

# Path Optimization of UCLA for The Physically Disabled

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Accessibility for the physically disabled is a prevalent issue at UCLA where stairs and steep slopes make navigating campus arduous. In this project, we aim to model UCLA campus as a network to derive insights about wheelchair accessible paths. We employ APIs and Depth First Search to model campus in a comprehensive network. Using travel time as the primary metric, we develop two algorithms, Dijkstra's and least-resistance, to find optimal paths from selected nodes. We highlight crucial nodes of campus using centrality measures. We demonstrate how wheelchair users are dramatically inconvenienced by the lack of accommodations and inefficient ramps. We seek to expand the model's scope and improve its accuracy in addition to proposing engineering solutions to make campus more accessible for the physically disabled.

disabled | path optimization | networks | centrality | Dijkstra's algorithm | depth first search

## Introduction

Westwood is notoriously hilly and the University of California Los Angeles was subsequently designed with many stairs and steep pathways to maximize the terrain. This often makes the campus inaccessible to physically disabled students who attempt to navigate primarily through elevators or moderate inclines. Some integral halls and centers are entirely out of reach for wheelchair users and many more require lengthy detours. Physically disabled students comprise 2.1% of the 48,000 students at UCLA. Moreover, the influx of students using wheeled transport, including electric scooters and skateboards, has made campus accessibility an increasingly salient issue. UCLA is one of the largest public universities, hosting countless clubs, sports events, international speakers, performing arts, and soon the 2028 Olympics and Paraolympics. Accommodating these populations is necessary for UCLA to encourage attendance and visitation regardless of physical ability. Strides in this direction will also encourage campuses nationwide to reassess their accessibility. Salkhi Khasrugh explores how pedestrian dynamics on university campuses can be modeled using complex network theory in her paper, "University Campus as a Complex Pedestrian Dynamic Network: A Case Study of Walkability Patterns at Texas Tech University (TTU)". Salkhi's application of network theory and computation provides novel insights into the structure of TTU. By dividing campus into nodes at major intersections and edges representing pedestrian pathways. She uses several centrality measures including betweenness and closeness to identify which nodes are the most influential. Salkhi identified key locations that are most prone to traffic and congestion because of their high betweenness centrality, proposing new infrastructure to accommodate. We can employ networks to represent UCLA in a similar fashion, including paths that are accessible for wheelchair access. The utility of networks and centrality measures enables us to derive insights into the accessibility of UCLA and propose necessary changes to improve campus accommodations

## Background

This project aims to identify areas of inaccessibility on UCLA's campus, and calculate optimal routes for wheeled access. We employ APIs and mapping software to model the main campus and residential halls and divide it into a complete network of nodes and edges. Edges represent pedestrian pathways while nodes represent the intersection of these paths. We note which paths are wheelchair accessible based on their use of stairs and steep inclines. Steep inclines are legally regulated as slopes greater than 8% or 1:12 ratio of elevation and distance. Nodes are registered as geodesic latitudinal and longitudinal coordinates. These coordinates are measured in degrees which we convert to meters to measure distance. We assume the curvature of Earth has negligible impact on the small

## Significance Statement

This project furthers the application of transportation networks in the context of pedestrian pathways. It offers insight into the accessibility of University campuses for physically disabled individuals.

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<sup>1</sup>Liu and Liu did analysis and work on data collection, management, system design, and the depth first search algorithm.

<sup>2</sup>Khan and Walden worked on algorithms regarding the time calculation of paths as well as centrality calculations.

- scale of Los Angeles. We calculate traversal times based on distance, speed, and elevation and use them as weights for the network edges. We design shortest path and least resistance algorithms to calculate the fastest and most efficient routes for disabled individuals for any given destination. The shortest path algorithm is an implementation of the traditional Dijkstra's algorithm, logging the travel time and nodes traversed. This enables us to depict where UCLA's campus struggles with wheel accessibility by analyzing large disparities in travel time. With this data, we can propose efficient alternatives that wheelchair users could leverage in lieu of stairs or steep inclines. The results of the project will promote inclusivity and equal opportunity for education regardless of physical ability.

## Data Collection

**Prototype Model.** Our prototype model involves a manual process of data collection in which we picked nodes on campus based on arbitrary importance. We construct a map comprising 21 nodes that represent points of interest that branch into 3 or more paths. By connecting the nodes, we achieve 43 potential paths. We determine which paths are not wheelchair accessible by determining if they require stairs or steep slopes, defined by inclines of 30 degrees or greater. This leaves 32 paths for comparison between a wheelchair user and a non-disabled individual. Figure 1 below displays the final map of UCLA's campus with nodes representing key intersections and edges representing paths between them. Blue edges represent paths that are non-accessible for wheelchair users.

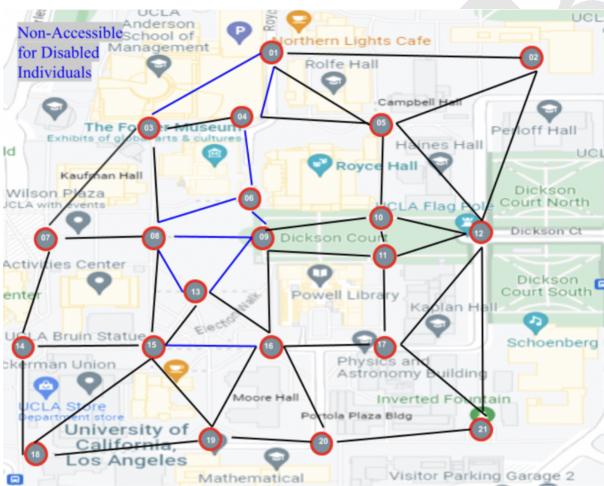


Fig. 1. Nodes and Edges for the Prototype Model.

Each path is then physically traversed by one of our four group members at least once by walking and once by simulating the use of a wheelchair (2). Subsequently, the times are recorded and stored into matrices as shown in Figure 2 below. Each entry  $i, j$  represents the time taken to traverse the edge by one of our members. If no edge exists, then the entry is just left as NaN. Both matrices for non-disabled and disabled traversal times are included.

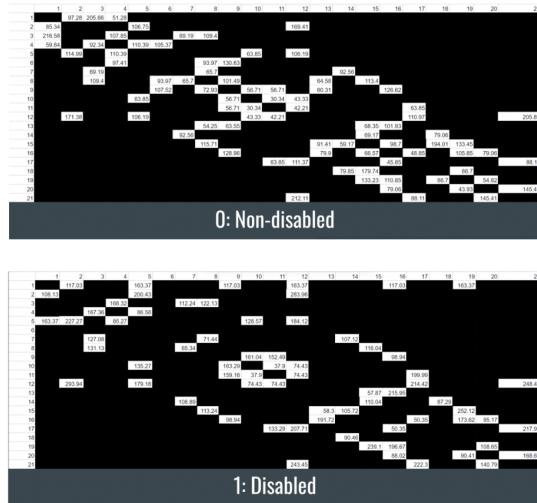


Fig. 2. Time taken for physical traversal between all pairs of nodes with an edge between them for disabled and non-disabled individuals.

Initially, the main goal of our project was to use solely this method. However, we realized that this approach was prone to significant error and limitations due to several factors, including—but not limited to—human error, inconsistencies in walking speed among group members, physical fatigue, and scalability constraints as the project expanded. To address these challenges and improve the reliability of our data, we decided to elevate our data collection process using more systematic methods.

**Production Model.** For our alternative method, we decided to employ APIs and mapping software to model the main campus and residential halls and divide it into a complete network of nodes and edges. We decided on using the Strava Global Heatmap because it was publicly callable via an API, and since it's based on collating user GPS information, it'll include even minor or unofficial paths, along with what modes of transport they are navigable with. We were able to get an API key by making a free account through the website and imported it into Javascript OpenStreetMap. From there, information was distilled into lines and imported into QGIS as vector line geometry in the WGS 84 projection system. From there, we cropped the information to only include the reasonable scope needed to navigate UCLA's campus. We then ran commands to create nodes on all intersections of lines. From there, we specified the construction of all remaining vertices within the geometry, which essentially are points along each path that track the behavior of the path. So, if the path has curves, we will be able to track the curve instead of treating it as a straight line. After splitting the geometry along all these vertices, we essentially had a massive network of nodes, each connected by vertices and line segments, as we can see in Figure 3.



**Fig. 3.** Nodes, vertices, and edges after using Strava's API and Depth-First Search.

Then, we wanted to find a way to keep track of all the vertices traversed on a path between two nodes, so we developed a depth-first search algorithm to aid us in the process. Please note that, in the rest of the section, we will be referencing nodes as yellow nodes, and vertices as red nodes, matching the colors in Figure 3.

```

269
270 Function: message_pass
271 Input: coordinate, last_visited, vertices_list(containing boolean value self.accessible)
272 Output: node_adjacency_matrix (containing lists of vertices traversed between them and
273 accessibility)
274 for neighbor of coordinate:
275   if neighbor == last_visited:
276     skip
277   new_vertices_list = vertices_list
278   new_vertices_list.append(neighbor)
279   if new_vertices_list.accessible and segment(coordinate, neighbor).accessible:
280     new_vertices_list.accessible == False
281   if neighbor in nodes_list:
282     if not node_adjacency_matrix[min(new_vertices_list[0], [new_vertices_list[-1]],
283 max(new_vertices_list[0], [new_vertices_list[-1]]).isEmpty():
284       node_adjacency_matrix[min(new_vertices_list[0], [new_vertices_list[-1]],
285 max(new_vertices_list[0], [new_vertices_list[-1]])] = new_vertices_list
286       fresh_vertices_list = [neighbor]
287       fresh_vertices_list.accessible = True
288       message_pass(coordinate = neighbor, last_visited = coordinate, vertices_list =
289         fresh_vertices_list)
290     else:
291       message_pass(coordinate = neighbor, last_visited = coordinate, vertices_list =
292         new_vertices_list)

```

**Fig. 4.** Pseudocode for the Depth First Search Algorithm.

Before being able to calculate the times it takes to traverse between two yellow nodes, we first needed to perform an intermediate step. The information stored for a given pair of 'yellow nodes' is not just limited to the time it takes to traverse them. Instead, we needed to add intermediate nodes along each path to account for information like curvature, elevation changes, and deviations from straight-line travel that would otherwise be missed in a simplified graph. Each of the intermediary nodes stores their specific coordinates and elevation. By capturing these finer details, the model more realistically reflects the true effort or time required to traverse each path.

For example, consider two yellow nodes with equal elevation connected by a curved path that passes over a hill. Although the start and end points are level, the actual route requires ascending and descending terrain. This particular situation poses a challenge: without incorporating intermediary nodes, the Dijkstra's and Least Resistance algorithms would simply detect an edge with no elevation change that can be traversed in a strictly straight line. As a result, the

true physical effort or time cost would be underestimated, and the algorithm would also lack the necessary information to determine whether the path is truly accessible for disabled individuals. However, the integration of intermediary nodes that store coordinates and elevation changes breaks down complex paths into smaller segments and allows the algorithm to capture information that would otherwise be overlooked. These resulting path calculations more accurately reflect real-world travel conditions. Ultimately, their purpose is to bridge the gap between abstract graph representations and the physical realities of the environment.

To control the spacing between these intermediate nodes, we introduced a tunable parameter  $c$ . This parameter determines the maximum allowed distance between two consecutive points where data (such as distance, slope, or elevation) is recorded. In order to maximize precision and obtain more detailed path representations, we generally aimed for relatively smaller values of  $c$ . However, smaller values of  $c$  also increase the number of nodes and edges in the graph, which can lead to higher computational costs during pathfinding. Therefore, we selected  $c$  to be around  $4.5 \times 10^{-5}$  in geodesic degrees (approximately 5 meters), providing a balanced trade-off between accuracy and efficiency.

## Methods and Models.

**Dijkstra's Algorithm.** Similarly to our two methods for data collection (prototype and production model), we also explore two different alternatives for finding the shortest time to travel between two given nodes and the corresponding path that needs to be taken. In this section, we firstly introduce Dijkstra's algorithm, a popular method for computing the shortest path in weighted graphs with non-negative edge weights(3). Additionally, we introduce an original, custom-made Least Resistance algorithm, which simulates the flow of energy, or voltage, through a network to find the path of least resistance between two given nodes.

The main idea behind Dijkstra's algorithm is to incrementally explore nodes and update the minimum travel time until the destination is reached. As discussed previously, we use travel time to measure edges, the connections between all  $N$  nodes, and map the shortest time to each node. The goal is to fill in an  $N \times N$  matrix where entry  $i, j$  represents the time it takes to traverse from node  $i$  to node  $j$ . Note that this matrix is not perfectly symmetric because there can exist changes in elevation in the positive or negative direction between any two given nodes. Dijkstra's algorithm begins by initializing a matrix with 0's along the diagonal-representing zero distance from a node to itself-and  $\infty$  everywhere else to indicate initially unknown distances. Starting from a designated source node, the algorithm stores a variable for the current known shortest time to a given node. This variable is updated whenever a shorter route is found through a neighboring node using a min-heap to efficiently select the next node with the smallest known time. Once the shortest path to a node is confirmed, that node is marked as visited and no longer considered for further updates. This process continues until all nodes have been visited, at which point the algorithm can return the shortest path and travel time between any user-specified destination and arrival node. After incorporating the min-heap structure, Dijkstra's algorithm's time complexity is  $O(elogn)$ , where  $N$  is the total number of

373 nodes and  $E$  is the total number of edges. This makes it a  
374 reliable and efficient choice for computing shortest paths in  
375 large, weighted graphs with non-negative edge weights.

376  
377 **Least Resistance Algorithm.** The second method is a least  
378 resistance algorithm, which is inspired by the way that  
379 electricity travels through space. The algorithm simulates  
380 the flow of energy, which we term as voltage, and it gradually  
381 increases as the algorithm explores different paths. We include  
382 a boolean value to reflect the physical ability of the user,  
383 which indicates whether to use the data for disabled or non-  
384 disabled. The algorithm is centered around two sets of arrays  
385 that contain all adjacent nodes to the start and end nodes,  
386 respectively, showing all paths that can be completed within  
387 the current voltage (besides the initial values). From both  
388 the starting and ending nodes, the algorithm continuously  
389 explores all potential paths, considering only those where  
390 the energy required to travel is within the current voltage.  
391 Every time a path is traversed, the energy required to travel  
392 said path is subtracted from the voltage value, determining  
393 how much energy is left to use. As the algorithm runs, the  
394 voltage is incrementally increased, allowing a wider range  
395 of paths to become accessible over time. With each voltage  
396 level, the algorithm expands its collection of possible paths  
397 from the start and end nodes to various points on the graph.  
398 Eventually, assuming there exists a connection between the  
399 two nodes, these paths converge—either at an intermediate  
400 node or between two adjacent nodes. In the latter case, the  
401 algorithm checks whether the remaining voltage is sufficient  
402 to bridge the gap. Once a connection is found, the final route  
403 is constructed by combining the start and reversed end paths.  
404 Finally, the time it takes to traverse the route is calculated  
405 by finding the sum of the times between all the nodes in the  
406 route.

407 Our Least Resistance algorithm differs from Dijkstra's  
408 algorithm in both structure and computational focus. While  
409 Dijkstra's algorithm relies on initializing and updating a  
410 full matrix or distance map to track the shortest distances  
411 from a source node to all other nodes in the graph, our  
412 approach avoids this overhead. Instead, the Least Resistance  
413 algorithm is designed to solve for a single, user-specified pair  
414 of nodes at a time, making it much more computationally  
415 cheap. It incrementally explores only the necessary portions  
416 of the graph, expanding outward from both endpoints until  
417 a viable connecting path is found. By forgoing the need  
418 to compute distances to all nodes, the algorithm reduces  
419 unnecessary computations and memory usage, making it  
420 significantly more efficient in scenarios where only point-  
421 to-point travel is required—which arguably represents the  
422 majority of practical applications! This targeted exploration  
423 allows for faster performance in graphs at a much larger scale  
424 than just UCLA's campus.

425  
426 **Elevation.** Wheelchair accessibility is primarily compromised  
427 by stairs and steep slopes. Steep slopes can be optimally  
428 identified by changes in elevation between intermediate nodes.  
429 Slopes must be at most 8% incline to be legally wheelchair  
430 compliant. Elevation would also help tune the travel time  
431 by adjusting for downhill and uphill variables. We employed  
432 2 elevation APIs to get the appropriate data. The APIs  
433 take geodesic coordinate inputs and return the elevation in  
434 meters. The first API we attempted to use was Open Maps

435 API (4). After calling the API for a portion of our network,  
436 we noticed discrepancies between the returned elevation and  
437 the actual elevation. The issue persisted so we pivoted to an  
438 alternative elevation API, Open Topo. Unfortunately, both  
439 tools failed to give accurate elevation data with the scale we  
440 were operating in. We were unable to find a feasible solution  
441 within the project duration and intend to continue pursuing  
442 different options in the future. Computing elevation changes  
443 on the 5 meter intervals will enable us to refine the set of  
444 wheelchair accessible edges and reduce the error for travel  
445 time.

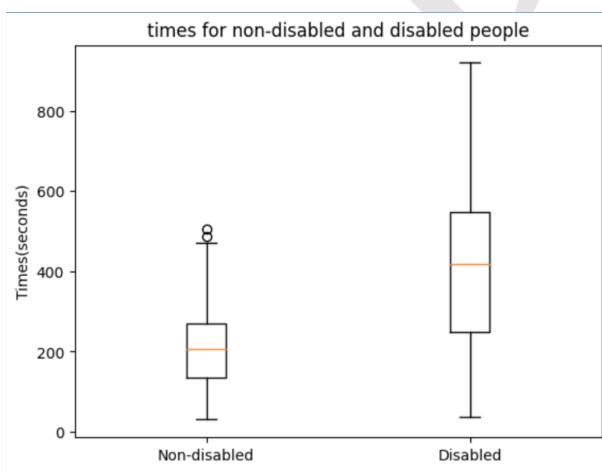
446  
447 **Centralities.** Centrality measures are one of the primary  
448 utilities of networks. For the case of our transportation  
449 network, we considered three centralities including closeness,  
450 betweenness, and Katz. Closeness centrality is computed by  
451 the inverse of the average shortest distance between the vertex  
452 and all other vertices in the network. It favors nodes that are  
453 closest to the most number of other nodes in distance. While  
454 this metric may be effective to identify highly connected  
455 locations on campus, it doesn't offer much benefit for our  
456 purposes. Katz centrality takes into account the amount  
457 of direct connections a node has as well as the relative  
458 importance of the nodes it's connected to. This measure is  
459 particularly holistic but again offers little utility in the case of  
460 identifying inaccessible areas of campus or other locations of  
461 issue on campus. Betweenness centrality is the main measure  
462 we employ in our network. It is computed by calculating  
463 the number of shortest paths a node appears on over the  
464 total number of shortest paths. This means nodes with high  
465 betweenness are commonly used on the shortest paths. In  
466 the context of our network, this helps us identify which nodes  
467 are crucial for wheelchair accessible pathways, and which are  
468 likely bottlenecks or risk of high traffic. Nodes with high  
469 betweenness also help draw attention towards parts of the  
470 network that would most benefit from new construction for  
471 a path that can reduce average travel time. We computed  
472 betweenness centrality using the NetworkX package. We  
473 have our weighted matrix with the travel times between  
474 each intersection and generate the resulting betweenness  
475 measures for each node. As we continue expanding the  
476 network and labeling the true wheelchair accessible edges  
477 using the elevation API, betweenness centrality will offer  
478 novel insight into nodes of importance on campus.

## 479 480 Results

481 Since our prototype model only took into account a subsection  
482 of UCLA's campus, we only accounted for 21 different nodes,  
483 which gave us a 21x21 matrix of times it takes to traverse a  
484 path between two directly connected nodes, which we can see  
485 in Figure 1. However, for this project, we expanded our scope  
486 to the entirety of UCLA, so our output matrix had dimensions  
487 1290x1290. We ran our Dijkstra's algorithm and our least  
488 resistance algorithm as a method to double-check our results.  
489 Dijkstra's algorithm runs for all possible nodes in the network,  
490 since it is a recursive algorithm that only ends when all nodes  
491 (if the network is fully connected) have a value for the time.  
492 But after running the algorithm one time, the matrix of  
493 times between any two nodes in the network is now obtained,  
494 so we then decided to use our least resistance algorithm to  
495 confirm our values. The least resistance algorithm is more

efficient than Dijkstra's because it can find the shortest path between two nodes without computing values for all the other nodes, contrary to Dijkstra's algorithm. So, to ensure our times from Dijkstra's algorithm were accurate, we double-checked 100 random node pairs using our least resistance algorithm and were able to attain matching results, hence proving the accuracy of our model. Although we cannot provide a visualization to showcase this verification process, successfully scaling our model from 21 to 1,290 nodes and confirming its accuracy through two independent algorithms stands as one of the most significant accomplishments of our project.

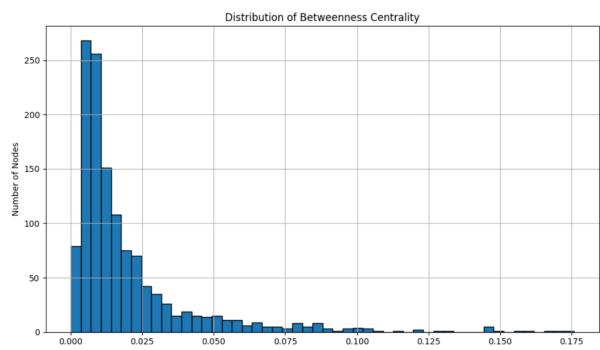
Therefore, we were able to successfully analyze the travel times for disabled and non-disabled people to evaluate places of need for infrastructure development. Firstly, as we see in Figure 4, the average time of a disabled person is much higher, almost double that of a non-disabled person. This can be attributed to a number of factors, such as certain paths that are almost entirely inaccessible or extremely long, windy detours that disabled people must take to reach a certain location. One prime example is the path it takes to go from Kerckhoff Hall to the Mathematical Sciences building, which requires wheelchair users to traverse via winding ramps (see Figure 1). This increases the time taken by a factor of 2.7 compared to non-disabled people, who only need to climb a set of stairs to reach the building. Another example is the path from Fowler Museum to Northern Lights Cafe, where large detours and u-turns are needed. Wheelchair users aiming to reach Northern Lights Cafe from the area around Rolfe Hall face significant challenges due to the lack of ramps or slopes (5). To reach higher elevation, they must use an elevator inside Rolfe Hall, as there are no accessible paths that bypass the building. Alternatively, users are forced to take a lengthy detour to Bunche Hall, make a U-turn, and backtrack to the cafe—significantly increasing travel time and effort. Simple shallow ramps or signs to help inform students or visitors of nearby elevators could be added on campus to help accelerate these travel times.



**Fig. 5.** Boxplot for times taken to traverse from node.

We were also able to determine betweenness centralities for our network to highlight nodes that are commonly used in shortest paths. This analysis provides valuable insights into which parts of campus experience high traffic and which

nodes are crucial for maintaining wheelchair accessibility. Betweenness centrality measures the frequency at which a node appears on the shortest path between pairs of nodes. Nodes with higher betweenness centrality play a pivotal role in maintaining connectivity across the network, as they act as essential intermediaries between various paths. Our results revealed that the locations on campus with the three highest betweenness centralities were Wilson Plaza, Pauley Walk, and the John Wooden Center. These findings align with our expectations, as these locations are well-known hubs of movement and social interaction on campus. Pauley Walk and Wooden Center consistently show high centrality values due to their strategic positions between the residential areas on the Hill and the academic core of campus. Whether it's students going to and from the Hill, heading to the gym, or going to class, these two locations serve as crucial intersections on campus. Wilson Plaza connects major academic buildings and is frequently used as a passage between the northern and southern parts of campus. Its central location makes it a vital link for anyone traversing from one side to the other, and as a result, it exhibits high betweenness centrality. As we see in Figure 5, a small number of often traversed nodes reaches a maximum betweenness centrality of around 0.175. We see higher frequencies of nodes with smaller betweenness centralities, indicating that the majority of campus locations are less frequently utilized as connection points between paths. These nodes typically correspond to localized areas or peripheral locations that are not essential for traversing the campus as a whole. If any of these high betweenness centrality nodes were obstructed or closed for maintenance, it could significantly disrupt mobility and force individuals, particularly those with disabilities, to take significantly longer and less convenient routes. By identifying these high-centrality nodes, campus planners can prioritize accessibility improvements, ensure regular maintenance, and develop contingency plans to minimize disruptions in campus mobility.



**Fig. 6.** Distribution of Betweenness Centralities.

## Conclusion

UCLA struggles with campus accessibility for the physically disabled. We modelled the university with a network, dividing it into nodes and edges that represent pedestrian pathways and intersections. We weight the network with the travel times for each node and use shortest path algorithms to identify optimized pathways. We employ centrality measures to highlight key locations and potential engineering solutions.

621 We struggled with the integration of elevation APIs which  
622 limited the insights we could draw. However we were very  
623 successful in producing a comprehensive network of campuses  
624 with accurate travel times that enable us to find optimal  
625 paths for physically disabled individuals.

626 For our future steps, we aim to enhance our model by  
627 incorporating elevation data through a reliable and accurate  
628 elevation API. Elevation plays a crucial role in determining  
629 the accessibility of pathways, especially for individuals who  
630 use wheelchairs or have limited mobility. Integrating elevation  
631 data will not only increase the precision of our model but  
632 also enable us to evaluate the incline of each path to ensure  
633 it remains within the maximum allowable incline of 8%, as  
634 specified by ADA (Americans with Disabilities Act) standards.  
635 This addition will significantly improve our ability to identify  
636 paths that are not wheelchair-friendly and guide users toward  
637 more accessible routes, as well as more accurately calculate  
638 the travel times for all the paths. We would like to create some  
639 sort of software that can detect locations that are primed for  
640 potential infrastructure changes, since we currently do not  
641 have an algorithm to propose new design changes on campus.  
642 Developing an algorithm that can analyze traffic patterns,  
643 betweenness centralities, and accessibility metrics could help  
644 identify bottlenecks, high-traffic zones, or steep inclines that  
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646 where new paths, ramps, or better signage could enhance  
647 accessibility, we can assist campus planners in making data-  
648 driven decisions. Finally, we hope to expand the scope of  
649 this project into other universities, since UCLA is not the  
650 only campus with accessibility issues. Our long-term goal is  
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652 to make their campuses more inclusive and accessible to all  
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