

# PST Documentation

PST is developed by KTH School of Architecture,  
Chalmers School of Architecture (SMoG) and  
Spacescape AB.

The latest released version of PST at the time of  
writing is 3.3.1

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The application is available via: <https://github.com/SMoG-Chalmers/PST/releases/tag/v3.3.1>  
Download: pstqgis\_3.3.1\_2024-11-01.zip

Documentation, data and tutorials are available via KTH and Chalmers:  
<https://www.smog.chalmers.se/pst>  
<https://www.arch.kth.se/forskning/urban-design/software>

The code is released under GNU Lesser General Public License and is available at <https://github.com/SMoG-Chalmers/PST>

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# PST Documentation

## 1. OVERVIEW

PST is an open source tool for performing spatial analyses. It combines the space syntax description of the urban environment with conventional descriptions of attraction into a combined accessibility analysis tool. It is currently available as a plugin for QGIS, an open source GIS software. Earlier PST versions are also available as a plugin for the MapInfo Professional GIS software.

PST is developed by KTH School of Architecture, Chalmers School of Architecture (SMoG) and Spacescape AB. Alexander Ståhle, Lars Marcus, Daniel Koch, Martin Fitger, Ann Legeby, Gianna Stavroulaki, Meta Berghauser Pont, Anders Karlström, Pablo Miranda Carranza, Tobias Nordström.

The software was first introduced in a paper by Ståhle, A., Marcus, L. and Karlström, A., (2005), "Place Syntax: Geographic accessibility with axial lines in GIS", published in the proceedings of the 5th Space Syntax Symposium held in Delft, the Netherlands.

### 1.1 Technical details

The latest released version of PST at the time of writing is 3.3.1.

PST for QGIS consists of two parts. The first part is written in Python and implements the user interface and all communication with QGIS. The second part is written in C++ and implements the analyses, algorithms and heavy calculations done by PST.

### 1.2 File formats

PST runs with MapInfo TAB (\*.tab) and Shapefiles (\*.shp).

## 2. The PST GRAPH

PST uses three geometric features: axial/segment lines, unlinks and attractions.

- Axial/segment lines are the representation of the street network used for the analyses. PST only supports line objects as network input (to create a line-only map, see section 5.1, 5.2). Both an Axial map and a Line-segment map can be used as input. A Line-segment map can be created directly in PST, either from an Axial map or a Road-centre-line map (see sections 5.1, 5.2). The *Axial map* is colloquially defined as the least amount of straight lines that cover all accessible urban space shaped by built form, where each straight line (axial line) represents an urban space that is possible to visually overlook and directly access. The Road-centre-line map, is a GIS-representation of the street network, where the geometric features are polylines representing street segments which span between street junctions.
- Unlinks are point features that specify the intersection points between axial/segment lines that should be ignored during the analyses (i.e. tunnels and bridges, overpasses and underpasses).
- Attractions specify points or areas of interest such as addresses, buildings or properties. They can be used as either origins or destinations in the Attraction analyses (see sections 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8).

All analyses start by creating a graph of the network using the following steps:

1. PST creates a network graph from the axial/segment lines. In that graph, every axial/segment line is a node and every intersection is an edge. When axial lines are used, intersections are defined as points where two or more lines intersect. When segment lines are used, intersections are defined as points where two or more lines meet (i.e. endpoints).<sup>1</sup> Figure 1
2. All Unlink points are traversed. Each Unlink point is compared against all intersection points in the axial/segment line network and the closest intersection found is removed from the graph (effectively disconnecting the intersecting lines).<sup>2</sup> Note, that in case of a Segment map the lines should cross and not meet at the points of the Unlinks, in order for them to be effectively disconnected. Figure 2

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1. The implementation uses a space partitioning tree to find intersections between lines efficiently.

2. Since unlinks are usually not that many, this step is currently implemented using a brute force algorithm of complexity  $O(m*n)$ .

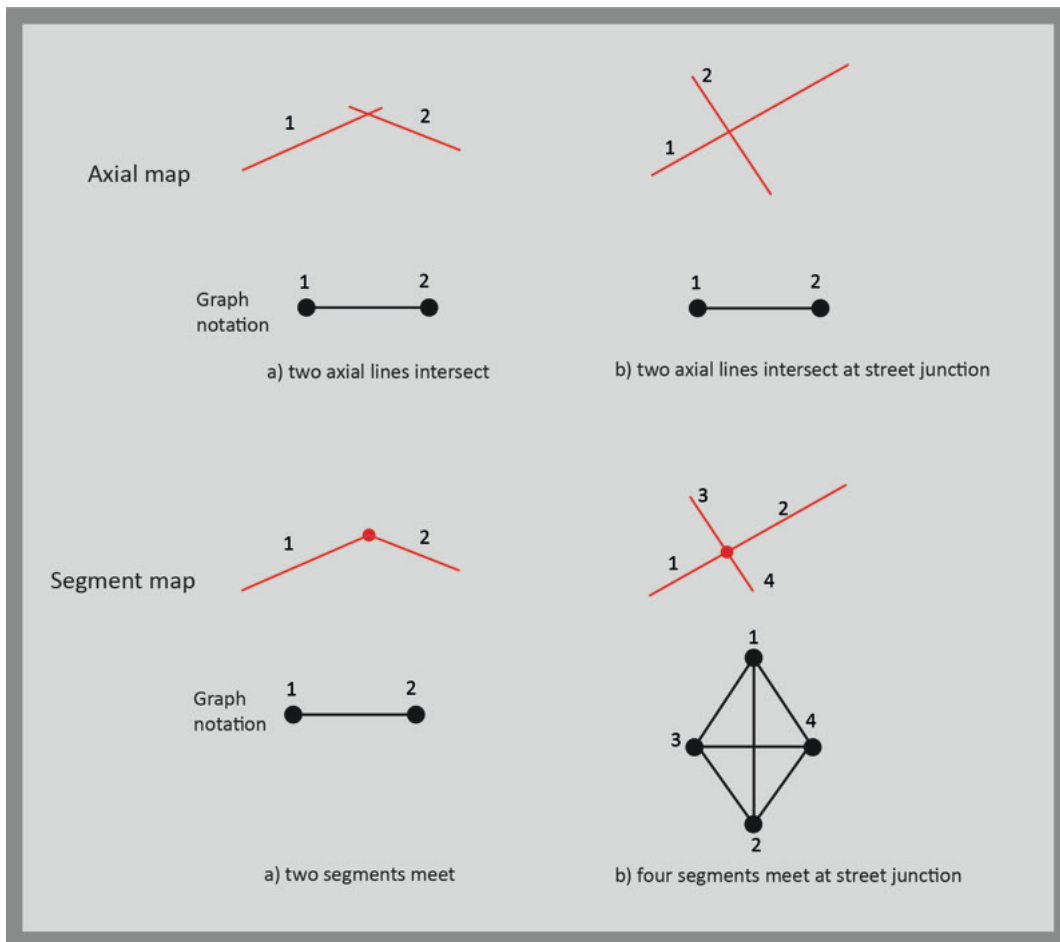


Fig 1. Graph notation of Axial and Line-segment map

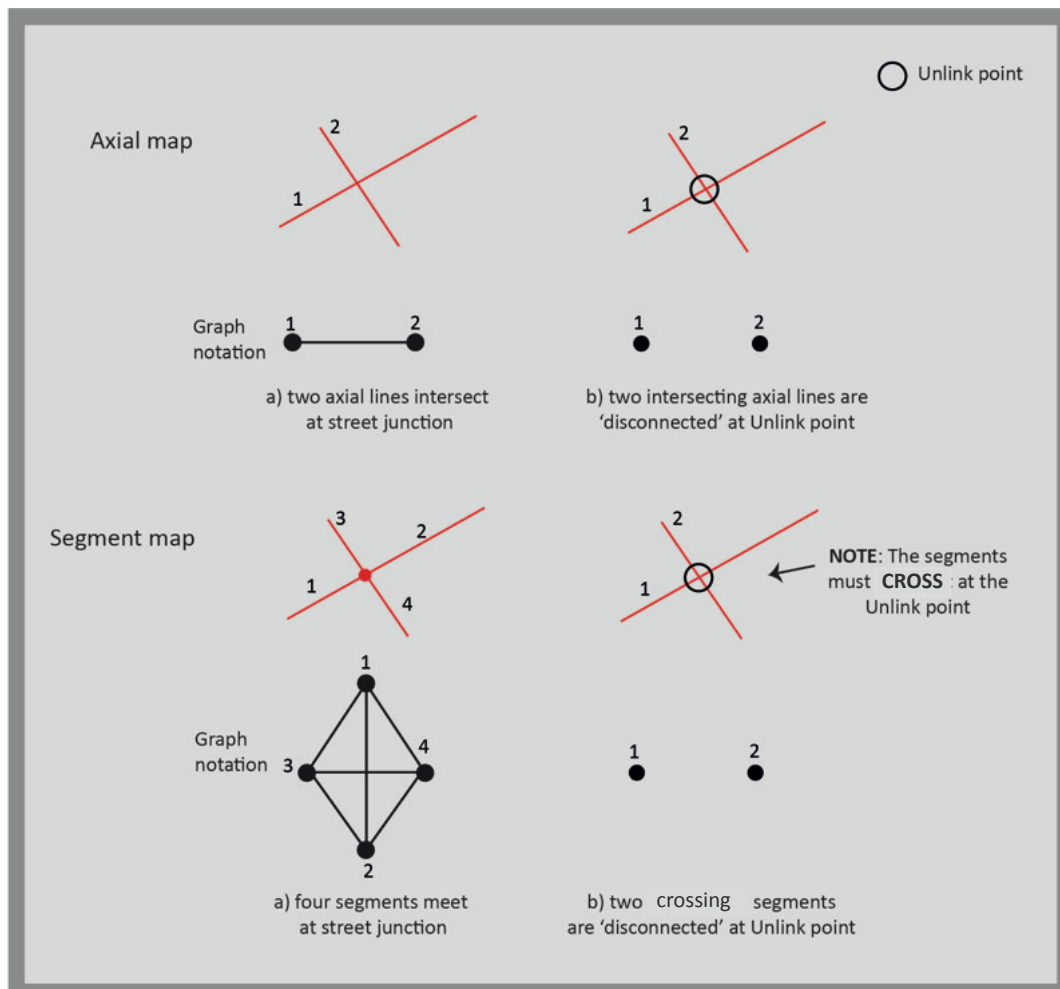


Fig 2. Representation of 'Unlinks' in Axial and Line-segment map

3. The final step (which is only applicable for Reach and the Attraction analysis, see sections 5.1, 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8) traverses all attraction points. Every attraction point is connected to the closest axial/segment line<sup>3</sup> and the distance of these connections will be incorporated in the analyses. PST also allows polygons or lines to be used as attractions. In the case of polygons, the user has to choose between either using the centroid of each polygon or to generate points along the edges of the polygon. The points are then connected in the same way as regular attraction points. When generating points along polygon edges the user can decide if the data associated with the polygon should be 'copied' to every generated point or 'divided' equally among them. For instance, in the first case, if two out of ten generated points of the polygon are reached from an origin, the result will be one reached destination. In the second case if two out of ten generated points are reached, the result will be 0,2 reached destination. When lines are used as origin or destination the distance is measured from their mid-points when distance is measured as straight line distance or walking distance (see section 3).

### 3. DISTANCE MODE

PST allows the user to choose among different ways of measuring distance in its analyses. The supported ways are:

- Straight line distance: Metric distance of the straight line connecting two points, as if there were no obstacles between them (i.e. Euclidean distance).
- Walking distance: Metric distance of the shortest 'walking' path connecting two points through the network, as defined in section 2 (following the axial or segment lines). Figure 3
- Axial/Segment steps: Topological distance or Depth between two nodes in the network. First the shortest topological path between two nodes is selected, that is the least set of edge-edge connections needed to get from node A to node B. Then the number of Steps in the shortest path between node A and node B is counted. It can also be defined as the number of Axial or Segment lines one has to pass to get from line A to line B, following the shortest path. Figure 4
- Angular distance: Accumulated angular turns needed to get from point A to point B in the network, as defined in section 2. First, the angular distance of all possible paths between A and B are calculated and the one with the least Angular distance is selected as the Shortest path. Angular distance between A and B is then calculated based in the Shortest path. Angular distance is measured in degrees and then divided by 90 (Hillier and Iida, 2005). Note that Angular distance should only be used with Segment maps. Figure 5
- Axialmeter: An experimental measurement that aims at combining axial/segment steps and walking distance, calculated as the product of the two (steps\*m).

Note that in all cases, the distance between point A and point B is measured following the Shortest path that connects them. First, the distance of all possible paths which connect A and B are calculated, using the specific Distance mode. The path with the minimum calculated distance is selected as the Shortest path, and all analyses are based on that.

### 4. RADIUS

PST allows the user to choose among different ways of setting a radius for limiting a search in all analyses. The supported ways of setting radius in PST are similar to distance mode: Straight line distance, Walking distance, Axial/Segment steps, Angular distance, Axialmeter (for description on how they are measured see section 3).

The user can choose different options for Distance mode and Radius. For example, one can choose Angular distance in the Distance mode options, but set the Radius for the analysis based on a walking distance. The user can use different radii at the same calculation, in which case the search will stop when the first limit is reached. For example, one can choose Walking distance of 1km and Topological distance (Axial/Segment steps) of 3 steps. The search will stop, for example, when it reaches 3 steps even if the Walking distance is less than 1km.

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3. The closest line is defined either by measuring the perpendicular distance of the attraction point to a line or by measuring the distance of the attraction point to the closest end-point of a line, depending on whether the perpendicular projection of the attraction point falls on the line or not.

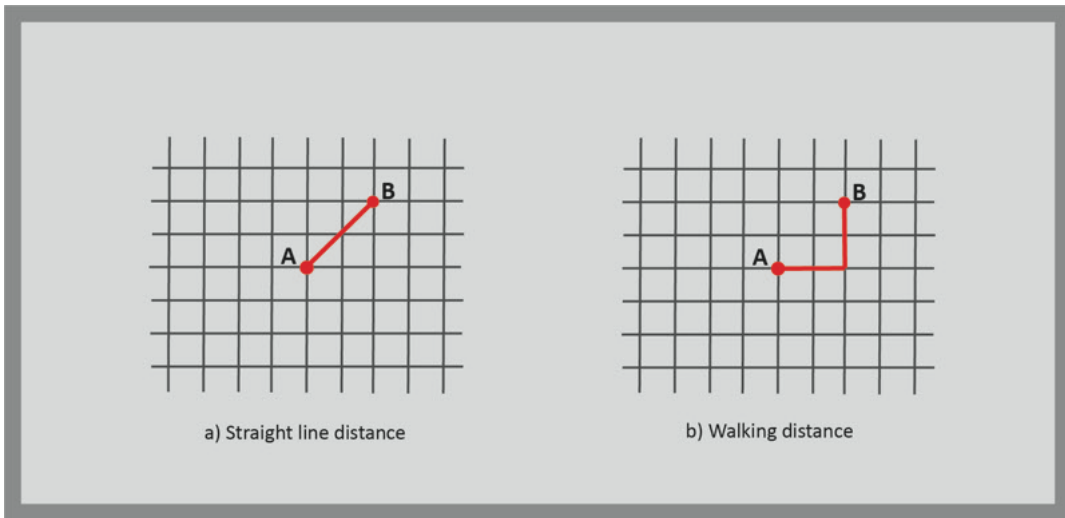


Fig 3. Straight line distance and Walking distance

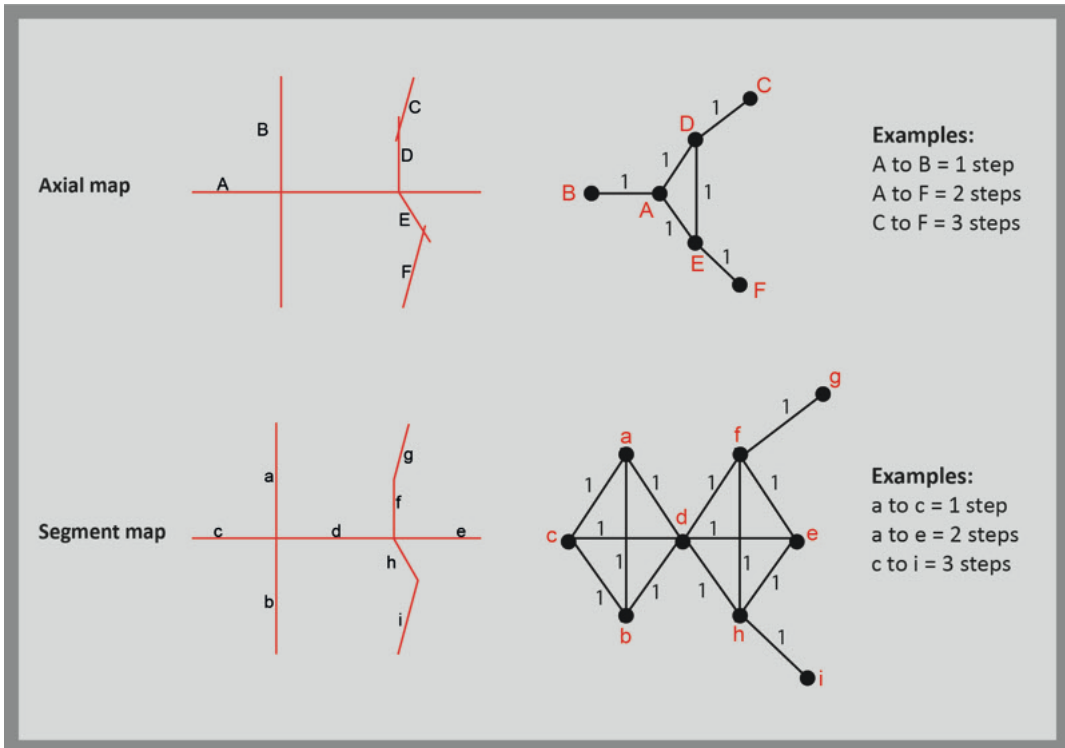


Fig 4. Distance in Axial and Segment steps

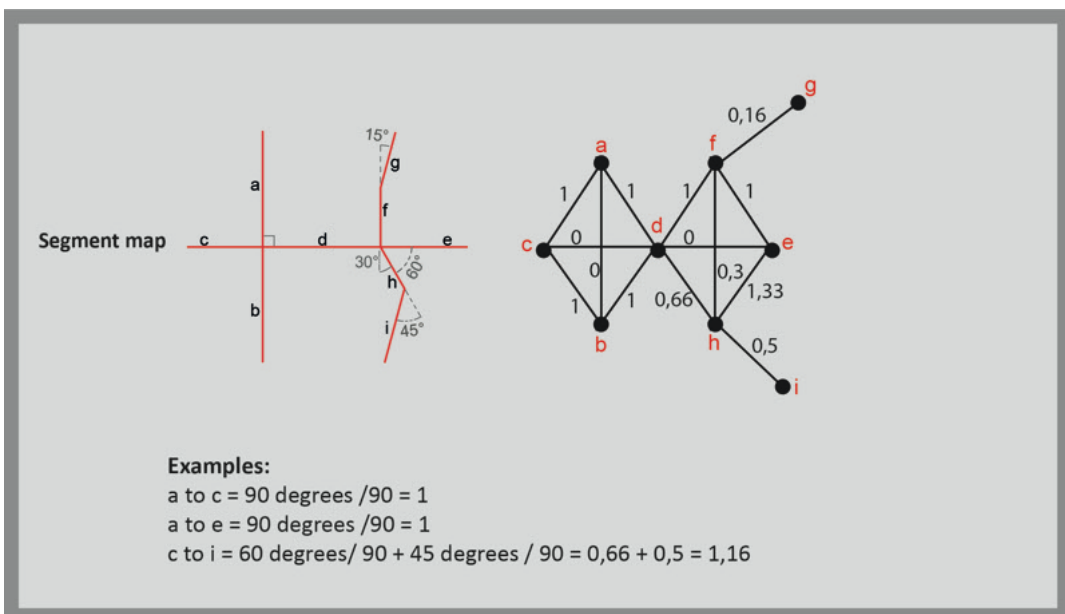


Fig 5. Angular distance in Segment maps

## 5. TOOLS

### 5.1 Create Segment Map

This tool converts a map that consists of lines and/or polylines into a line-segment map. The input can be an Axial map, a Segment map or a Road-centre-line map. The user selects between two options: Axial/Segment map or Road Segment Line map. When the input is a Road Centre Line map, the tool creates both the line-segment map and a map of Unlink points, identifying the points of grade separation (i.e. bridges, tunnels), when the source dataset has this information included (**please see Appendix B for more information**). When the input is Axial/Segment map then the user must provide the Unlink point layer and prepare the input network accordingly (**please see Appendix B for more information and guidance**). The output is a line-segment map in both cases.

The conversion procedure is the following:

FOR INPUT: AXIAL / SEGMENT MAP

1. PST finds and creates a list of all intersections between all pairs of lines and polylines.
2. If a table of unlink points is supplied, then for each unlink point PST finds the closest intersection and removes it from the list.
3. For each remaining intersection in the list, PST splits lines and polylines in line-segments at the intersection point.

FOR INPUT: ROAD CENTRE LINES

1. PST finds points in the RCL where lines cross and not meet (i.e. points of grade separation).
2. PST outputs a 'point' layer of the points found in step 1 and names the layer 'unlinks'.

The following editing procedures are applied for all input maps. PST:

1. Snaps together all line end-points that are closer than a specified threshold. The threshold is defined by the user.
2. Removes duplicate lines (lines sharing same end-points).
3. Removes lines of zero length (snapping might produce lines of zero length which need to be removed).
4. Removes Tail lines using a specified threshold defined by the user. Tail lines are defined as all lines on the path from a dead-end to the closest junction (a point connecting three or more lines). Lines are removed one-by-one, starting with the dead-end line, until the total accumulated length of the removed lines has reached the specified threshold. This function is especially useful when converting an Axial map into a Line-segment map, a procedure that creates a lot of tail segments.
5. Merges two connected lines A and B into one line if the collinear<sup>4</sup> deviation of the three points that make up the two lines is lower than a specified threshold defined by the user. Merging is not allowed if lines A and B originate from separate polylines, or if they connect at a junction. This function is especially useful when converting a Road-Centre-line map into a Line-segment map, a procedure that creates a lot of small almost collinear segments. Figure 6 and 7

The tool has an option for copying one of the columns of the original table to the output table. This makes it possible to associate the lines of the segment map to their original lines/polylines, by for example choosing to copy the ID column.

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4. Three or more points are said to be collinear if they lie on a single straight line. The "straightness" is defined by the threshold.



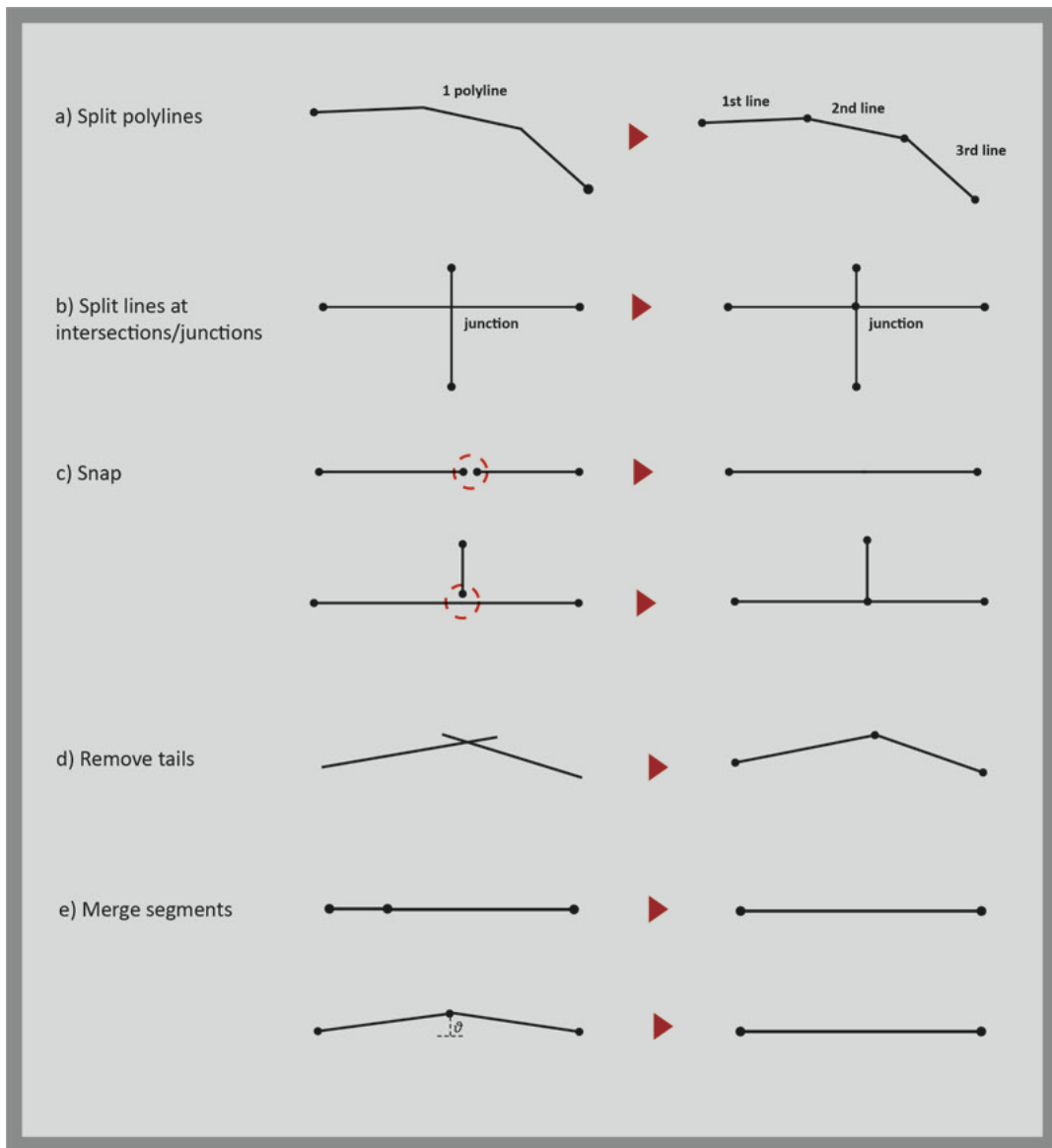


Fig 6. Examples of Editing operations in 'Create Segment map' tool

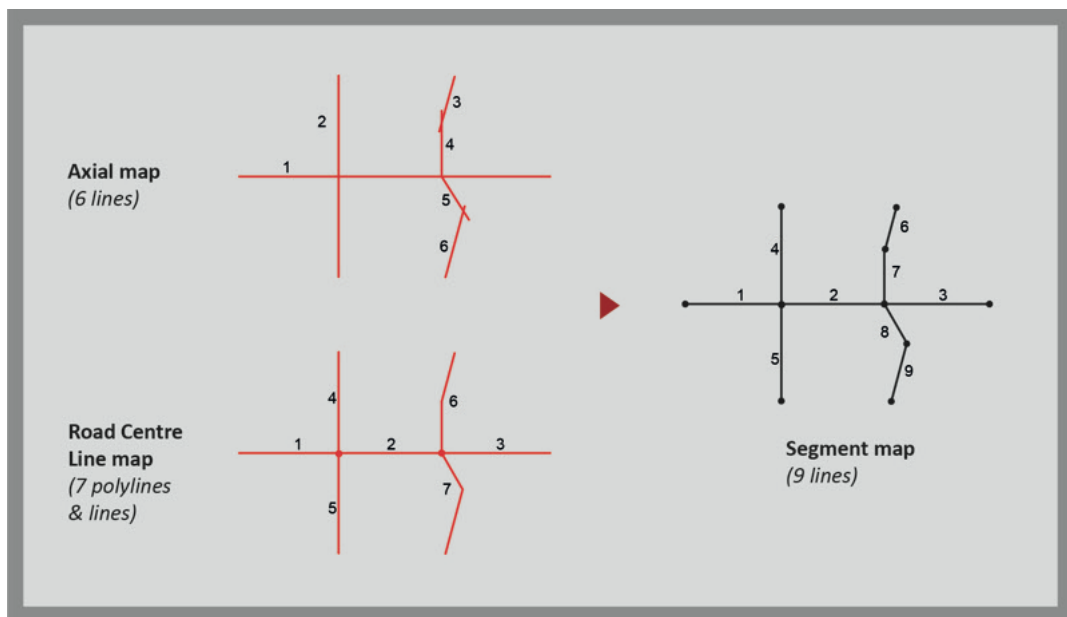


Fig 7. Example of Segment map created from Axial map and Road Centre Line map using 'Create Segment map' tool

## 5.2 Create Junctions

This tool intersects lines from one or two tables and outputs a new table with all intersection points/junctions. If a table with the Unlink points is also uploaded, then the points that overlap with unlink points will be excluded from the output table.

When one input table is used, a junction is defined as a point where three or more lines meet (in case of a Segment map), or where two lines intersect (in case of an Axial map). Note that the intersection point should be far enough from each line's end-points. The threshold used for this is 2% of the line's length.

When two input tables are used, a junction is defined at the point where lines from the different tables touch or intersect. Touching or intersecting lines from the same table will in this case not generate a junction.

## 6. ANALYSES

### 6.1 Reach

Reach is defined as the part of the network that is reachable from each line of the network within a given radius. Depending on the settings, the analysis can output the number of reachable lines, the total length of all reachable lines<sup>6</sup>, or the reachable area. In the last case, the area is calculated as the area of the convex hull, defined by the end-points of all reachable lines. Figure 9 and 10

Supported Radius are straight line distance, walking distance, axial/segment steps, angular and axialmeter (see section 3 for more info).

The user can also use a different table of Origins, from which the reachable part of the network is calculated. In case the Origins are the lines of the network, these are also included in the calculation. In case of another table of Origins, the distance to the closest line is included in the calculation (see section 2, point 3). A line is classified as being reachable if its mid-point can be reached within the given radius.

In the first step of the analysis a graph is built from the in-data (see section 2). Then, a breadth-first search is performed from every node in the graph to find all reachable nodes within the defined radius.

Parallel calculations of Reach are available, meaning that the user can calculate the Number of reachable lines, the Total length of all reachable lines and the Reachable area, using the same Radius, at the same time.

### 6.2 Network Integration

Network Integration calculates how many turns have to be made from each line to reach all other lines in the network, using shortest paths. This measure thus shows, for each and every line, how many steps (measured topologically) this line is away from all other lines in the network. The measure was first introduced in 'Social logic of Space' (Hillier and Hanson, 1984).

Distance is measured in axial/segment steps depending on which network (axial map or segment map) is used (see section 3). It is recommended to use the Axial map for calculating Network Integration. When a segment map is used, it is recommended to use Angular Integration (see section 6.3). The supported radius is axial steps (i.e. topological) (see section 3 for more details).

In the first step of the analysis a graph is built from the in-data (see section 2). Then for each line in the graph:

1. A breadth-first search limited by the given radius is performed. During the search the number of reached lines  $N$  (including origin line) is calculated, as well as the total sum of shortest distances to all the lines (TD).
2. Mean depth is calculated as:

---

5. The algorithm runs at a time complexity of  $O(n \log n)$  where  $n$  is number of lines in the source table.

6. This measure is related to Metric Reach as introduced by Peponis et al., 2008.

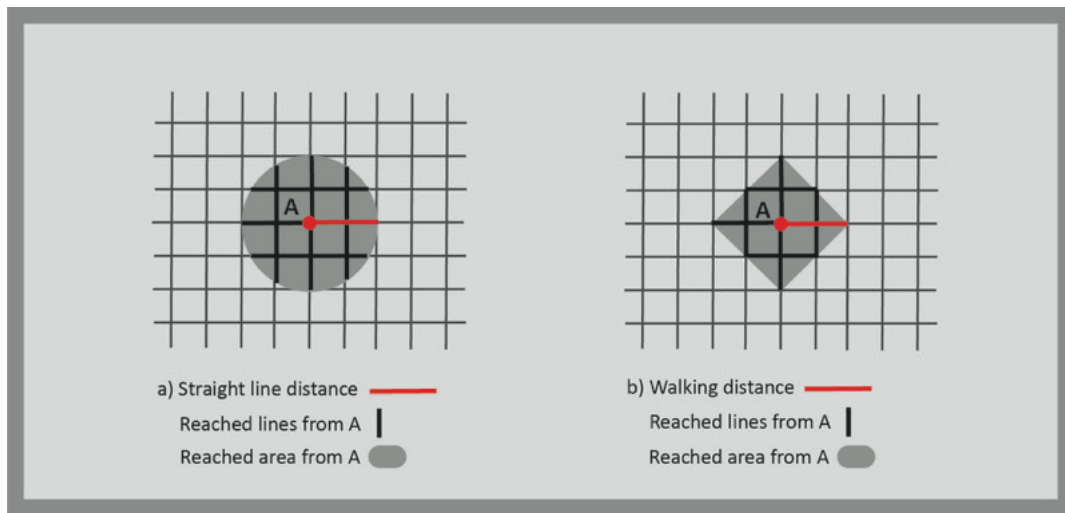


Fig 9. Example of 'Reach' using a) straight line distance and b) walking distance

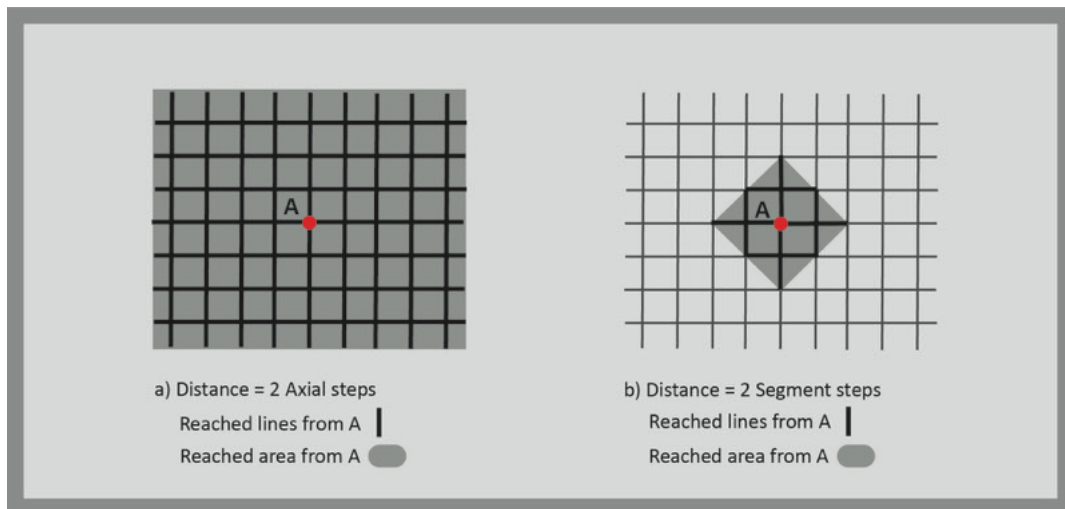


Fig 10. Example of 'Reach' using a) axial steps and b) segment steps

$$MD = TD / (N - 1) \quad (1)$$

where

TD = total depth or sum of shortest distances to reached lines

N = node count or number of reached nodes (including origin node)

3. Relative asymmetry is calculated as:

$$RA = 2(MD - 1) / (N - 2) \quad (2)$$

4. "D-Value" is calculated as:

$$D = 2((\log_2((N + 2) / 3) - 1) * N + 1) / ((N - 1) * (N - 2)) \quad (3)$$

5. Real Relative Asymmetry is calculated as:

$$RRA = RA / D \quad (4)$$

6. Finally, the integration value for the line is calculated as:

$$I = 1 / RRA \quad (5)$$

The user can choose to output also Mean depth (MD), Node count (N) and Total depth (TD) in the result table.

The user can also choose to 'Store average scores at junctions', including Network Integration, Mean depth (MD), Node count (N) and Total depth (TD).

### 6.3 Angular Integration

Angular Integration calculates the Angular distance between one line and every other line in the network, using shortest paths. Angular distance is defined as the accumulated angular turns needed to get from line A to line B in the network, through the shortest path (see section 3 for more details). Angular distance is measured in degrees and then divided by 90 (Iida and Hillier, 2005). This analysis is only applicable to Segment maps.

When calculating the distance along the path of three segments A, B and C, the distance from A to C is calculated as the angular deviation between A and B plus the angular deviation between B and C.

When calculating the angular deviation between two pairs of segments the angle is rounded to the closest multiple of specified angle precision (specified in the user interface). Another option is available called angle threshold. All angles lower than this threshold value will be truncated to zero. In other words, if the angle threshold is set at 10 degrees, all angular turns below 10 degrees will not be included in the shortest path calculation.

The supported radius measuring modes are straight line distance, walking distance, axial/segment steps and angular (see section 4 for more details).

The first step of the analysis builds a graph from the in-data (see step 1 & 2 in section 2). Then for each line in the graph:

1. A breadth-first search limited by the given radius is performed. During the search the number of reached nodes  $N$  (including origin node) is calculated, as well as the angular depth  $D$  (measured in degrees turned divided by 90) of all reached lines.
2. Depending on selected normalization mode the line gets the integration value for:

Normalization (Turner 2007)<sup>7</sup>:

$$AI(x) = \frac{N-1}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)} \quad (6)$$

Syntax normalization (NAIN):

$$AI_A(x) = \frac{N^{1.2}}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)} \quad (7)$$

Normalization (Hillier):

$$AI_H(x) = \frac{N^2}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)} \quad (8)$$

where

$N$  = node count or number of reached nodes (including origin node)

$D(x, i)$  = angular depth of  $i$  in relation to  $x$

---

7. This is same formula as in Turner (2007) page 544, but with an extra +1 in divisor to avoid division by zero.

The analysis also offers an option for weighing by length. When this option is chosen the integration values are instead calculated as follows:

*Normalization (Turner 2007) :*

$$AI(x) = \frac{\sum_{i \neq x} l(i)}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)l(i)} \quad (9)$$

*Syntax normalization (NAIN):*

$$AI_A(x) = \frac{(\sum_{i \neq x} l(i))^{1.2}}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)l(i)} \quad (10)$$

*Normalization (Hillier):*

$$AI_H(x) = \frac{(\sum_{i \neq x} l(i))^2}{1 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)l(i)} \quad (11)$$

The user can choose to output also Mean depth (MD), Node count (N) and Total depth (TD) in the result table.

Note that Angular Integration does not require a table with the Unlink points. However, the unlinked Segments should be properly represented in the Segment map (see Section 2.2).

Parallel calculations of Angular Integration are also available, meaning that the user can choose different Normalization formulas, at the same time.

## 6.4 Network Betweenness

Network Betweenness calculates how often a line falls on the shortest path between all pairs of lines in a network, or how many shortest paths pass through it. In other words, lines (axial lines or segments) which control and mediate movement and connections between many other lines in the system have a high betweenness value.

Betweenness B of a node x is calculated as follows:

$$B(x) = \sum_{s \neq x \neq t} \frac{\sigma_{st}(x)}{\sigma_{st}} \quad (12)$$

where s and t are nodes in the network different from x,  $\sigma_{st}$  denotes the number of shortest paths from s to t, and  $\sigma_{st}(x)$  is the number of shortest paths from s to t that pass through x. A shortest path between two nodes s and t is only counted once (i.e. undirected graph), that is, a node is not scored twice for being on the shortest path from both s to t and t to s. End nodes of a shortest path are not given a score (hence all tail segments in a network will get a score of zero). Figure 11

Distance can be measured in different ways. Available options are walking distance, axial/segment steps, angular and axialmeter. The supported radii are straight line distance, walking distance, axial/segment steps, angular and axialmeter (see section 3 and 4 for more details).

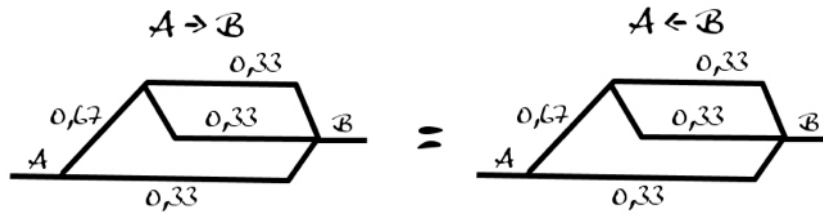


Fig 11. Network Betweenness

The analysis has an option for weighing the scores by line length or other segment data. When By segment length is chosen every segment on the shortest path between two pairs of segments A and B will be given the score Length of A \* Length of B, instead of 1 point as in the non-weighted mode. When By segment data is chosen, instead of segment length the user can select any other data column X from the segment table. Every segment on the shortest path between two pairs of segments A and B will then be given the score X of A \* X of B.

The analysis offers several normalization modes. The formulas used in the different modes are:

*No normalization:*

Values will be calculated according to formula (12).

*Normalization (Turner 2007):*

Normalization for a node x is done by dividing by number of node pairs excluding x:

(13)

$$B_T(x) = \frac{B(x)}{(N-1)(N-2)/2}$$

where N = Node count or number of reached nodes (including origin node).

*Standard normalization (0-1):*

Values will be rescaled to 0-1 range:

(14)

$$B_S(x) = \frac{B(x) - \min(B)}{\max(B) - \min(B)}$$

In the exception where  $\min(B) = \max(B)$  nodes will get score 1.

The user can choose to output also Mean depth (MD), Node count (N) and Total depth (TD) in the result table.

Parallel calculations of Network Betweenness are available, meaning that the user can choose different Normalization and Weighting formulas, at the same time.

## 6.5 Angular Betweenness

Angular Betweenness is Network Betweenness, with the difference that the distance mode used to define the shortest paths is Angular, meaning the accumulated angular turns needed to get from point A to point B (see Section 3).

For Angular Betweenness one more Normalisation option is added to the previous ones (12,13,14):

Syntax normalization (NACH)<sup>8</sup>:

Values are calculated according to formula:

(15)

$$B_c(x) = \frac{\log(B(x)+1)}{\log(2 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i))}$$

where  $D(x,i)$  = depth of  $i$  in relation to  $x$ .

### 6.6 Angular Choice

Angular Choice is very similar to Angular Betweenness. The two analyses share the same base implementation in PST, but with some differences. The scoring is done the same way as in Angular Betweenness, but every path is counted twice, one for every direction (i.e. directed graph).

The two analyses also differ when it comes to distributing scores when several equally long shortest distances are found between two segments. In Angular Betweenness, for a given pair of segments A and B the score  $1/\sigma_{AB}$  (where  $\sigma_{AB}$  is number of shortest paths between A and B) is added to each segment along each of the shortest paths. In Angular Choice on the other hand, a traversal of the paths from A to B is done, initially with a score of 1, and for every fork in the path the score is divided equally among the forking paths (Hillier et al, 2012; Turner, 2007). When forking paths later join up, their respective scores are summed together as the traversal continues towards B. During the traversal every segment that is passed is given the current score of that current forking path, making the scoring direction dependant. Figure 12

The formulas in the different normalization modes available are as follows:

*No normalization:*

The scores from the algorithm described above will be outputted without modification.

*Normalization (Turner 2007):*

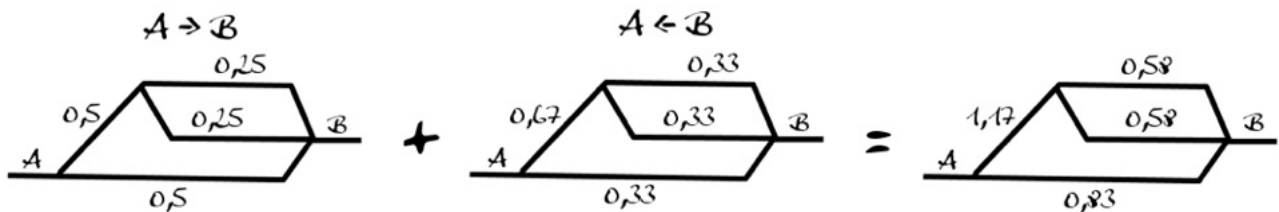


Fig 12. Angular Choice

Normalization for a node  $x$  is done by dividing by number of node pairs excluding  $x$ :

(16)

$$CH_T(x) = \frac{CH(x)}{(N-1)(N-2)}$$

where  $N$  = Node count or number of reached nodes (including  $x$ ).

*Standard normalization (0-1):*

Values will be rescaled to 0-1 range:

(17)

$$CH_S(x) = \frac{CH(x) - \min(CH)}{\max(CH) - \min(CH)}$$

In the exception where  $\min(B) = \max(B)$  nodes will get score 1.

Syntax normalization (NACH)<sup>9</sup>:

8. This is the same formula as in Hillier et al (2012, p 191) developed for Angular choice, but with +2 instead of +3 in divisor since PST doesn't have to account for possible -1 values like Depthmap does.

Values are calculated according to formula:

$$NAChoice(x) = \frac{\log(CH(x)+1)}{\log(2 + \sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i))} \quad (18)$$

where  $D(x,i)$  = depth of  $i$  in relation to  $x$ .

The user can choose to output also Mean depth (MD), Node count (N) and Total depth (TD) in the result table.

This analysis is only applicable to Segment maps.

Note that Angular Choice does not require a table with the Unlink points. However, the unlinked Segments should be properly represented in the Segment map (see Section 2.2)

Parallel calculations of Network Betweenness are available, meaning that the user can choose different Normalization and Weighting formulas, at the same time.

### 6.7 Attraction Distance

Attraction Distance calculates the minimum distances from each object of a set of origins, through a network, to the closest object of a set of destinations. The available Distance modes and Radii are: straight line distance (m), walking distance (m), axial/segment lines (steps), angle (degrees) and axialmeter (steps\*m) (see section 3 and 4 for more details).

Attraction distance AD for a given origin  $o$  is calculated as:

$$AD(o) = \min_{a \in A} (D(o, a)) \quad (19)$$

where

$A$  = the set of reachable attractions within given radius

$D(o,a)$  = shortest distance from origin  $o$  to attraction  $a$ .

There are three different types of origins that can be used: points/polygons, axial/segment lines and junctions. For the first alternative, points/polygons, the user specifies a separate table of origin objects. These objects will be linked to their closest line in the network, including the distance between object and line. The calculated minimum distances from these objects to the destinations will be written in a new column in the origin table. The second option, axial/segment lines, will calculate minimum distance from the lines of the network itself and write the calculated distances to a new column in the network table (see section 2, point 3, for more details). Finally, the third option, junctions, will generate a new point table with a point at every junction, and will calculate distances from these points, as well as write the calculated distances to a column of this new table.

Minimum distance can be measured for any destinations element, but destinations can also be weighed by data using one of the columns in the destination table. The user can choose more than one weight (i.e. column) per destination which will result in an equal amount of output columns.

The first step of the analysis builds a graph from the in-data (see step 1-3 in section 2). Then for each origin object in the analysis:

1. Depending on origin type (see above) the initial link distance to the network is added as an initial distance.
2. A breadth-first search limited by the given radius is then performed in the network graph. During the search the minimum distance travelled to each line of the network is calculated.

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9. This is the same formula as in Hillier et al (2012, page 191), but with +2 instead of +3 in divisor since PST doesn't have to account for possible -1 values like Depthmap does.



3. For each reached line in the network, its list of connected attraction points is traversed, and minimum distance to attractions is updated if a shorter distance than previously encountered is found.
4. If no attraction was found within the given radius, a score of -1 will be assigned to the origin object.

Parallel calculations of Attraction Reach are available for different Weighting of Destinations at the same time. Parallel calculations are also possible for different Distance modes.

### 6.8 Attraction Reach

Attraction Reach calculates, for each object in a set of origin objects, the sum of all attractions from a set of attraction objects that can be reached via the network within a by the user defined radius (see section 3 for distance modes and section 4 for radii available).

The implementation of the analysis is similar to the Attraction Distance analysis. In-data is handled in the same way, and the same algorithm is used (see section 6.6 for more details), but for every attraction that is reached its score is added to the score of the origin object.

Attraction reach AR for a given origin  $o$  is calculated as:

$$AR(o) = \sum_{a \in A} (f(a)w(D(o, a))) \quad (20)$$

where

$A$  = the set of reachable attractions within given radius

$f(a)$  = attraction value associated with attraction  $a$ , or 1 if no attraction value is used

$D(o, a)$  = shortest distance from origin  $o$  to attraction  $a$

$w(x)$  = attenuation function

Besides the option that all destinations are counted equally, the destinations can also be weighed by data using one of the columns in the destination table. The user can choose more than one weight (i.e. column) per destination which will result in an equal amount of output columns.

It is further possible to specify an exponential function (i.e. Attenuation functions) of the path length by choosing one of the available functions or defining one manually. This will be applied to every attraction score before adding the result to the origin object.

Parallel calculations of Attraction Reach are available for different Weighting of Destinations at the same time.

### 6.9 Attraction Betweenness

Attraction Betweenness re-uses the functionality of the Network Betweenness analysis (see section 6.4), but adds functionality for assigning weights to the lines from a table with attractions.

Each attraction point (or if polygons or lines are used, their centroid resp. midpoint) is assigned to the closest line (see section 2, point 3, for more details) in the network, and selected data is transferred from the point to the line. The collected scores on each line are then used as weight in the same way as length is used as weight in Network Betweenness (length weight). The main difference is that another table can be used to weigh the lines.

The formulas in the different normalization modes available are No normalization and Standard normalization (see 5.4 for more details).

Parallel calculations of Attraction Betweenness are available for different Weighting of Destinations at the same time. Parallel calculations are also possible for different Distance modes and Normalizations.

## 7. SEGMENT GROUP ANALYSIS

### 7.1 Segment grouping

This experimental function is inspired by different explorations regarding angular distance (Stavroulaki et al 2017, Peponis et al 2008, Figueiredo 2015, Jang and Claramunt 2004) and the angular deviation which is considered to be perceptually significant for the moving person.

The tool uses a Line-segment map and modifies the graph on the fly, based on two different options:

1. The user first chooses an 'Angular threshold' under which all changes of direction are ignored and are not considered as graph edges. For example, if a 30 degrees threshold is used, then an angular distance (deviation) of less than 30 degrees between line-segments will be disregarded, and the respective segments will be grouped on the fly and analysed as collinear.

2. Then, the user decides whether or not to 'Split at junctions', meaning whether or not include street junctions as graph edges, even when they lead to a direction change that is zero or below the specified threshold; meaning that street junctions are considered significant, irrespectively of the actual change of direction.

The tool offers the possibility to use the same line-segment map and create different graphs on the fly, based on these different settings.

Both graph-edges and graph-nodes change in the background of the analysis. Line segments are grouped on the fly, to form segment-groups depending on the parameters chosen; these groups are the graph nodes. Figure 13

The user has the option to visualise the different segment-groups formed by the chosen settings in a new QGIS layer, where they are given different colours, by choosing: 'Generating minimal disjunct colours' and 'Apply generated colours to map'.

This background operation doesn't change the integrity of the original data and the original Line-segment map; the line-segments remain unmodified. Imagine, for example, three segments which, according to the parameters of the analysis, are considered continuous and are 'compressed' to form one graph node; in the output table, they remain separate features and get the same Integration value (see Section 7.2).

For more information on the background and motivation of the tool see Stavroulaki et al 2017.

### 7.2 Segment group integration

The experimental tool, so far, calculates Network Integration at different radii (steps or walking distance), see Section 4. The difference from the typical Network Integration (Section 6.2) is the Node definition. Here, each node is a segment group, instead of one segment or one axial line. The formula is:

$$I_x = \frac{d(N-2)}{2\left(\frac{\sum_{i \neq x} D(x,i)}{N-1} - 1\right)} \quad (21)$$

Where,

"d-value" is calculated as:

$$d = 2((\log_2((N + 2) / 3) - 1) * N + 1) / ((N - 1) * (N - 2))$$

$D(x, i)$  = topological steps of the shortest path between  $i$  and  $x$

$N$  = node count or number of the formed segment-groups.

Also, Node Count, Total Depth and Mean Depth are outputted in the results. One can run different analyses

using a different set of parameters and the results of each calculation are written in the same table, making them easily comparable.

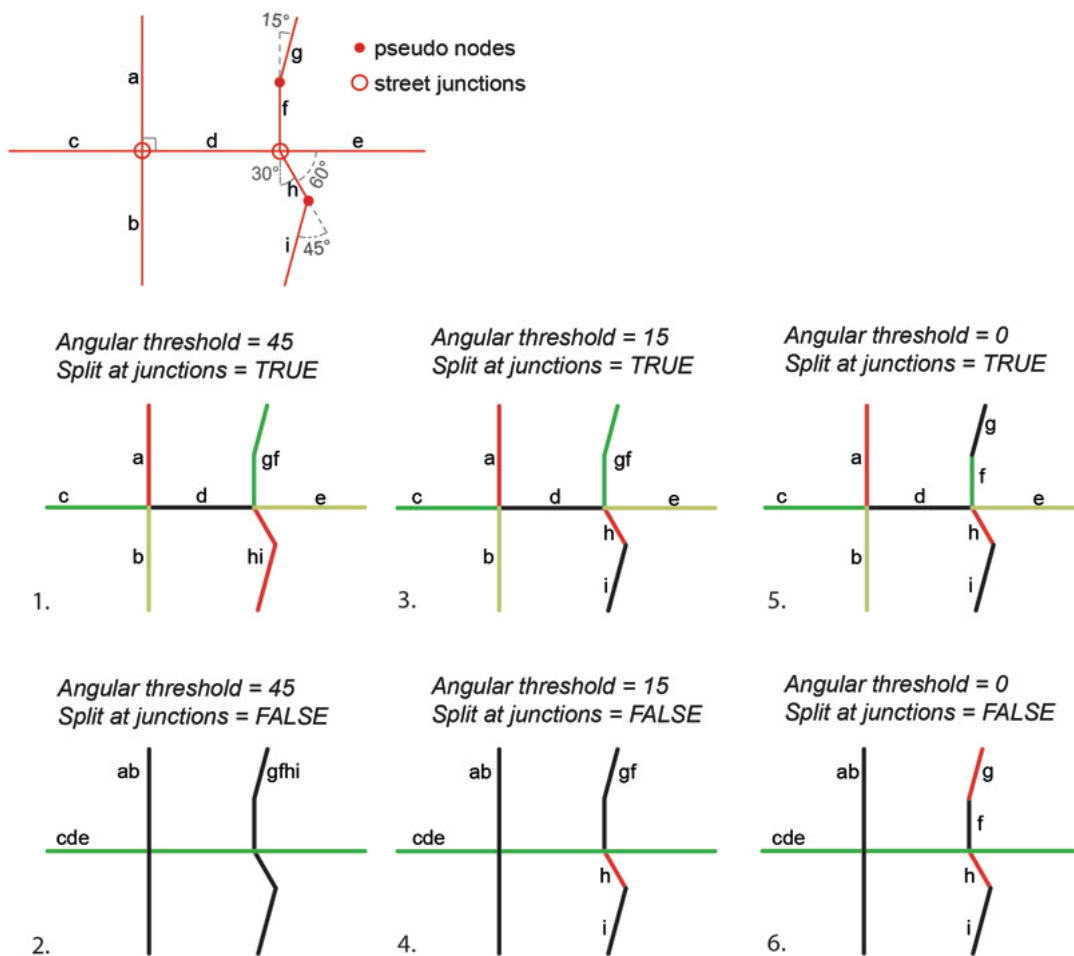


Fig 13. Variations of a Line-segment map; segment groups created on the fly using different parameters. Segment groups are separated by colour.

## 8. COMPARE RESULTS

'Compare results' is a new functionality added to PST. The function compares results of two versions of a street network analysed for the same measure (e.g. betweenness centrality). It exports informative vector and raster files visualising the differences of results between the two networks. The function aims to assist in scenario analysis and impact assessment by facilitating comparison of different alternatives of the same street network in relation to different analytical measures and spatial variables (e.g. before-after analyses).

Please see Section 8.2. for the full description.

### 8. 1. Input data

The user inputs two different Tables (e.g. shapefiles) representing two versions of the same street network, for example the existing situation and a future situation after planning interventions. The two networks should have been analysed in the same way and include the same attribute (i.e. analytical measure, variable) that will be used for comparison. For example, one can input two networks that have been analysed for Angular Betweenness centrality, radius 5km .

The user is asked to select the first Table named 'Value A' and the second Table named 'Value B'. When performing before-after analyses, Value A should include the attribute values of the existing situation ('before') and Value B should include the attribute values of the future scenario ('after').

The user is also asked to select the table 'Field', meaning the attribute (i.e. analytical measure, variable) that will be compared. The Field should have the same name in the two Tables, otherwise the comparison is not possible.

### 8.2. Comparison method

**A.** First, the line segments of the two networks are rasterised at the backend of the analysis, using the pixel size (meters) defined by the user. The pixel size defines the resolution of the rasters.

Each pixel is assigned the attribute value of the network line it intersects with. If a pixel intersects with multiple lines (e.g. at street intersections), then the pixel is assigned the sum of the values of these lines.

**B.** Second, the two raster layers are compared and the Difference of the values of the overlapping pixels is calculated, following the equation:

$$\text{Diff} = \text{Value B} - \text{Value A}$$

This Difference represents the change of the value (e.g. Angular betweenness) between Network A (Value A, 'before') and Network B (Value B, 'after').

A raster layer is created on-the-fly at the backend of the tool containing the calculated Difference pixel values. There can be positive and negative pixel values depending on if the value has increased or decreased between the 'before' (Value A) and the 'after' analysis (Value B).

**C.** Third, 'Gaussian blur' is performed on the raster layer of Step B, using a 'Blurring extent' defined by the user. Gaussian blur applies a smoothing effect by averaging out pixel values using a Gaussian distribution (a bell curve) over the surrounding pixels (see Figure 1). The 'Blurring extent' distance will be the standard deviation of this bell curve.

To define the 'Blurring extent' the user has two options:

- Define a custom distance in meters
- Chose the automatic distance defined as: pixel size x 7 (rounded to closest integer).

If the Blurring extent (1 std dev) is set to 50m, then each pixel value will spread diminishing for 150m (3 std dev) in each direction (Figure 1). The Gaussian blur helps visualising how each pixel (i.e. point in space) is influenced not only by its individual change (i.e. difference from Value A to Value B) but also by the changes of the surrounding pixels (Figure 2) and it highlights how accumulated changes are distributed in space.

It also helps consolidating between network lines that, although represent the same street segments, are slightly displaced or geometrically deviating in the two compared networks (A and B). With the Gaussian blur the change in the value (e.g. Angular Betweenness) between them is captured, although they are not identical geometrical features.

The smaller the Blurring extent distance the more limited the blurring effect.

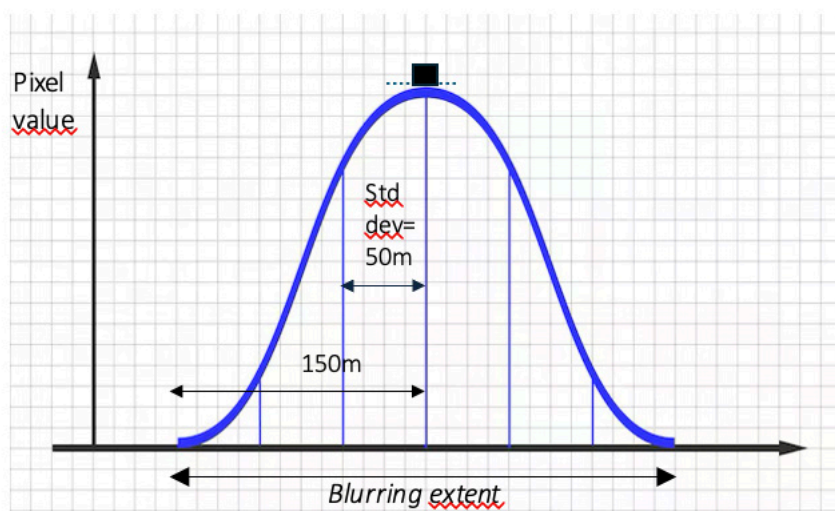


Figure 1. Gaussian blur of one pixel value

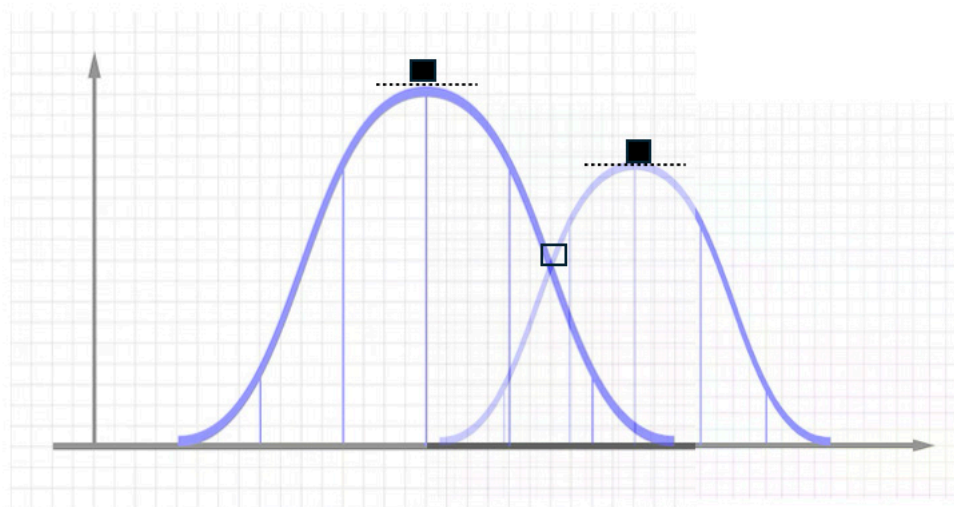


Figure 2. Overlapping blur of two pixel values in space

**D.** Based on the calculations of step C a new raster layer is created at the backend of the tool, with the pixel values normalised following the equation:

$$\text{Normalised change: } \frac{\Delta x_i}{\max\{|\Delta x_1|, |\Delta x_2|, \dots, |\Delta x_n|\}}$$

where  $\Delta x_i$  is the pixel value calculated in step C for pixel  $x_i$ .

Based on this equation the value change of each pixel is divided by the maximum absolute change in the whole raster, either negative or positive.

Result equal to zero (0) means no difference in pixel value (i.e. no change).

**E.** Based on the backend raster layer of Step D, with pixel values of Normalised change, two optional temporary layers can be exported, based on the user's selection.

1. Gradient Raster layer
2. Ranges Polygon layer

They are described in the following section.

### **8.3. Output layers**

#### **1. Gradient raster layer**

The pixel value changes calculated in Step D are visualised in a continuous colour spectrum in a [-1, 1] range: 1 represents a positive value change (increase) equal to the absolute maximum change, and -1 represents a negative value change (decrease) equal to the absolute maximum change. 0 (zero) represents no change.

The coloured raster visualises the normalised changes or, in other words, how the magnitude of change is distributed in space. It highlights where the bigger or the smaller value changes are, meaning which places have changed the most or the least comparing to the whole network. It also identifies places where the change is close to none comparing to the whole network.

\*As the output layer is temporary, the user needs to save it to make it permanent. To preserve the symbology in the permanent layer, the user can 'Save style' from the 'Layer Symbology' panel (Save style) or right click on the temporary layer and 'Copy style'. Then the user can use the saved style to visualise the permanent layer (Layer Symbology- Load style), or right click on the permanent layer and 'Paste style'. Another option is to choose to save in file formats that preserve the layer's symbology.

## 2. Ranges polygons layer

Vector contour lines create polygons that contain groups of pixels values based on the following categorisation and legend :

Category 0: 0.50 - 1.00 (-)  
Category 1: 0.25 - 0.50 (-)  
Category 2: 0.10 - 0.25 (-)  
Category 3: 0.01 - 0.10 (-)  
Category 4: 0.01 - 0.10 (+)  
Category 5: 0.10 - 0.25 (+)  
Category 6: 0.25 - 0.50 (+)  
Category 7: 0.50 - 1.00 (+)

Then minus (-) indicates that there is a negative change (decrease) and the plus sign that there is a positive change (increase). These polygons are coloured in a spectral colour range with blue representing the negative value changes and red the positive value changes, on a range from 0 to 1.

In simple words, polygons in the range of 0.50-1.00 (+) include the areas with the highest positive changes, meaning the pixels with the 50% highest changes compared to the whole layer. This is where the positive changes are the highest. Polygons in the range of 0.01-0.10 (-) indicate the areas where there is a negative change, but the smallest one compared to the whole layer. Polygons in the range of 0.25-0.50(+) include areas with a moderate positive change compared to the whole layer. As in the case of Gradient raster, the coloured polygons show how the magnitude of change is distributed in space.

\*As the output layer is temporary, the user needs to save it to make it permanent. To preserve the symbology in the permanent layer, the user can 'Save style' from the 'Layer Symbology' panel (Save style) or right click on the temporary layer and 'Copy style'. Then the user can use the saved style to visualise the permanent layer (Layer Symbology - Load style), or right click on the permanent layer and 'Paste style'. Another option is to choose to save in file formats that preserve the layer's symbology.

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# 10. APPENDIX A (Result column naming system)

Analysis	abbreviation	Distance mode (D)	abbreviation	Radius (R, N, AI, B, AB, AC)	unit (not expressed in name)	Weight mode (AI, B, AB, AC)	abbreviation	Normalization (A, B, AB, AC)	abbreviation
Reach	R	walking distance	w	straight line distance	meter (i)	no weight	-	no normalization	-
Network Integration	I	axial/segment steps	s	walking distance	meter (i)	weight by length	wl	NAIN	A
Angular Integration	AI	angular	a	axial/segment steps	n	by segment data	user defined (ii)	NACH	C
Network Betweenness	B	axialmeter	am	angular	degrees/90			Turner	T
Angular Choice	AC			axialmeter				Hillier	H
Angular Betweenness	AB							standard (D-1)	S

(i) maximum amount of characters 2

(ii) change 10000 in 1k etc.

*example*  
Bww1kw/C (analysis: Network Betweenness, distance mode: walking distance, radius: walking distance 1000 m, weighted by length, normalization: NACH)

### Extra output

Reach	abbreviation	unit	abbreviation
Number of reached lines	N	amount	-
Total length of reached lines	L	meter	-
Area of convex hull	a	square meter	m
		square kilometer	k
		hectare	ha

*example*  
R\_w\_w1000\_acv\_m (Reach, distance mode: walking distance, radius: walking distance 100 meter, area of convex, in square meter)

Network Integration <th>abbreviation</th> <th>node count <th>abbreviation</th> </th>	abbreviation	node count <th>abbreviation</th>	abbreviation
Angular Integration	AI	total depth	T
Network Betweenness	B	mean depth	M
Angular Betweenness	AB		
Angular Choice	AC		

Analysis	abbreviation	Distance mode (D, AT)	abbreviation	Radius (D, AR, AT)	unit (not expressed in name)	Radius distance decay (AR)	abbreviation	Destination weight (D, AR, AT)	abbreviation	Normalization (AT)
Attraction Distance	D	straight line distance	l	straight line distance	meter (i)	no decay	-	equally	-	no normalization
Attraction Reach	AR	walking distance	w	walking distance	meter (i)	by function (ii)	f	by data	-	standard (D-1)
Attraction Betweenness	AT	axial/segment steps	s	axial/segment steps	n				-	S
		angular	a	angular	degrees/90					
		axialmeter	am	axialmeter						

(ii) If more functions are chosen, they will overwrite one another (if all the other choices are similar)

(i) change 1000 in 1k etc.

(v) first two characters of table name OR user defined  
(v) first two characters of the column name OR user defined

*example*

## 10 APPENDIX B: Clarifications and tips on How to Create a segment map

PST offers the possibility to 'Create Segment map' using either Axial, Segment or Road Centre Line map as an input layer.

### Rules on how to select option for the 'Network type' at the 'Input Files' window:

1. When the user already has an accurate Unlinks layer, they are advised to use the 'Axial/Segment lines' as Network type, even if the source dataset is a Road Centre Line map.
2. Use 'Road Centre Lines' as network type, only when the input map is a Road Centre Line map. If the input map is an already segmented Road Centre Line map, then the Network type should be set to 'Axial/Segment Lines'. An accurate Unlinks layer should be included as well.
3. When new lines are added to a Segment map or modifications have been made, use again the 'Axial/Segment Lines' as Network type to create the updated Segment map. Include an updated accurate Unlinks layer.
4. If the Input file is an original Road Centre Line map, then the 'Create Segment map' function will result in a Segment map and an Unlinks layer. The Unlinks layer contains the points that have been identified by PST as points where the lines (streets, segments) do not touch at endpoints, but cross. In most Road Centre Line maps, the points where the lines touch are the points of level intersections and typical street junctions, while the points where the lines cross are the points of Grade separation where the streets do not connect (i.e bridges, tunnels, overpasses, underpasses) (e.g. NVDB Swedish National Road Dataset). See figure, for the different representation between level intersections and 'unlink' point situations (i.e. grade separation, bridges and tunnels). For these RCL maps the Create Segment Map will create a quite accurate Unlinks layer. However, the accuracy is not 100% so the user is advised to thoroughly check and correct it, if needed. In cases when the source Road Centre Line map does not follow this representational rule, the resulted Unlinks layer will not be correct and should be disregarded. The user should look for alternative ways to retrieve an accurate Unlinks layer.

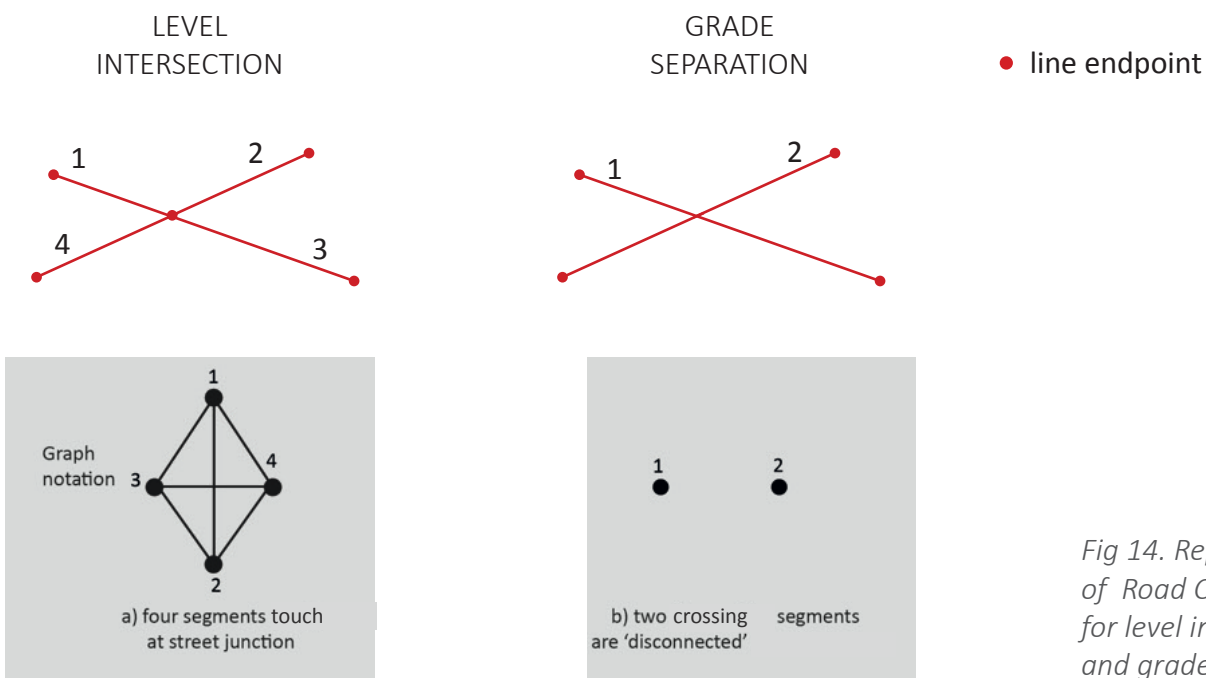


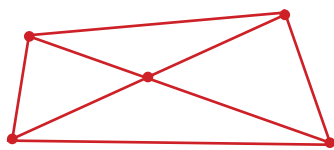
Fig 14. Representation of Road Centre Lines for level intersections and grade separation

## Rules on how to prepare the source network prior to using the 'Create segment map' tool:

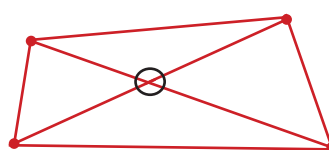
1. In order for the 'Create Segment Map' tool to result to an accurate line-segment map, the Input file network should follow certain representational rules concerning the points of Unlinks. It is not enough that the user inputs an accurate 'Unlinks' layer. The input Network should also follow the basic rule for the representation of intersections:

> lines (streets, segments, axial lines, road centre lines) with **endpoints touching** when there is a **typical level intersection**

> lines **cross** when there is **grade separation**, meaning that streets are not connected (i.e. bridges, tunnels, overpasses, underpasses)



5 level intersections  
(8 line-segments)



1 bridge or tunnel  
4 level intersections  
(6 line-segments)

○ unlink point  
● line endpoint

*Fig 15. Representation of Lines and 'Unlinks' for level intersections and grade separation*

The user should make sure that the network follows this rule prior to using the Create Segment map tool in order to create an accurate line-segment map. An accurate Unlinks layer should be used as well. See Figure 2 on how the Segment map should look regarding the intersections.

Since PST runs angular analyses just with a segment map without requiring an Unlinks layer, it is even more important that the Segment map used for the analyses is accurate.