

Comparing estimation results of land use development models using different databases available in Switzerland

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1 Comparing Estimation Results of Land Use Development Models Using
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25 **Abstract (max 250 words)**

26 Land development models are often the weak part of land use transport interaction models. This
27 is partly due to the in transparent real estate market, e.g. decisions on the realisation of real estate
28 development projects are seldom recorded. We understand the term *project* in this context as prepared
29 plan for building new built space which materialises in form of buildings. Since we are ultimately
30 interested in explaining development of built space with discrete choice modelling, we would ideally
31 observe the decision of realisation, which happens probably just before applying for construction permit.
32 However, it is more likely that register information on existing buildings are available rather than data on
33 project decisions. If the register contains information on the construction year we can take this as an
34 observation of a development event. One thing we miss with this conception is the fact that sometimes
35 multiple buildings are constructed in the same project.

36 This paper discusses this issues in the context of an implementation of a parcel based UrbanSim
37 land development model implemented for a land use transport model of Canton Zurich in Switzerland.
38 We estimate four discrete choice models of developments choosing their location using UrbanSim. With
39 in the whole modelling system these models have the purpose of updating the stock of real estate which is
40 needed to provide alternatives for further models household or firm location choice models. Each
41 development model is estimated on two differing data basis. One contains construction projects, also with
42 multiple buildings, and the other contains only single buildings as observations. The estimation results are
43 discussed focusing on the impact of disregarding project information.

44 We find that using building registers is a viable option if no data on development projects is at
45 hand, especially if there are few multi building projects in the considered area. However, register
46 information has the disadvantage of not containing proper observations which leads to certain bias.
47 Variables such as the fit to development constraints are especially critical when formulating development
48 location choice models on the level of parcels.

49 INTRODUCTION

50 The main idea of land use transport interaction models is the interdependence of both systems via
51 accessibility (1). Most recent and recommendable reviews of land use transport interaction models are (2–
52 5). For a discussion of the accessibility concept and its measurement see the papers by Karst Geurs and
53 colleagues (6, 7).

54 The availability of integrated models is useful if the planners want to assess politics of land use
55 and transport comprehensively considering the feedback loop between both systems. On the land use side
56 this requires to get a better understanding of how regulations affect the development of built space and
57 how consequently transport infrastructure is affected, and vis-versa.

58 In this paper we describe an implementation of a land use development model considering
59 different information basis. This is a practical issue since data availability is not always given as desired.
60 In the case described here we have two sources of information on land use development events at hand.
61 The first source is the federal buildings and dwellings register and the second source contains
62 development projects. The first source is more comprehensive and richer in detail in terms of building
63 description and also allows to extract development events via the *year built* attribute. However, the
64 second source is theoretically preferred since the development decisions in reality are not necessarily
65 done per single building but rather per project, which can be composed of multiple buildings. Thus the
66 term *project* is understood as prepared plan for building new built space which materialises in form of
67 buildings in this work. We are fully aware that a construction project is a process with many decisions and
68 complex dynamics, but in this context we simplify it to one main decision. The second data source allows
69 us to derive this joint construction information and hence to estimate the proposed land use development
70 model with or without the information on actual projects. In the following we refer to the first case as
71 building location choice model (BLCM) and the latter we name project location choice model (PLCM).
72 So, when estimating BLCM, on the basis of single buildings as observations, we implicitly assume that
73 the development decisions are made for each building separately. In the case of PLCM we take projects as
74 observations which can be composed of multiple buildings.

75 The research question is if it is adequate to use BLCM in land use transport interaction models.
76 We expect biased estimation parameters when estimating BLCM since the observation in case of BLCM
77 is not the real decision situation.

78 We investigate this question in the context of constructing an integrated land use model for
79 Canton Zurich in Switzerland. We are using the open platform for urban simulation OPUS. The model is
80 working at a high degree of spatial resolution as we are implementing the model for the parcel level. For
81 the land use development model this high resolution is appealing since builders actually buy properties to
82 realise their projects.

83 Researching land use development modelling can also be justify by refering to literature. Hunt
84 points out that often the supply of built space is the weakest point in land use transport models (4). Also
85 Haider points out that built space supply is rarely investigated (8). Literature in real estate research
86 indicates the same (9).

87 The paper is organised in a following section on land use modelling where theory is referenced
88 and the methodology is laid out. In the third section we describe data preparation and the models.
89 Estimation results are presented and interpreted in section four before we draw our conclusions.

90 LAND USE DEVELOPMENT MODELLING

91 The production of built space can be conceptualised as two basic markets, one market of land and
92 one of built space (10). On the land market properties are traded as the basic resource for builders to
93 realise a project. On the market for built space ready to use spaces are traded. Thus the builders provide
94 new built space by modifying properties using various factor inputs. The general aim of a builder is to
95 modify the property such that value is added i.e. the resulting product can be sold on the market with
96 profit.

97 There are two basic behavioural approaches to land use modelling. Martinez (11) and followers
98 use an aggregate (discriminating groups of builders) approach using bid-auction theory pioneered by
99 Alonso (12). Waddell (13, 14) and colleagues focus on disaggregate, microsimulation approach using
100 hedonic price modelling (15), which is nowadays a standard tool in real estate economics, first used in a
101 spatial context by Rosen (16). The first approach is based on the paradigm of market equilibrium while
102 the latter is more flexible in this respect. As we see the urban system characterised by complexity and not
103 necessarily in equilibrium, we prefer to go with microsimulation at this point like other colleagues (17,
104 18).

105 Regardless of the approach taken the land use development models have to answer the main
106 questions of when, where and how land use changes. The focus here is on the question *where* new
107 building projects locate. We apply discrete choice modelling with random utility maximisation (RUM)
108 pioneered by McFadden (19, 20) to the context of location choice of builders. Similar work as been done
109 by Haider and Miller (8) and Dong and Gliebe (21).

110 Paul Waddell and colleagues (13) have been developing an open platform for micorsimulation for
111 land use (OPUS / UrbanSim) since the nineties. In terms of usability it is probably the most advanced and
112 comprehensive open source software for urban modelling at this time. UrbanSim is a system of loosely
113 coupled submodels giving the user high flexibility in use. The core models of UrbanSim are location
114 choice models for households and firms which locate in buildings. The land development model provides
115 the buildings as alternatives by updating the building stock. In the newest parcel base version of
116 UrbanSim this update decision is based on real estate prices given by a hedonic real estate price model
117 and the resulting return on investment calculation of a representative developer (22) who chooses the
118 project option with maximum expected return on investment.

119 However, it is also possible to formulate the development model as a location choice model of
120 projects to be placed on parcels. The projects to be placed are then sampled from previously occurring
121 projects in a number determined by the difference of target and actual vacancy rate. This approach is less
122 attractive from a theoretical point of view but has its appeal for practical application since it is less data
123 intensive.

124 A main motivation for land use transport models is the joint assessment of land use and transport
125 infrastructure policies to organise the built environment in a better way. The land use development model
126 thus has to consider development regulations. In UrbanSim such development constraints are applied to
127 the geographies which are the alternatives for the land use development model. The constraints can then
128 be used to restrict the choice set or by introducing the information directly into the utility function of the
129 choice model.

130 Methodology

131 We use UrbanSim to estimate two sets of land development location choice models. The two sets
132 are estimated on different data bases. The first set of models is estimated using data of development
133 projects, while the second set is estimated on the basis of development events extracted from building
134 register data. The extracted developments are not actually observed projects. In that case we rather
135 observe the entry of a building to the register. We essentially miss the information on which buildings
136 have been built as part of the same project. This is not ideal for behavioural modelling since the
137 development decision is taken on the basis of projects rather than on the basis of individual buildings.

138 The comparison of the models cannot be done on the basis of goodness of fit measures like
139 adjusted rho2 because different samples are used. Hence, we compare the models qualitatively and on the
140 basis of parameter ratios. This requires using the same variables across the models.

141 In the first place we are estimating MNL models because of the choice set sampling problem (20).
142 We then can apply random sampling of alternatives which is necessary in this case since considering full
143 choice sets would generate very high computational costs. Another reason is that considering full choice
144 sets is behaviourally unrealistic. No developer is assessing all parcels at the same time. Also, MNL
145 models are usually the reference to compare more elaborated models with at a latter stage.

146 ESTIMATING LAND USE DEVELOPMENT LOCATION CHOICE 147 MODELS ON TWO DIFFERENT SAMPLES

148 The study area comprises 151 municipalities of Canton Zurich. On the temporal axis we consider
149 the time span from 2000 – 2010. A further description of the study area and the real estate market can be
150 found in (23).

151 To be able to estimate location choice models of land development we first have to prepare the
152 necessary data. This is a challenging effort since the original data is very heterogeneous and sometimes
153 inconsistent. Here we focus on the preparation of the development events data and refer the reader
154 interested in the preparation of the other data to Schirmer et al. (24).

155 Data used

156 The information on development events is taken from two main sources. The first source is the
157 federal buildings and dwellings register. This data comprises information on the location of buildings by
158 coordinates, size, type, age, and internal structure. In the context of this paper the attribute *year built* is
159 crucial since we derive the point in time of construction from it. The second data source contains
160 development projects from a database to inform potentially interested construction firms about planned
161 projects. The project description comprises the number of buildings, the date of construction and the
162 location by address.

163 Data preparation

164 The preparation of the development event data with *PostgreSQL* includes the matching of the
165 project data to the building data from the register and dismissing data points with missing or implausible
166 content. Namely in cases where development took place outside construction zones according to the data.
167 Further we decided to use new construction only since we expect this to be the relevant events for the

168 land use transport system. The matching of development projects to constructed buildings is achieved
169 with spatio-temporal matching. Buildings are assigned to a project when they are located on the same
170 parcel and have a *year built* after the project has been finished. Unfortunately, we loose already 74% of all
171 recorded new construction projects when trying to match them to parcels due to poor address matching. In
172 the following we loose another 75% when trying to match buildings to projects. When we further remove
173 the projects located on parcels not inside the construction zone, we end up with a dataset of 1044 projects
174 comprising 1147 buildings. The projects are located in 114 out of 151 municipalities all over Canton
175 Zurich.

176 Note that the development projects have to be linked to buildings because at the end we want the
177 development model to provide buildings. The buildings and dwellings register provides much more detail
178 on the constructed buildings. The important information we use from the projects data is the information
179 about joint construction. We used *PostgreSQL* for data integration.

180 Database for estimation

181 The final datasets for estimation are created in UrbanSim, when running a model estimation. The
182 estimation dataset is different for each estimation since we apply random sampling of alternative. The
183 variables used in the utility function are partly calculated outside UrbanSim using GIS and partly defined
184 and calculated within UrbanSim using the domain specific modelling language (25).

185 Model formulation

186 We use simple MNL models for four types of development. The distinguished types are single
187 family housing (SFH), multi family housing (MFH), residential with side use (RWSU) and non-
188 residential developments. The types are based on intended main uses for the developments. Within the
189 residential segment we could consider three sub segments. This was not possible for the non-residential
190 segment due to the small number of observations.

191 There are four separate models to be able to consider the planning restrictions in the sampling of
192 alternatives. With separate models it is possible to exclude certain alternatives from the sampling, e.g. a
193 residential building is not allowed to be placed on a parcel zoned industrial. Formulating an overall model
194 with dummies is therefore not an option. The utility functions are linear in parameters and consist of the
195 variables listed in table 4. The variables are described in table 1 and the following subsection. Descriptive
196 statistics are shown in table .

Variable Name	Description	Unit
acc_car	Accessibility of jobs and inhabitants by car according to formula (1). The calculations of travel times are based on the cantonal transport model.	[-]
acc_pt	Accessibility of jobs and inhabitants by public transport according to formula (1). The calculations of travel times are based on the cantonal transport model.	[-]
dist_to_school	Euclidean distance to next school facility.	[m]
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_ln	Step function differentiating between permitted and restricted volumes as follows: Ln of the difference between permitted floor-space of considered parcel and floor-space of development project, if the difference is larger than zero. Four times the difference between permitted floor-space of considered parcel and floor-space of development project, if the difference is smaller than zero.	[m2]
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	Number of buildings with year built later than 1995 within 150 m.	[-]
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	Number of residents which reported a different address five years ago within a radius of 300 m.	[-]
price_permitted_floor_m2	Price per permitted square meter floor-space.	[CHF/m2]
slope	Slope of parcel in percent.	[%]

Table 1 Variable Description

197 *Variables*

198 The reasoning of builders can be interpreted as anticipation of the consumers preferences.
 199 Therefore, it is not surprising that in case of residential buildings we think of similar variables to include
 200 as in household location choice models. This rises the question which variables are only of interest to the
 201 builder. To get an idea of what variables are important for the location of development events we studied
 202 the literature and conducted in-depth interviews with builders (26). The two sources show that
 203 characteristics of the parcel itself plus all externalities from the neighbourhood are considered. Examples
 204 of attributes mentioned are construction costs (slope as proxy), complicated legal situations, variables
 205 describing the land market (provision of same built space type, absorption rate), condition of soil
 206 (contamination demanding for sanitation before development), population growth or influx of young
 207 adults (newcomers). The consideration of variables is limited by data availability. We find it useful to
 208 classify the explanatory variables in four classes: Topography, infrastructure (networks and built space),
 209 socio-economic actors and norms (legal and social).

210 All variables which are not characterising the parcel directly are location externalities for which
 211 we also have to define how far their spatial reach is. This very similar problem is discussed by Guo and
 212 Bhat (27) where they try to pin down the neighbourhood concept or more generally to what spatial extent
 213 the endowment of the vicinity is perceived. For the operationalisation with circular units they come up
 214 with “neighbourhood radii” of 0.4 km, 1.6 km and 3.2 km. They also find that socio-economic variables
 215 “have significantly smaller spatial extent of influence than the land-use variables” (p. 44). A quick
 216 analysis of the open-field system (names of land/fields) from the cadastre data in the Canton Zurich
 217 shows a median size of 4.17 hectares which suggests a radius of 115 meters. This is small compared to the
 218 US numbers. A sample of ad-hoc measurements on a city map yield neighbourhood areas of 3.5 to 35

219 hectares suggesting radii of 105 to 334 meters. On this basis we chose radii of 150 to 300 meters for our
 220 variables. In our case this concerns the accessibility variables and the variables containing *within* in their
 221 names.

222 The accessibility variables are calculated with the following formula

223

$$acc = \ln\left(\sum_j^J X_j e^{-\beta t_{tj}}\right) \quad (1)$$

224

225 where X is the number of persons and jobs in a travel analysis zone which is multiplied by a
 226 negative exponential weighting based on travel time t (approximation of generalised travel costs c). β is
 227 set to 0.2. In case of acc_car the travel times are calculated on the basis of the car network and in case of
 228 public transport (acc_pt) on the basis of public transport network. The cantonal travel model has been
 229 used for travel time calculations. Applying the logarithm can lead to negative accessibility values.

230 Accessibility is a potential which captures the presence of alternatives, while access is a
 231 proximity measure to the closest satisfying option. An example of an access variable is the distance to
 232 school. This access variable is only based on euclidean distance.

233 We assume that a development is more likely if it fits the zoning constraints on the parcel under
 234 consideration. We capture this fit by calculating the difference between permitted floor-space and floor-
 235 space of the development under consideration for a given parcel alternative. The difference is included in
 236 the utility function using a step function. On the negative intercept we formulate a linear function with
 237 slope of 4. On the positive intercept the natural logarithm is applied expressing the decreasing marginal
 238 utility of development reserves.

239 The newcomers variable is motivated by a builder's statement saying they would analyse
 240 demographic development of candidate areas in respect of growth. Thus we try to capture upcoming areas
 241 by measuring the influx of people.

242 The price per permitted floor-space is calculated by multiplying the average land price in the
 243 respective municipality by the land area of the respective parcel, divided by permitted floor-space
 244 according to the zoning constraints. A parcel with low price per permitted floor-space is expected to be
 245 attractive for development.

246 Land prices vary substantially by zone type (28) and allowed density. To some extent the zone
 247 types also reflect centrality (city zone) and cultural heritage ("core" zone). While prices in the previous
 248 zone are approximately double of purely residential zones, the prices are about a 5/6 in the latter which
 249 reflects more constraints and thus less appropriate built space for commercial uses. Prices in non-
 250 residential zones are about two third of prices in residential zones.

251 With the slope variable we try to capture development costs. Groundwork is often necessary on
 252 hillsides which is usually making construction more expensive.

253

Parameter Name	PLCM				BLCM			
	mean	sd	min	max	mean	sd	min	max
<i>SFH</i>								
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	310.2	268.3	0.0	2774.0	312.2	269.5	0.0	2867.0
dist_to_school	527.2	361.9	4.0	2868.0	524.1	348.4	3.0	2868.0
acc_car	9.7	0.5	0.0	11.0	9.7	0.5	0.0	11.0
acc_pt	10.7	1.8	-19.0	13.0	10.7	1.9	-19.0	13.0
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_In	-894.5	2438.3	-50099.6	10.5	-801.6	1185.6	-18563.6	10.5
price_permitted_floor_m2	2414.2	1494.1	359.3	11015.0	2429.9	1502.9	325.0	11015.0
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	5.5	9.3	0.0	86.0	5.4	9.2	0.0	107.0
slope	5.7	4.4	0.0	31.1	5.7	4.4	0.0	31.1
<i>MFH</i>								
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	312.5	269.9	0.0	2851.0	317.5	278.1	0.0	2867.0
acc_car	9.7	0.5	0.0	11.0	9.7	0.5	0.0	11.0
acc_pt	10.7	1.8	-19.0	13.0	10.7	1.8	-19.0	13.0
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_In	-3979.4	5583.3	-90548.8	10.7	-3460.7	3307.1	-31857.0	11.1
price_permitted_floor_m2	2442.0	1536.6	299.1	11015.0	2412.4	1508.8	299.1	11015.0
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	5.3	9.0	0.0	107.0	5.4	9.2	0.0	107.0
slope	5.7	4.5	0.0	31.1	5.7	4.4	0.0	31.1
<i>With Side Use</i>								
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_In	-5858.3	8360.3	-52911.0	10.7	-5344.3	5313.0	-23478.6	11.1
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	5.3	9.2	0.0	66.0	5.3	8.9	0.0	86.0
acc_car	9.7	0.5	8.0	11.0	9.8	0.5	8.0	11.0
acc_pt	10.7	1.6	-19.0	13.0	10.8	1.6	-19.0	13.0
price_permitted_floor_m2	2389.4	1563.7	299.1	11015.0	2364.1	1432.5	299.1	11015.0
<i>Non-Residential</i>								
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	291.8	283.7	0.0	1967.0	306.3	292.7	0.0	1957.0
acc_car	9.6	0.6	0.0	11.0	9.6	0.5	8.0	11.0
acc_pt	9.9	3.2	-19.0	13.0	10.0	3.0	-19.0	13.0
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_In	-8572.5	22477.2	-173320.0	12.8	-7096.6	16178.9	-92838.0	12.9
price_permitted_floor_m2	1165.4	668.5	196.9	5188.6	1154.2	654.6	196.9	5188.6
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	3.3	5.3	0.0	61.0	3.4	5.4	0.0	65.0
slope	3.8	3.3	0.0	27.3	3.7	3.1	0.0	27.3

Table 2 Descriptives of Observation Variables254 *Model estimation*

255 The models are estimated with the development version of UrbanSim employing the B-triple-H
 256 algorithm (29) for maximum likelihood estimation.

257 **RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION**

258 The estimation results all four sub-models are shown in table 4 according to the data bases used.
 259 On the left side we list the parameters and t-values for model estimated with project information, on the
 260 right side the estimates using single buildings from the register only. We first want to focus on the
 261 variables hypothesised to be sensitive to consideration of projects versus buildings, which are namely
 262 *dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2* and *new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel*.

263 The variable *dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2* shows a positive sign in all models indicating that
 264 developments locate on parcels with more floor-space permitted than used, hence development reserves
 265 are valued confirming previous research (30). To compare the models we calculate the value of reserves¹
 266 (VOR) as the exchange rate of price per permitted squaremeter of floor-space with reserves for additional
 267 floor-space. We generally expect a positive value since we expect capitalisation on the real option of
 268 development reserves in the price per permitted floor space.

269

$$VOR = \frac{\beta_{dev-fit}}{\beta_{permitted-floor-price}} \quad (2)$$

270

271 The exchange rates shown in table 3 confirming the expectation of positive values of reserves.
 272 Only in case of residential buildings with side use the value is negative which might be an artefact of the
 273 small sample size.

274 Further we expect that VOR is overestimated on the basis of single projects because the parcel is
 275 actually filled with additional buildings of the same project. So, we are measuring reserves when there
 276 actually are none. This hypothesis is confirmed for developments with residential use but not for non-
 277 residential developments.

278 All models show positive signs for the variable measuring new developments in the vicinity. This
 279 confirms spatial inertia of land development found in previous studies (8, 21). The reasons for spatial
 280 inertia are manifold. The phenomenon reflects to some extent that settlements grow at their borders.
 281 Another reason can be seen in the intention of planning authorities to concentrate development. A third
 282 explanation might be that builders tend to develop in areas they are familiar with. This hypothesis can not
 283 be verified at this stage. To do so requires observing which projects have been built by which builder.
 284 Qualitative research in Switzerland (26) and elsewhere (31) suggests that there is a fraction of local
 285 developers which operate mainly in areas they are familiar with.

286 Analogous to the previous example we calculate an exchange ratio to compare the model
 287 estimates on different data bases. We calculate the exchange rate of price per permitted squaremeter of
 288 floor-space with the number of new buildings in the vicinity. This gives us a value of new houses²
 289 (VONH) as

290

$$VONH = \frac{\beta_{new_bldgs}}{\beta_{permitted-floor-price}} \quad (3)$$

291

1 The unit is CHF/m² floor-space reserve.

2 The unit of this value is CHF/new building.

	PLCM		BLCM	
	VDOR	VONH	VDOR	VONH
SFH	0.03	333.68	0.03	343.50
MFH	2.31	158.71	2.52	139.16
RWSU	-1.19	-29.08	-1.40	-40.27
Non-residential	0.70	75.90	0.63	76.54

Table 3 Exchange Rates

292 The calculated exchange rates are shown in table 3. Thus VONH is overestimated on the basis of
 293 buildings in case of single family developments and non-residential developments but not in the two other
 294 cases, which is unexpected. The reason might be insufficient accuracy of prices crudely considered
 295 dynamics. VONH is way larger than VOR and has also a much bigger range. This might reflect different
 296 locations and the importance of those.

297 All parameters except for slope in case of non-residential developments show consistent signs
 298 which indicates that single buildings are a viable option. We interpret the negative signs of the
 299 accessibility variable with preferences for quite, remote locations of single family home builders
 300 anticipating the preferences of potential costumers. In case of multi family housing the signs of the public
 301 transport accessibility variable becomes positive. This expresses preferences for denser living
 302 environments we can expect for this housing type. The negative sign for *acc_car* is expressing that MFH
 303 developments tend to locate in dense areas where *acc_car* is worse relative to *acc_pt* then in less dense
 304 areas. We find the same signs for residential developments with side uses. For non-residential buildings
 305 the signs of all accessibility variables are positive showing preferences for dense environments of firms.

306 We measure the attractiveness for residents with the variable *newcomers_within_300_of_parcel*
 307 and expect positive signs for residential developments. We have significant³ estimates in case of single
 308 family housing, multi family housing projects and non-residential developments. The negative values for
 309 single family developments might be an artefact of lacking opportunities to move to in the vicinity, so
 310 newcomers are less frequently observed in areas of single family developments. Thus latent demand
 311 cannot be captured with this variable for SFH. One might better use absorption rates. The negative sign
 312 for non-residential development is interpreted as an effect of competition. In areas with a lot of influx of
 313 residents housing developments are preferred.

314 The slope variable is only significant in case of single family developments. The positive sign
 315 shows preference for location on hillsides. The model could be improve in this aspect by considering
 316 aspect and solar exposition.

317 The distance to school is only included for single family housing because we can expect families
 318 to live there. The expected negative sign shows in both data bases and the estimates are significant. Thus
 319 builders try to build near schools to satisfy that need.

320 For the price variable we would generally expect a negative sign indicating that builders tend to
 321 buy and develop land which is cheap. However, the signs in our models show positive signs for single
 322 family housing projects, multi family housing projects and non-residential projects and buildings. Also
 323 the effect of the price variable is surprisingly small. One explanation is that developers expect higher
 324 revenue from letting or higher expected sales price at these locations. Another possibilty is that the
 325 permitted floor space prices variable is insufficiently observed and thus the models probably suffer from
 326 an endogeneity problem as described by Guevara and Ben-Akiva (32).

3 We consider an estimate as significant on a 95% level.

327

Parameter Name	PLCM		BLCM	
	estimate	t-values	estimate	t-values
<i>SFH</i>				
acc_car	-0.3707	-5.17	-0.3740	-5.52
acc_pt	-0.0142	-0.65	-0.0216	-1.00
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_ln	0.0010	11.22	0.0012	10.95
dist_to_school	-0.0005	-3.47	-0.0005	-3.94
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	0.0493	13.24	0.0512	14.17
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	-0.0025	-7.61	-0.0024	-7.77
price_permitted_floor_m2	0.0001	5.21	0.0001	5.38
slope	0.0366	3.34	0.0349	3.29
# Observations	501		523	
LL(0)	-1703.9999		-1778.8262	
LL(conv.)	-1455.2932		-1493.9691	
Adj. rho2	0.141		0.156	
<i>MFH</i>				
acc_car	-0.1261	-1.04	-0.0800	-0.67
acc_pt	0.1628	3.63	0.1728	3.92
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_ln	0.0005	17.27	0.0006	16.87
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	0.0339	5.74	0.0338	6.33
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	0.0009	3.50	0.0008	3.63
price_permitted_floor_m2	0.0002	6.78	0.0002	7.97
slope	0.0115	0.80	0.0107	0.78
# Observations	405		445	
LL(0)	-1377.4849		-1513.5328	
LL(conv.)	-1168.1905		-1230.9202	
Adj. rho2	0.147		0.182	
<i>With Side Use</i>				
acc_car	-0.7055	-1.80	-0.4893	-1.27
acc_pt	0.4154	2.30	0.3273	2.19
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_ln	0.0005	4.69	0.0005	4.87
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	0.0111	0.31	0.0148	0.50
price_permitted_floor_m2	-0.0004	-2.59	-0.0004	-2.75
# Observations	54		65	
LL(0)	-183.6647		-221.0778	
LL(conv.)	-143.4228		-157.4724	
Adj. rho2	0.192		0.265	
<i>Non-Residential</i>				
acc_car	0.4569	1.42	0.6646	2.23
acc_pt	0.1762	2.04	0.3245	4.03
dev_fit_permitted_floor_m2_step_ln	0.0005	12.96	0.0005	13.56
new_bldgs_within_150_of_parcel	0.0534	2.50	0.0584	3.64
newcomers_within_300_of_parcel	-0.0001	-0.15	-0.0012	-2.97
price_permitted_floor_m2	0.0007	4.74	0.0008	5.52
slope	0.0152	0.39	-0.0230	-0.64
# Observations	84		114	
LL(0)	-285.7006		-387.7365	
LL(conv.)	-196.0938		-261.6918	
Adj. rho2	0.289		0.307	

Table 4 Parameter Estimates of the Models, PLCM = Project Location Choice Model, BLCM = Building Location Choice Model, SFH = Single Family Housing, MFH = Multi Family Housing, RWSU = Residential with Side Use

328 The model statistics show only 54 and 84 observations the case of residential developments with
329 side use and non-residential development respectively. According to the rule of thumb saying we need 30
330 observation per estimated parameter suggest the high adjusted rho2 shows over fitting of the data. We
331 included this many variables for the sake of comparison. The situation of few observations in case of non
332 residential developments is common and a general problem for land development models. In addition the
333 variety of uses is much higher in the non-residential segment which is unfortunate.

334 CONCLUSIONS

335 In this paper we investigated the viability of extracting pseudo development event from building
336 register data. The comparison of model estimation on the basis of single buildings with model estimation
337 using development project information shows relatively little variation in the examined case of Canton
338 Zurich. This suggests that building register data may be used for creating land development models.
339 However, one should mind biased results due to the theoretically inadequate observations when taking
340 newly registered buildings as development events. Also, some variables such as the fit of a development
341 to a parcel as location alternative are more sensitive to the observations used. Therefore, it is still
342 advisable to use information on development projects enabling the estimation of more sophisticated
343 models.

344 The drawbacks are less severe in regions with few multi building projects. Hence, consulting
345 aggregate information on the size of projects, in terms of number of buildings per project, is
346 recommended before implementing a land development model in form of a building location choice
347 model.

348 Formulating building location choice models offers practical advantages. The most crucial and
349 evident one is the sheer lack of better data in many cases. A practical advantage when implementing a
350 BCLM in the parcel context is the absence of projects that are actually located on multiple parcels. If we
351 formulate a project location choice model, which is theoretically more sound, we have to model that
352 parcels can be unified to accommodate larger projects which we expect due to increasing economies of
353 scale. We may coin this *parcelling problem* which we leave for further research.

354 We presented location choice models for residential and non-residential developments. Recent
355 literature focused on the residential segment only, probably also due to scarce and very heterogeneous
356 data. For the sake of completeness (which is required for a meaningful overall model, since we also need
357 to provide built space for workplaces) we also include non-residential buildings.

358 General problems encountered are the scarcity of development events on the non-residential
359 segment, which is unfortunate because the non-residential segment too heterogeneous in terms of uses.
360 We still lack spatio-temporal price information with suitable level of detail. This is owed to high data
361 protection especially in the realm of real estate property (9).

362 This work focuses on the effects of missing project information when extracting newly registered
363 buildings as development events, which reflects work in progress developing a land development model.
364 We will improve the model by revisiting data preparation to gain more development events, adding
365 further information such as vicinity endowment with green spaces, exposition and sunshine index and
366 more accurate price information. At this point we do not distinguish between new construction on green
367 land and replacement of buildings. It will be interesting to see if we find spatial inertia as well in case of
368 redevelopment. Disregarding redevelopment is especially problematic in our case study region since
369 unbuilt developable land is scarce (28). Finally, we want to add information on builders which take the

370 development decision. We assume that considering ownership structures can considerably improve our
371 understanding of land development produced in real estate markets. Previous studies found that the
372 property structure influences land development (33). This issue is getting more relevant since the built
373 environment is entering a phase of reconstruction and transformation. In terms of model comparison we
374 will compare the performance on the basis of simulation results using similar methods as proposed by
375 Jäggi et al (34) and Dong and Gliebe (21).

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