates are correct, there is no guarantee that the entrances of these services are facing the closest edge.

The second challenge was the data processing time. The data processing time was very long, especially for large cities like London. The data processing time was also dependent on the number of amenities we wanted to measure the accessibility of, as we needed to insert a node that is the closest to the service, create two new edges between the node and the service, and remove the original edge. This process was repeated for each service, which resulted in a long processing time. In our experiments, the processing time for the largest city, London, was over 14 hours and 25 minutes for 6,689 supermarkets, 1,379 pharmacies and 753 post offices. Recalling the 3 challenges according to Lima and Costa, in order to bridge the gap between the planning practice and software development communities: "data availability and quality", "computational cost" and "adaptability" [4]. In this thesis, we have addressed the latter two challenges. However, the first challenge, "data availability and quality", clearly is still a significant challenge that needs to be addressed. An efficient algorithm to the 15-Minute City would not be useful if there is a lack of a comprehensive framework for urban space planning and other users such as researchers from other fields outside of Computer Science.

The weights of the graph to our algorithm was purposely set to be the time required to travel along the corresponding edge, in minutes. This promotes the freedom for the users to incorporate different characterise to the roads which could affect the travelling time, such as the the street width, slope, and density of (foot or not) traffic. For example, service locations in a building such as a shopping mall may seem close to each other on a 2D map, our input graph allows for the possibility to modify travelling time based on the level of the building the service is located. Locations where it may be unpleasant to travel such as roads without pavements, paths with cobblestone or unsafe paths could also have artificial time added to the edge weights.

Given that every city studied in this thesis is larger than their respective "15-Minute City", we have studied in section 5.3 that the theoretical complexity of the proposed algorithm in this setting is

$$\mathcal{O}\left(p \cdot d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor} \log d^{1+\lfloor t/\varepsilon \rfloor}\right)$$

where p denotes the number of service types.

The proposed algorithm was implemented in Rust. In the table 7.1, we have noted the

time taken to run the algorithm for the "15-Minute City" of Padua, Rome, London, Paris, Parma, Ferrara and Bologna, along with the number of nodes and edges in each graph and the size of the 15-Minute City. The same algorithm was also implemented in Python for comparison. We found that on average, Python takes about 3 times longer to run for the computation against Rust.

Table 7.1: Complexity in practice, where p denotes the number of service types.

City	|N|	|E|	p	|15-MC|	Time (ms)
Padua	8,458	15,230	4	4,265	385.10
Rome	41,211	74,491	3	20,552	1,214.82
London	266,609	436,944	3	136,890	7,149.71
Paris	75,899	167,076	3	63,420	2,849.83
Parma	1,375	2,505	1	234	3.26
Ferrara	10,323	15,741	8	2,576	486.83
Bologna	15,923	24,782	8	10,232	1,167.75

It is clear that although the term q_w, the maximum number of locations for an unique service type, is not the dominant term in the complexity of the algorithm, it is still an important factor in practice. We have also seen the effect of t to the running time of the algorithm in table 6.2. Moreover, although the size of the graph (i.e. the number of nodes and edges) is not the dominant term in the complexity of the algorithm in this setting, it is clear that the size of the graph still plays a role in the algorithm's complexity. It is also safe to assume that the number of service locations is positively correlated to the size of the city, therefore affects complexity.

There are a number of improvements that can be considered in the future. A notable improvement would be to allow the algorithm to calculate the t-Minute City for multiple t at once. In our current implementation, we repeat the algorithm multiple times for each t of interest. However, this is inefficient as the graph search algorithm always start from the same nodes and stop when we reach to t minutes. A suggestion of the modification would be to assign a number to each reachable node, representing the least amount of time required to reach to all services. In this setting, the algorithm only needs to be run once for multiple t-Minute City calculations. An example of this algorithm is shown below in algorithm 7.1 and 7.2.

Another improvement is to allow the algorithm to run in parallel. In our current implementation, the algorithm is run on a single core. However, the algorithm can be parallelised

so that different service types can be searched within the graph by multiple threads. At the end of the parallelised process, each thread should return the label array $v.r$ for each node v in the graph. The main thread can then combine the results from each thread to obtain the final result.

Algorithm 7.1 Modified Dijkstra's Algorithm 3

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, source vertex s,
time threshold t and i denotes the index of the service type

Output: Assign $v.r[i] = 1$ for vertices that can reach to source node s within threshold t

$Q \leftarrow \emptyset$
INSERT(Q, s)
while $Q \neq \emptyset$ **do**
  $v \leftarrow$EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
  if $v.d > t$ **then**
    $Q \leftarrow \emptyset$
  else
    if $\lfloor v.d \rfloor < v.r[i]$ **then**
      $v.r[i] \leftarrow \lfloor v.d \rfloor$
    end if
    for each vertex $u \in Adj[v]$ **do**
      if $u \notin Q$ **then**
        $u.d \leftarrow v.d + w(u, v)$
        INSERT(Q, u)
      else if $u.d > v.d + w(u, v)$ **then**
        $u.d \leftarrow v.d + w(u, v)$
        DECREASE-KEY($Q, u, u.d$)
      end if
    end for
  end if
end while

Algorithm 7.2 15-Minute City Algorithm 3

Input: A graph $G(V, E)$, weights $w : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, a time threshold t and a list S of service vertices of p types

Output: Dictionary R where the keys are $1, \ldots, t$ and the values are sets of vertices representing each t-Minute City

for all vertex $v \in V$ **do**
  $v.r \leftarrow \{\infty\}^p$
  $v.l \leftarrow \{0\}^p$
end for
for all service $v \in S$ **do**
  $v.l[i] \leftarrow 1$ for each service type i which belongs to vertex v
end for
for each service type $i \in \{1, \ldots, p\}$ **do**
  Create a new vertex s
  Add edges from s to all vertices v where $v.l[i] = 1$ and $w(s, v) \leftarrow 0$
  Modified_Dijkstra_3(G, w, s, t, i)
  Remove s and all edges connected to it
end for
for each $t' \in \{1, \ldots, t\}$ **do**
  R.insert$(t' : \emptyset)$
end for
for each vertex $v \in V$ **do**
  $t' \leftarrow 0$
  for each service type $i \in \{1, \ldots, p\}$ **do**
    if $v.r[i] > t'$ **then**
      $t' \leftarrow v.r[i]$
    end if
  end for
  if $t' \in [1, t]$ **then**
    $R[t'] \leftarrow R[t'] \cup \{v\}$
  end if
end for

8 Conclusion

In this thesis, we explored the concept and implementation of the 15-Minute City. By reviewing a range of existing papers from various research areas, we identified the need for an algorithmic approach to develop a standardized framework and system. Our goal was to create an adaptable algorithm suitable for any *t*-Minute City, not just the 15-Minute City.

The 15-Minute City is often represented on a map, and from a Computer Science perspective, this naturally translates to a graph data structure. Consequently, our proposed algorithm draws inspiration from popular graph search algorithms, particularly Dijkstra's algorithm and Johnson's algorithm. The time and space complexities of our algorithm were derived and found to depend on the degree of the nodes in the graph, the t in t-Minute City, and the number of service locations.

We implemented the algorithm in both Rust and Python, testing it in the city of Padua for both a 15-Minute City and a range from 1-Minute City to 30-Minute City. As anticipated, the Rust implementation was significantly more efficient. Additionally, we demonstrated that our algorithm could be adapted to replicate existing non-algorithmic case studies, including Rome, London, Paris, Parma, Ferrara, and Bologna. We showed that our algorithm is efficient in practice as the 15-Minute City was computed within 10 seconds for all test cases on a 9 year old MacBook Pro.

Future research on the 15-Minute City should focus on developing a robust and efficient framework for obtaining accurate map data, as data gathering and processing proved to be the primary bottlenecks in our experiments. The 15-Minute City concept has become a sig-

nificant urban planning paradigm in recent years, aiming to provide environmental, social, and economic benefits by ensuring essential amenities are accessible within a short distance. Therefore, it is crucial to establish a comprehensive framework to enhance our society effectively.

9 Appendix

In the following pages, we will present higher resolution versions of the images previously included in this thesis.

Figure 9.1: Rome's 15-Minute City

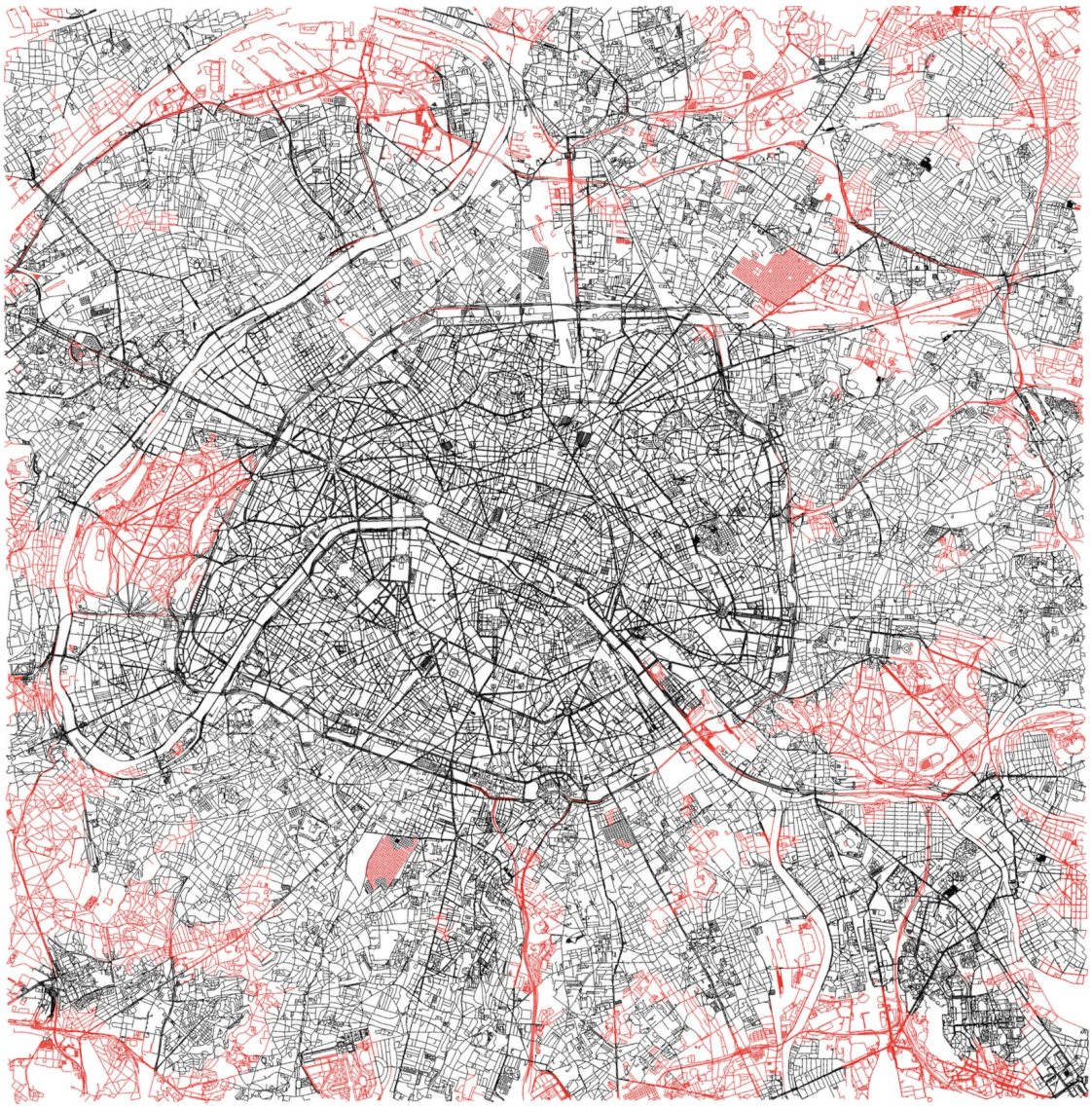


Figure 9.2: Paris's 15-Minute City

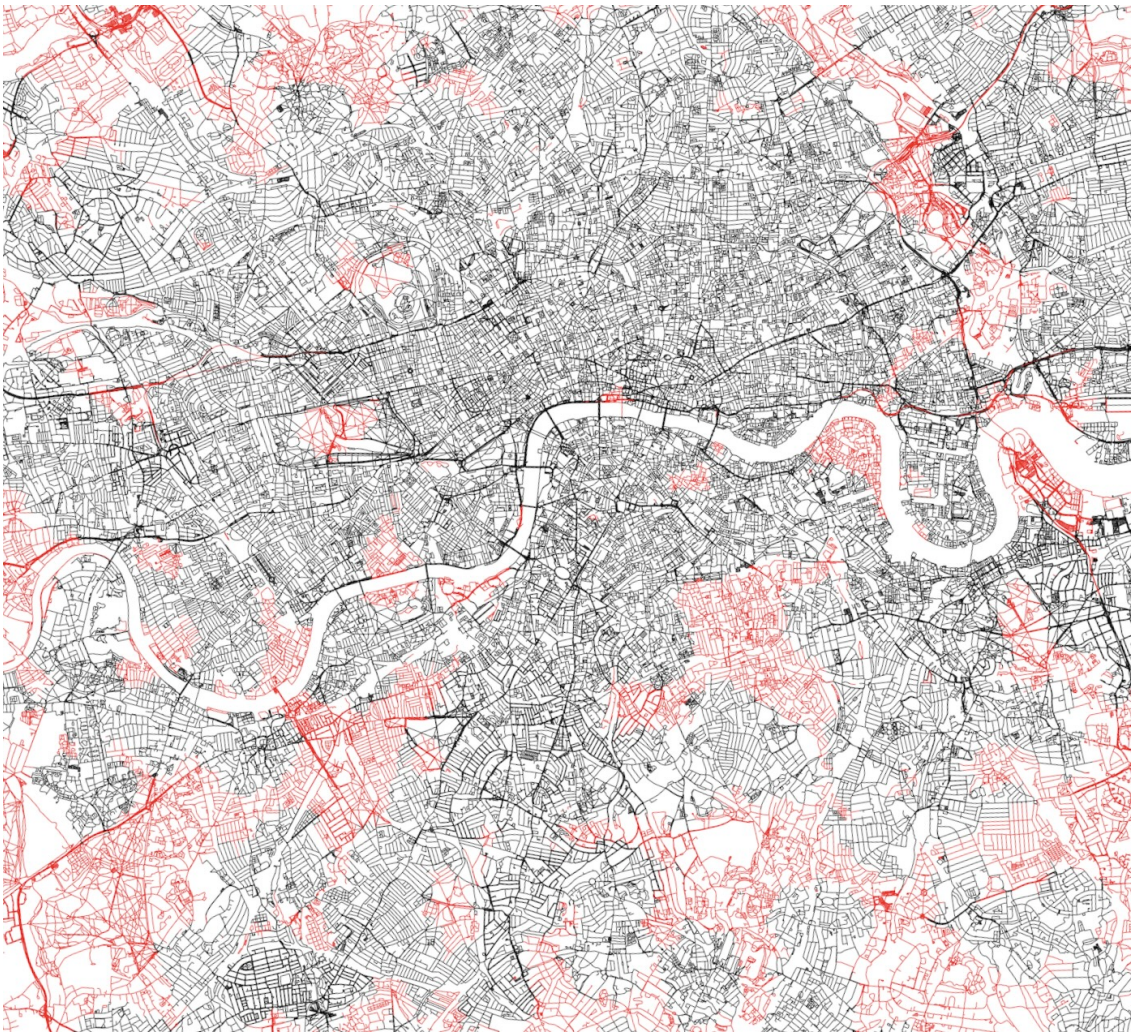


Figure 9.3: London's 15-Minute City (cropped)

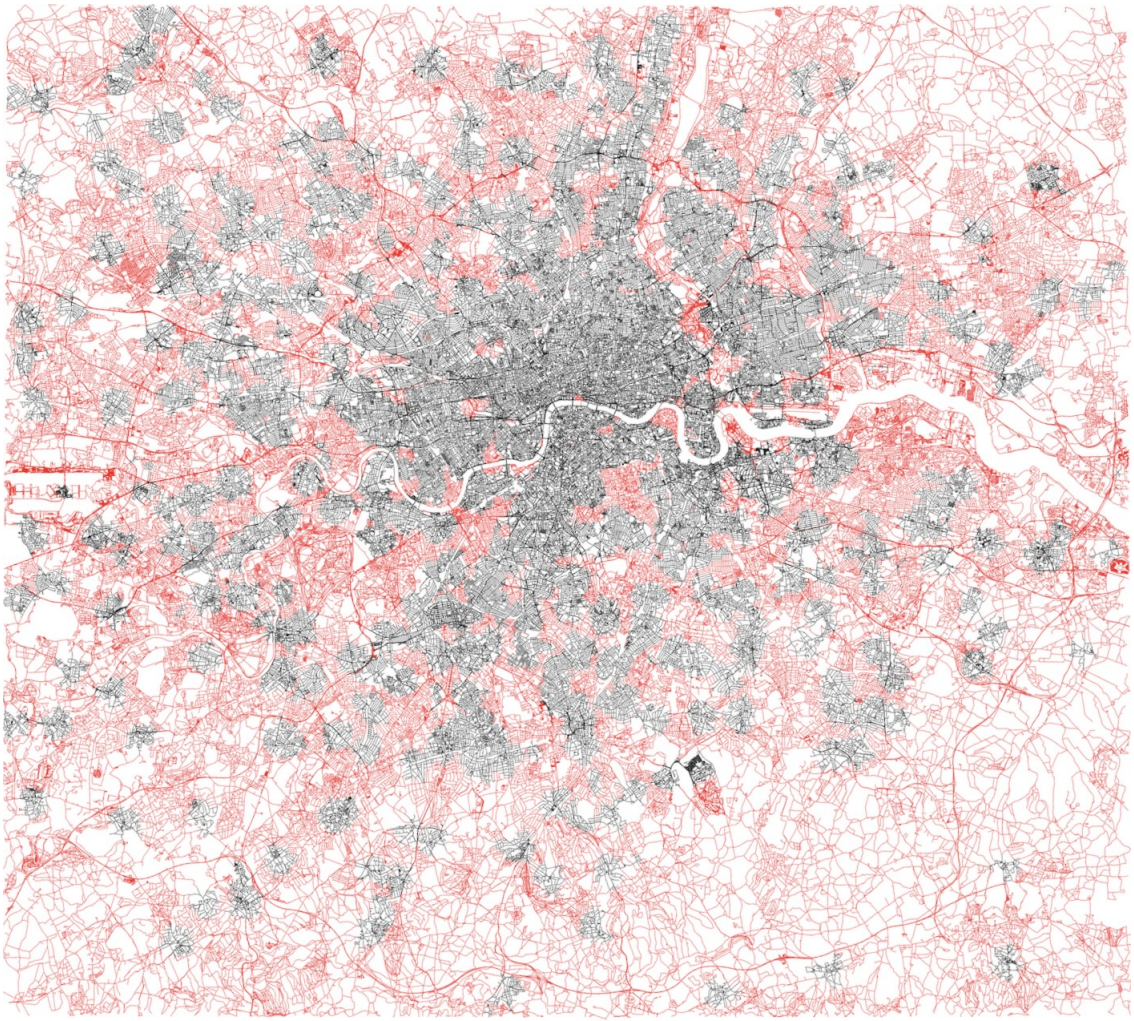


Figure 9.4: London's 15-Minute City

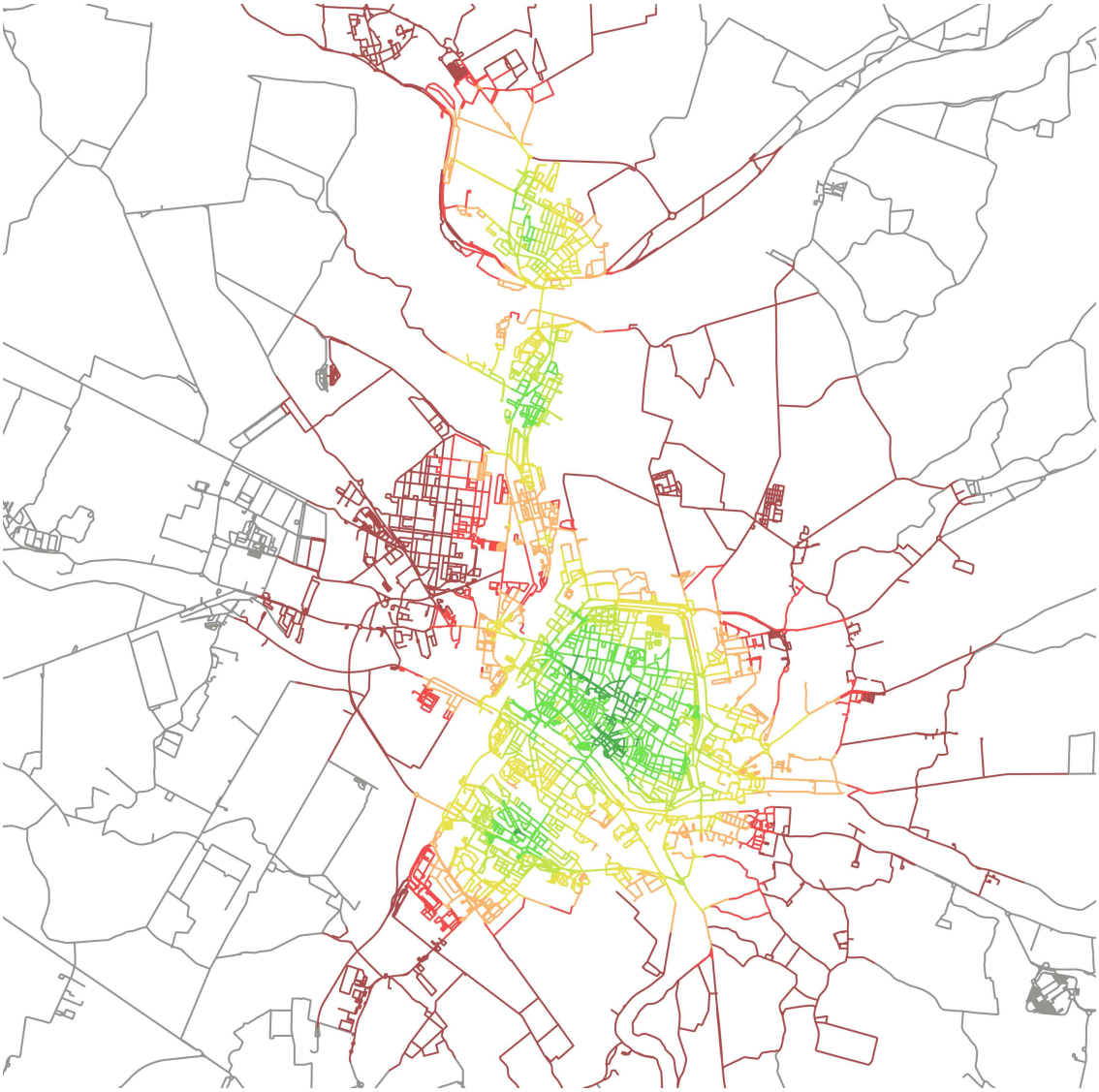


Figure 9.5: Ferrara's 60-Minute City

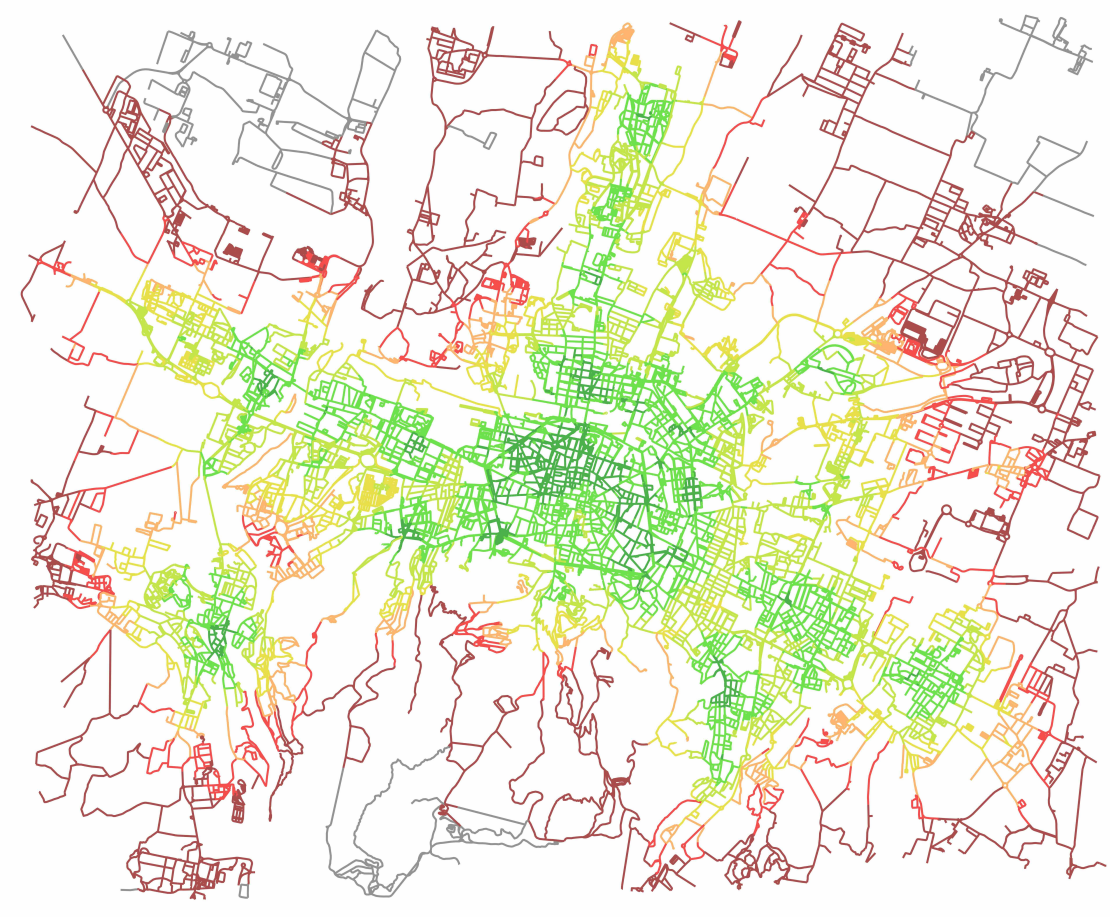


Figure 9.6: Bologna's 60-Minute City

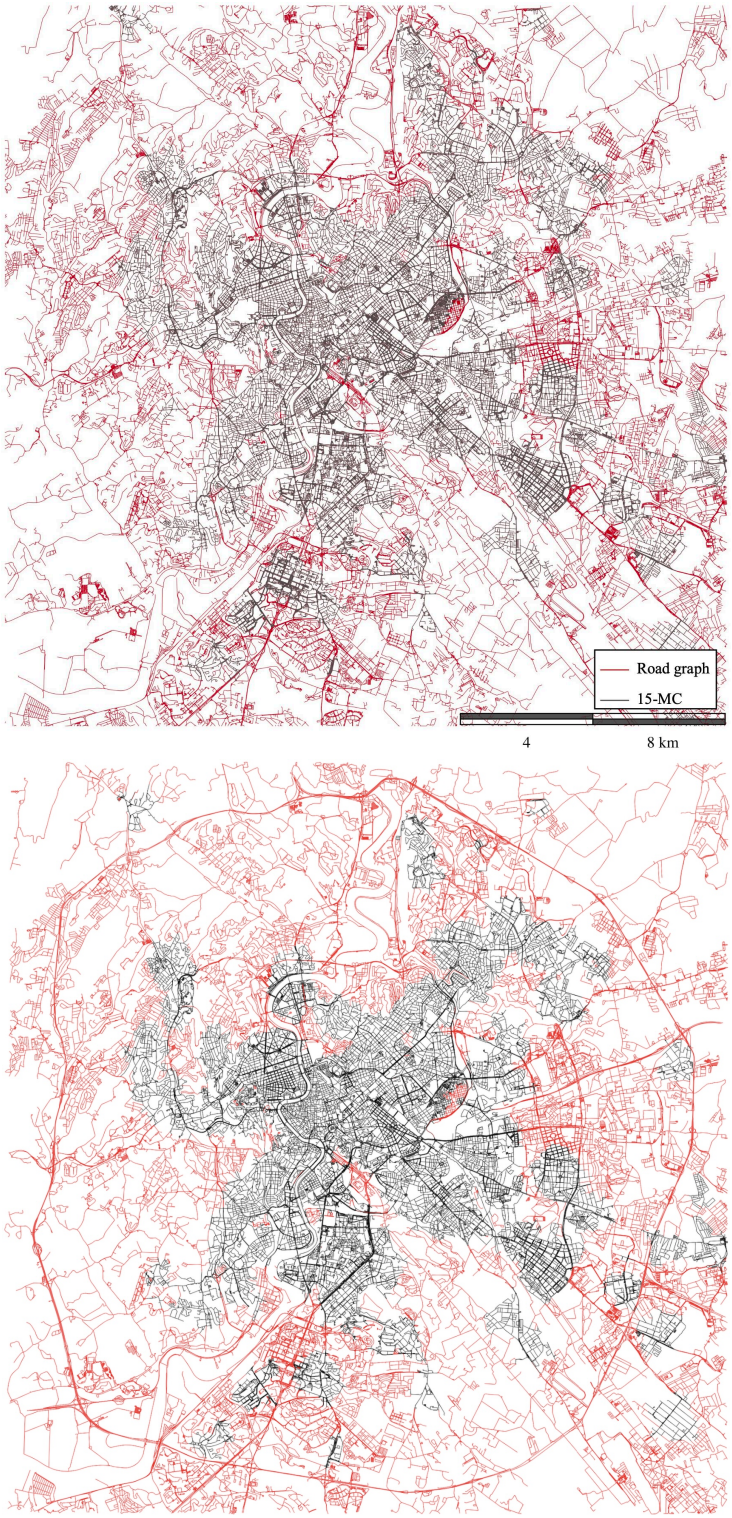


Figure 9.7: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (Top) and our findings (Bottom) of Rome's 15-Minute City

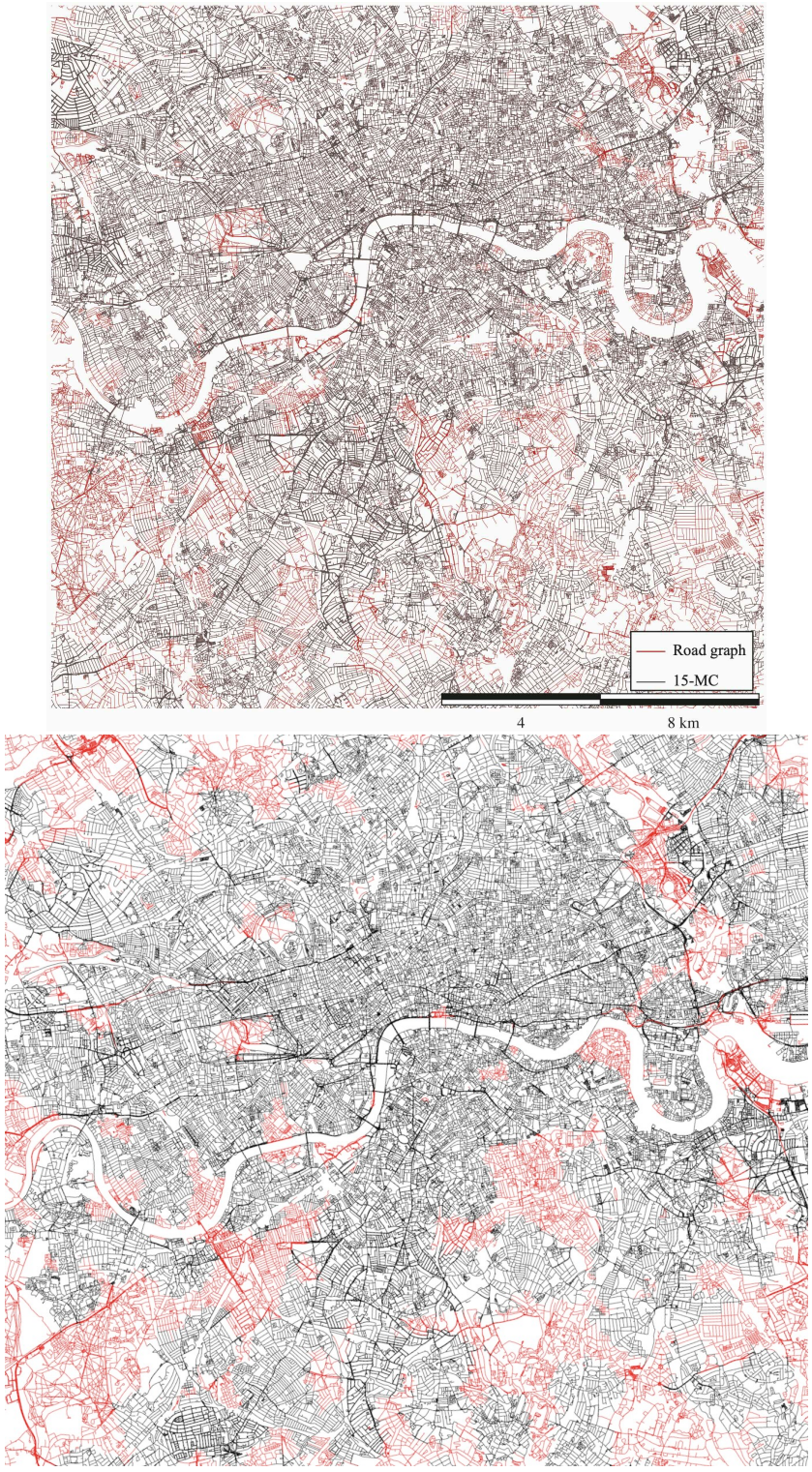


Figure 9.8: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (Top) and our findings (Bottom) of London's 15-Minute City

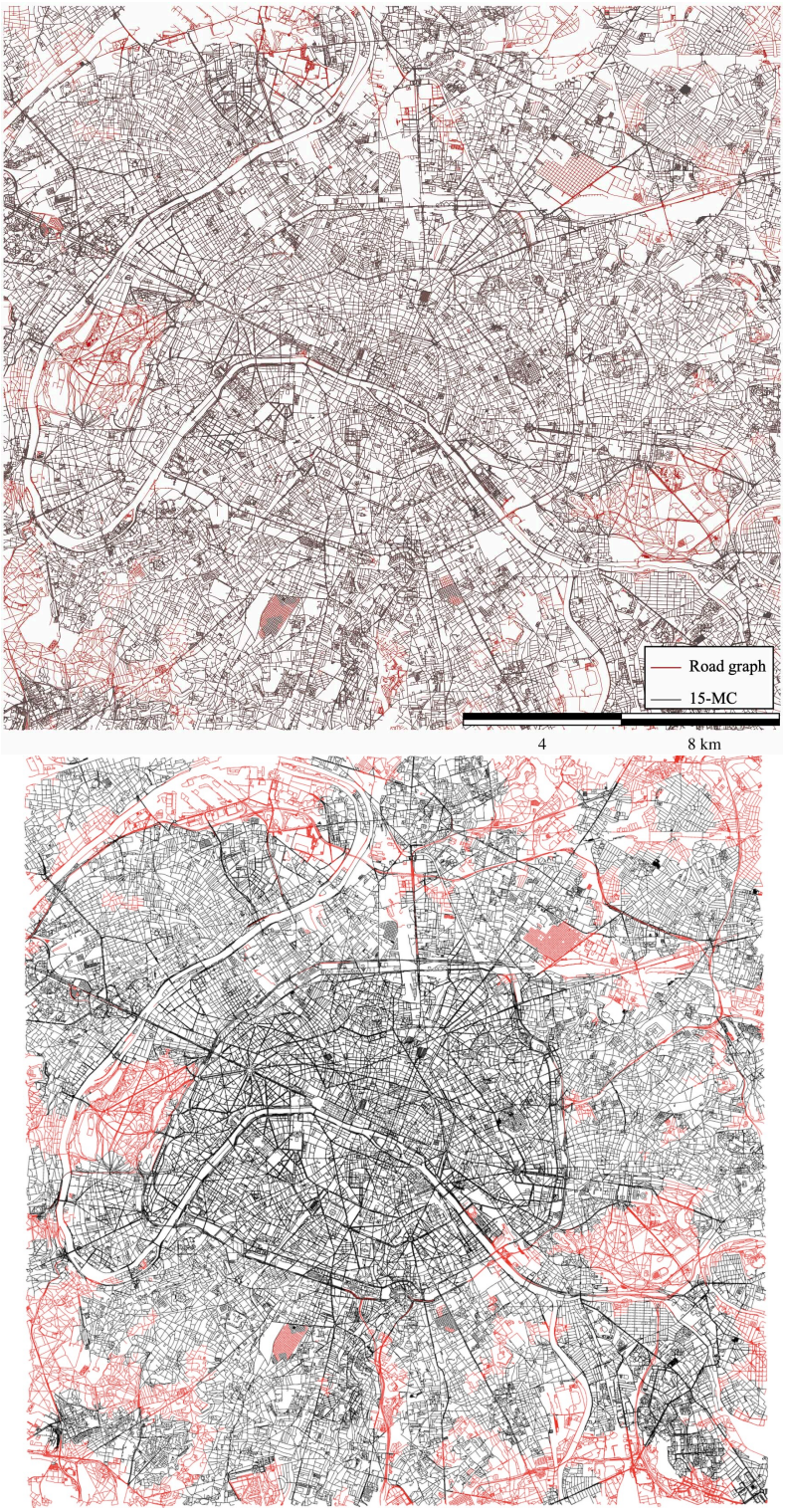


Figure 9.9: A comparison between Barbieri et al. (Top) and our findings (Bottom) of Paris's 15-Minute City

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Marco Lam