## Supplementary Information for

# Graph-structured gravity model enhances transferable pedestrian flow prediction

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# 1 Data Summary

Supplementary Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all input variables used in model development and evaluation across the four study cities: Melbourne, Brisbane, Seattle, and Chicago. The variables include socio-demographic characteristics, built environment attributes, land-use composition, and network topology measures, computed separately for origins and destinations.

Land-use composition (e.g., percentage of commercial, educational, industrial, parkland, transport, and water areas) and the number of points of interest (POIs) are important for the attraction terms in gravity-based models. Network topology metrics—such as node degree, closeness, betweenness, PageRank, and core number—were computed using the pedestrian network graphs extracted from Open-StreetMap. These metrics capture structural differences between the four urban networks, which play a central role in TL-GNet's ability to learn transferable patterns.

The heterogeneity in population size, POI density, and network measures across cities highlights the importance of robust model architectures that can accommodate diverse urban forms and data distributions. This variability also provides a challenging testbed for evaluating model transferability across different spatial, socio-economic, and infrastructural contexts.

| Variable | Variable

Supplementary Table 1. Descriptive statistics of input variables across cities

# 2 Impact of Attraction Specification on Model Performance

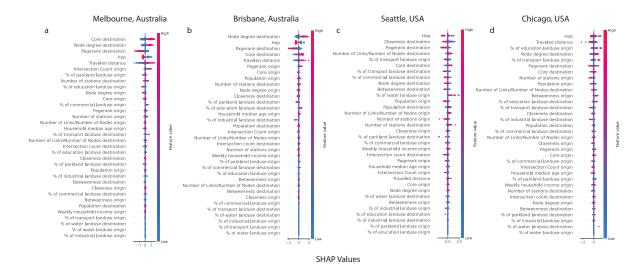
Supplementary Table 2 compares two alternative specifications of the destination attraction term in the gravity model across the four cities including a POI-based formulation ("POIs") and a land-use composition formulation ("Land mix"). Performance is reported using CPC, RMSE, NRMSE, Pearson correlation, and JSD. Results show modest differences between the two variants. In the Australian cases, Land mix yields slightly higher CPC and lower RMSE than POIs (e.g., Brisbane: CPC 0.10 vs. 0.09; RMSE 50.38 vs. 52.01) and notably improves JSD in Brisbane (0.832 vs. 0.848), while Melbourne exhibits a small CPC/RMSE gain but a near-tie in correlation and a marginally higher JSD. In the U.S. cases, the two specifications perform nearly identically on CPC; POIs have a marginal edge on RMSE and JSD (e.g., Chicago: RMSE 172.58 vs. 173.03; JSD 0.670 vs. 0.673), whereas correlation differences remain small and near zero in both cities. Overall, enriching attraction with land-use mix modestly benefits the Australian settings, while POI counts perform on par (and occasionally slightly better on error/divergence) in Seattle and Chicago.

**Supplementary Table 2**. Comparison of gravity model performance across different attraction term formulations. Each variant is evaluated using CPC, RMSE, correlation, and JSD to assess predictive accuracy in modeling pedestrian flows.

	Model	CPC	RMSE	NRMSE	Corr.	JSD
Melbourne, Australia	POIs	0.09	51.079	3.623	0.005	0.830
	Land mix	0.10	50.842	3.606	0.005	0.831
Brisbane, Australia	POIs	0.09	52.010	3.831	-0.004	0.848
	Land mix	0.10	50.381	3.710	-0.001	0.832
Seattle, USA	POIs	0.21	253.035	3.948	0.019	0.640
	Land mix	0.21	253.971	3.962	0.001	0.650
Chicago, USA	POIs	0.20	172.584	2.927	-0.018	0.670
	Land mix	0.20	173.029	2.934	-0.015	0.673

## 3 SHAP Values

SHAP values are used to interpret the contribution of each input feature to the model's predictions. By attributing changes in the output to individual features based on cooperative game theory, SHAP provides a consistent measure of feature importance. In our analysis, SHAP values highlight the relative influence of graph-topological variables, distance, and attraction terms on predicted pedestrian flows, offering insights into the model's decision-making process beyond aggregate performance metrics.

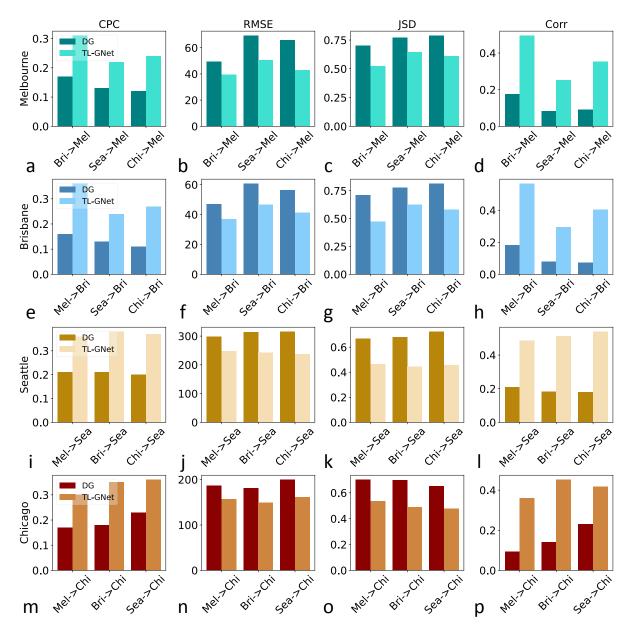


Supplementary Figure 1. Distribution of SHAP values for all features in TL-GNet for Melbourne (a), Brisbane (b), Seattle (c), and Chicago (d). Features are shown on the vertical axis, sorted from most to least influential. Each point represents an origin–destination pair, with blue indicating low feature values and red indicating high values. Points are jittered vertically to improve visibility of overlaps. The horizontal position shows the SHAP value for that pair, indicating whether the feature increases or decreases the predicted pedestrian flow probability. For example, large distances tend to deter travel, while shorter distances are associated with higher predicted commuter flows.

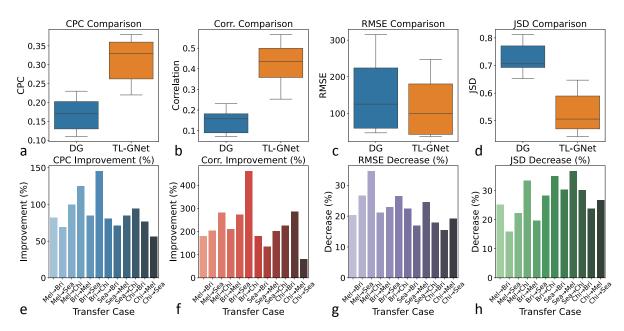
# 4 Model Transferability Across Cities

To further assess the robustness and transferability of our approach, we present a series of comparative analyses. Supplementary Figure 2 reports the performance of TL-GNet against the baseline Deep Gravity (DG) model across all city-to-city transfer scenarios, evaluated using four complementary metrics: Correct Prediction Count (CPC), Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), Jensen–Shannon Divergence (JSD), and correlation (Corr.). Supplementary Figure 3 extends this evaluation by summarizing results across all transfer cases, providing boxplot comparisons and percentage improvements that highlight the consistent advantages of TL-GNet over DG. Finally, Supplementary Figure 4 presents a sensitivity

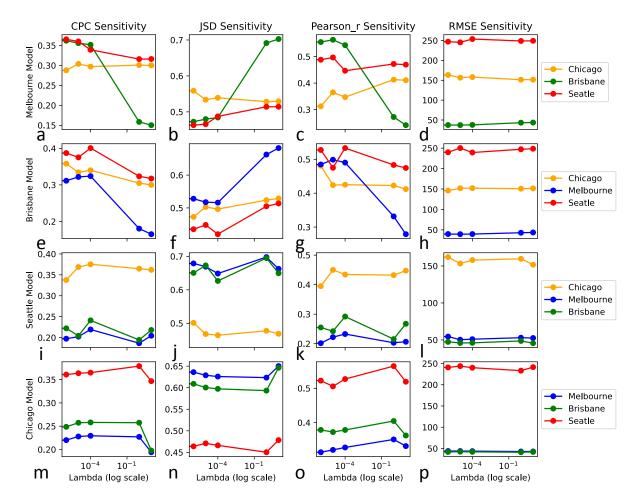
analysis with respect to the regularization parameter  $\lambda$ , demonstrating that TL-GNet maintains stable and reliable performance across a wide range of hyperparameter settings.



Supplementary Figure 2. Comparison of Deep Gravity (DG) and our Transferable Laplacian Regularization GravityNet (TL-GNet) models across four key performance metrics—Correct Prediction Count (CPC), Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD), and Correlation (Corr.)—for all city-to-city transfer scenarios. Each row represents a target city (Melbourne, Brisbane, Seattle, and Chicago), while each column corresponds to a different performance metric. The bars show the performance of each model when transferred from the remaining three cities. Subplots (a) to (p) provide a breakdown of results by target city and metric.



Supplementary Figure 3. Performance comparison between the Deep Gravity (DG) model and the Transferable Laplacian Regularization GravityNet (TL-GNet) model across city-to-city transfer cases. Subplots (a) and (b) present boxplots comparing CPC and correlation values, respectively, for both models across all scenarios. Subplots (c) and (d) compare RMSE and JSD, showing that TL-GNet yields lower error and divergence values. Subplots (e) to (h) illustrate the percentage improvement or reduction for each transfer case.



Supplementary Figure 4. Sensitivity analysis of the Transferable Laplacian Regularization GravityNet (TL-GNet) model with respect to the regularization parameter  $\lambda$  (log scale). The analysis examines how variations in  $\lambda$  affect model performance across four metrics: Correct Prediction Count (CPC), Jensen–Shannon Divergence (JSD), Pearson correlation coefficient, and Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE). Each row corresponds to a model trained on data from one of the four cities (Melbourne, Brisbane, Seattle, Chicago), and each subplot shows the model's performance on the other three cities. Subplots (a–d), (e–h), (i–l), and (m–p) correspond to models trained on Melbourne, Brisbane, Seattle, and Chicago, respectively.

# 5 Definitions, Metrics and Formulations

We employ several network centrality and structural measures computed using Python's NetworkX package. This section outlines the key definitions and formulations applied in our analysis.

## 5.1 Hop Count

The hop count is the number of edges in the shortest path between two nodes, u and v. It represents the minimum number of steps required to travel from one node to another in the network. This measure is particularly useful for assessing accessibility and connectivity in unweighted graphs.

$$HopCount(u, v) = length of shortest path from u to v$$
 (1)

#### 5.2 PageRank

PageRank is a centrality measure that quantifies the importance of a node based on the structure of incoming links. The underlying assumption is that a node is important if it is referenced by other important nodes. Originally developed by Google to rank web pages, PageRank is widely used to identify

influential nodes in a network. It incorporates a damping factor (commonly set to 0.85) to model the probability of continuing a random walk on the graph [Wang, 2004, Li et al., 2023]. The PageRank of node i is defined as:

$$PR(i) = \frac{1 - d}{N} + d \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \frac{PR(j)}{k_j^{\text{out}}}$$
(2)

where d is the damping factor, N is the total number of nodes,  $\mathcal{N}(i)$  is the set of nodes linking to i, and  $k_i^{\text{out}}$  is the out-degree of node j.

#### 5.3 Core Number

The core number of a node is the largest integer k for which the node belongs to a k-core. A k-core is a maximal subgraph in which every node has degree at least k. The core number captures how deeply embedded a node is within the network and is often used to identify cohesive subgroups [Hell and Nešetřil, 1992].

$$c(v) = \max\{k \mid v \in \text{the } k\text{-core of } G\}$$
(3)

#### 5.4 Node Degree

The degree of a node v is the number of direct connections it has to other nodes. In an undirected graph, this corresponds to the count of all incident edges. Node degree provides a basic measure of connectivity and indicates a node's influence within its immediate neighborhood.

$$\deg(v) = |\{u \in V \mid (u, v) \in E\}| \tag{4}$$

#### 5.5 Betweenness Centrality

Betweenness centrality quantifies the extent to which a node lies on the shortest paths between pairs of other nodes. It reflects a node's potential to mediate communication or flow within the network. Nodes with high betweenness centrality often act as bottlenecks or key connectors[White and Borgatti, 1994].

$$C_B(v) = \sum_{s \neq v \neq t} \frac{\sigma_{st}(v)}{\sigma_{st}} \tag{5}$$

where  $\sigma_{st}$  is the total number of shortest paths from s to t, and  $\sigma_{st}(v)$  is the number of those paths that pass through node v.

#### 5.6 Closeness Centrality

Closeness centrality measures how close a node is to all other nodes in the network. It is defined as the inverse of the average shortest path distance from the node to every other node. Nodes with high closeness centrality can reach others more quickly and efficiently, making them effective at spreading information [Evans and Chen, 2022, Freeman, 1977].

$$C_C(v) = \frac{1}{\sum_{u \in V \setminus \{v\}} d(u, v)} \tag{6}$$

#### 5.7 Pearson Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson correlation coefficient quantifies the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (e.g., sets of flows). It is defined as:

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})(\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})^2}}$$
(7)

where n is the sample size (number of flows),  $y_i$  is the actual (observed) flow,  $\hat{y}_i$  is the predicted (generated) flow,  $\bar{y}$  is the mean of the observed flows,  $\hat{y}$  is the mean of the predicted flows.

#### 5.8 Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)

The Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) measures the standard deviation of prediction errors (residuals). It is defined as:

RMSE = 
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$$
 (8)

It penalizes larger errors more than smaller ones, making it sensitive to outliers. Lower RMSE values indicate better prediction accuracy.

# 5.9 Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD)

The Jensen–Shannon Divergence (JSD) measures the similarity between two probability distributions. Unlike the Kullback–Leibler Divergence (KLD), it is symmetric and bounded within [0, 1]. Given two distributions P and Q, and their average  $M = \frac{1}{2}(P + Q)$ , the JSD is defined as:

$$M = \frac{1}{2}(P+Q)$$

the JS divergence is defined as:

$$JSD(P||Q) = \frac{1}{2}KLD(P||M) + \frac{1}{2}KLD(Q||M)$$
(9)

The KLD quantifies how one probability distribution diverges from another reference distribution. For discrete distributions P and Q over the same space X, it is defined as:

$$KLD(P||Q) = \sum_{x \in X} P(x) \log \left(\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}\right)$$
(10)

KLD is always non-negative and asymmetric, i.e.,  $\text{KLD}(P||Q) \neq \text{KLD}(Q||P)$ . It equals 0 if and only if P = Q.

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