

1 **An Activity-based Integrated Land-use Transport Model for** 2 **Urban Spatial Distribution Simulation**

3 **Abstract:** This research develops an activity-based integrated land use/transport
4 interaction model based on the concepts – activities (mainly, households and
5 employment activities), activity location and relocation for Chinese regions. It
6 consists of a residential and employment location sub-model, a transport sub-model
7 and an implicit real estate rent adjustment sub-model. The model is developed to
8 model the urban activity distribution evolution, predict urban spatial development
9 trends and examine various planning decision implications. It spatially distributes
10 household and employment activity change of a study area by zone based on the
11 current activity distribution, land use policies and the accessibilities of the zones. The
12 model is subsequently calibrated to predict the distribution of households and
13 employment activities in Beijing metropolitan area in 2025. Model results show that
14 the resident and employment densities are still high in central Beijing in 2025, and
15 most zones' resident densities are higher than their employment densities. However,
16 there is also significant population density increase along the 6th ring road, indicating
17 the relocation trend of the residents and businesses to the outskirts. This is consistent
18 with the government objectives to decentralize activities within the central urban area.
19 The paper also suggests that the model should be used mainly in examining the
20 possible differences arising from the adoption of different policies though predicting
21 future of a city distribution proves feasible.

22 **Key words:** Accessibility; urbanization, location, relocation

23

24 **1. Introduction**

25 China's rapid urbanization has generated a number of mega cities including the capital
26 Beijing and also caused massive urban issues (Lu et al., 2007; Gu & Pang, 2009; Li et
27 al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012). As Beijing is over-burdened in the Beijing-Hebei-Tianjin
28 region, Chinese government intends to redistribute its households and business
29 activities to suburban areas. However the reconstruction of an urban spatial structure
30 should be based on the complete understanding of the relationships among these
31 activities within the urban system, at present most researchers only concentrate on
32 some parts of the urban system such as residential location and commuting (Lu et al.,

33 2009; Liu et al., 2010; Chai et al., 2011; Dang et al., 2011; Dong et al., 2011; Shen &
34 Cai, 2012; Zhao et al., 2013), physical land use change (Li & Liu, 2007; Long et al.,
35 2009; Zhou & Ye., 2013), industrial space and urban form (Chu & Liang, 2007; Yang
36 & Li, 2009; Zhang & Chen, 2011; Gu et al., 2013), transport and urban form (Dai et
37 al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010) etc.. Attempts to model urban spatial evolution in terms
38 of urban land use-transport integration based on activates are rare.

39 Urban spatial structure evolution can be described by the spatial change of urban
40 socio-economic activities such as households and business activities. Activity location
41 and relocation is one major factor determining population travel while transport also
42 shapes the distribution of these activities and urban land use. On the other hand, the
43 land use and transport systems are closely related, and in practice there is an
44 increasing need to integrate them for sustainable urban development planning (Brandi
45 et al., 2014). Urban Land Use/Transport Interaction model (LUTI) is traditionally
46 used to model the interaction (Coppola et al., 2013; Simmonds & Feldman, 2011;
47 Wegener, 2004; Torrens, 2000) for possible effects of new policies or operation
48 principles of the existing urban systems (Zondag et al., 2015; Aljoufie, 2014;
49 Echenique et al., 2012; Wegener, 2004; Foot et al., 1981; Lowry, 1964).
50 Notwithstanding the usefulness, the LUTI models for cities only thrive in developed
51 countries, with rare application for developing countries, especially China.

52 Batty classifies the LUTI models into two traditions (Batty et al., 2013 & 2008):
53 models with various theoretical dynamics associated with equilibrium approaches
54 such as Lowry types (Lowry, 1964) and models more physically based
55 land-development models mirrored around cellular automata and agent-based models.
56 Agent-based modeling requires comprehensive data at microscopic level to show the
57 distinction, complexity and decision making of each individual, while the Lowry type
58 LUTI models usually uses aggregated datasets (Ma, 2013). The complexity of
59 characterizing agent behaviors (e.g. companies with different sizes have different
60 market behaviors) is also a big hurdle for researchers. Moreover, agents usually
61 evolve stochastically which often leads to varied results subject to subjective
62 interpretation. Unfortunately, traditional Lowry type models also have their
63 weaknesses. They are not suitable for modelling behavioral response to many travel
64 demand management policies (Wegener, 2004), are restricted to population and
65 service sectors and produce results at a single time point only.

66 General spatial distribution changes are essentially influenced by household and

67 economic activities (Simmonds, 2011; Wegener, 2004; Lowry, 1964). These activities
68 are capable of illustrating different processes of these changes which in turn affect
69 activities and the spaces they occupy. Unfortunately a land use/transport interaction
70 model based on activities is never clearly put forth and implemented in practice
71 (Zondag et al., 2015; Aljoufie, 2014; Batty et al., 2013; Coppola et al., 2013; Gu et al.,
72 2013; Zhao et al., 2013; Zhou & Ye., 2013; Simmonds, 2011; Chen et al., 2010; Batty
73 et al., 2008; Wegener, 2004; Lowry, 1964). In the face of the need in China, this study
74 is intended to develop an activity-based LUTI model as a decision support tool, e.g. to
75 check implications of various planning decisions including zone development and
76 transport investment choices. The paper defines activity-based model as an altered
77 Lowry type LUTI model used to simulate the evolution of urban spatial distribution
78 with time states based on activities (e.g., households and business activities) using
79 space (commonly, floorspace), and aggregate macroscopic datasets. In the paper,
80 land-use is referred as the social and economic activities using space on the land, e.g.
81 floorspace, rather than the land itself. Activity location and relocation and transport
82 are key factors to be modelled as they determine population travel therefore shape the
83 distribution of activities and urban land use. Only a proportion of total activities will
84 be relocated in a time period in the model, which retains the existing process of a city
85 and in the meantime is able to model the demographic and economic interaction by
86 the additional process of migration and regional economic change.

87 The paper is organized as follows. Sections 2 and 3 provide a detailed
88 description of the proposed activity-based LUTI model and its components. Section 4
89 applies the model to Beijing to forecast Beijing urban activity distribution in 2025 by
90 type. Sections 5 and 6 conclude with the next stages development of the model.

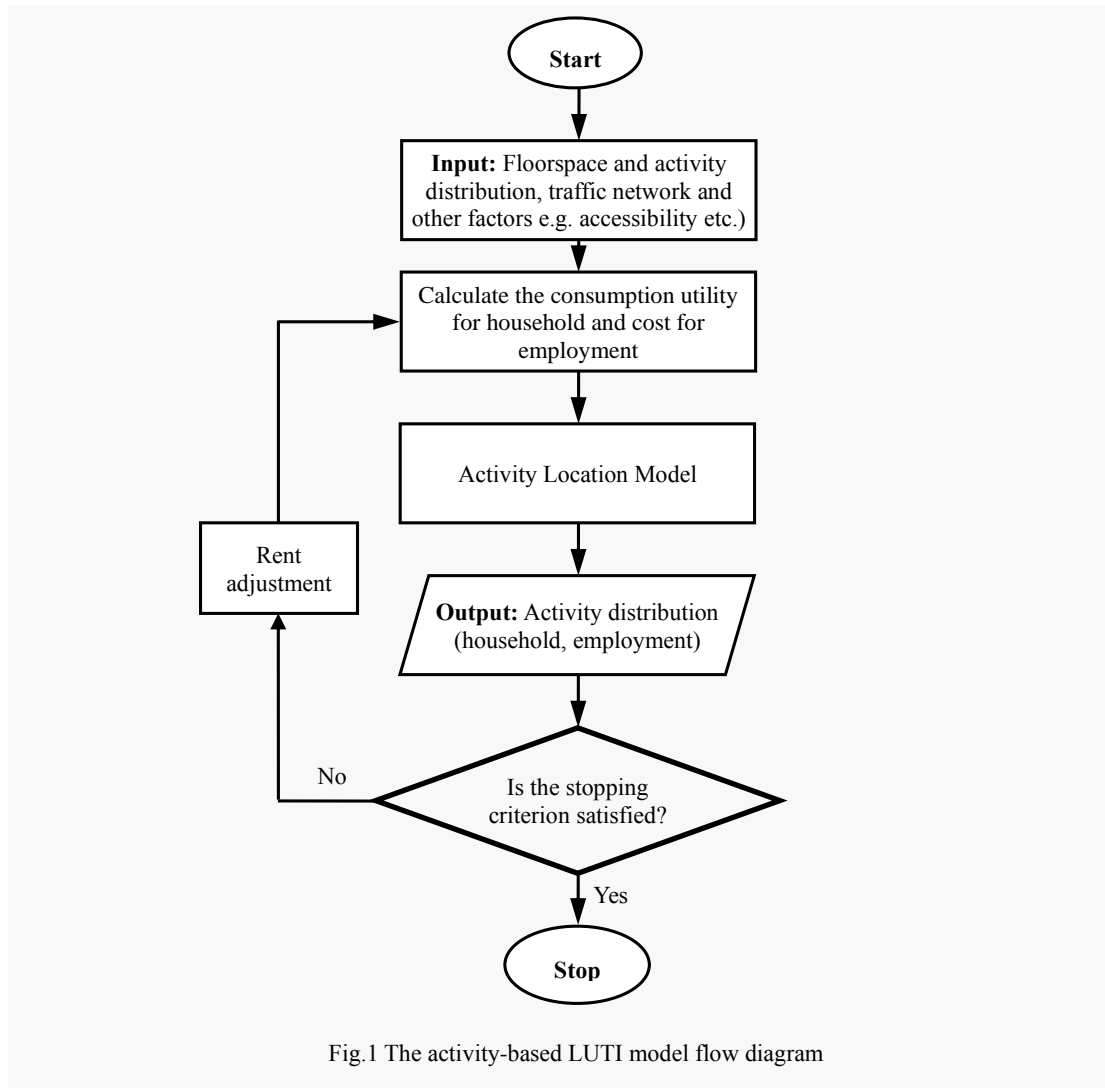
91 **2. Integrated model architecture**

92 The model consists of a residential and employment activity location sub-model, a
93 transport sub-model and an implicit real estate rent adjustment sub-model. Its flow
94 diagram is shown in Fig. 1. The household activities and business activities are
95 represented by housing and employment respectively.

96 According to the utility theory that individuals choose locations to maximize their
97 overall utility or profit, the location model assumes that workers and employers make
98 location choices based on zonal characters such as accessibility and real estate rent.
99 This is implemented by applying probabilistic discrete choice approach (Coppola et al.,
100 2013; Hsu & Guo, 2006; Train, 1986) as shown later, where the probability that an

101 individual chooses a discrete location depends on the aggregate choice of other
102 individuals. Moreover, the model assumes zonal characters such as transport
103 accessibility and rent change cause the distribution variation of urban activities such
104 as household location or relocation. Generally only a minor proportion of urban
105 activities, namely, mobile activities, choose to relocate every year. This is set
106 exogenously currently in the model.

107 As Fig. 1 shows, the location model spatially distributes residents and
108 employment into zones of a city. The activity distribution along with land use policies
109 and transport determine the accessibility of each zone and then the location of the
110 activities. The change in activity distribution causes the change of activity density or
111 rent, and then the accessibilities of these zones are rebalanced. The process is repeated
112 until the stopping criterion is met, that is, the activity distribution difference between
113 two successive iterations is below a predefined value. The model outputs the forecast
114 results for the period p , which is then taken with floorspace development scenario as
115 the input for next period $p+1$. The employment location model shares the similiar
116 process as the residential location model.



117

118 3. Model components

119 3.1 Transport accessibility

120 The transport accessibility of each zone in a city is indicative of the zone's
 121 attractiveness and is estimated from the distribution of opportunities and transport
 122 cost to the zone. A city affords metro lines and roads of different classes from
 123 motorways to minor roads intersecting with each other to form a transport network.
 124 Transport cost between zones is estimated based on the time cost and economic cost
 125 determined by distance and road types.

126 The accessibility is defined as the ease that the transport system allows one to get to
 127 a bundle of opportunities such as workplaces from a particular zone, calculated for each
 128 activity. For households, the model calculates Origin Accessibility (OA) which
 129 indicates how easy (or difficult) it is for residents to travel from a residential zone to
 130 opportunities. For business, the model calculates Destination Accessibility (DA)

131 indicating the accessibility of an employment location for residents in the city. Given
 132 that households usually involve different groups such as elder, working class and
 133 children, the model also weights the accessibilities of hospital, employment and
 134 school locations. Moreover, the model assumes that the businesses seek locations
 135 more accessible to residents in DA calculation.

136 Two key drivers of the zonal accessibility are considered, i.e., the transport cost
 137 between zones and the opportunity distribution. In contrast to traditional methods of
 138 calculating transport accessibility (Yang, 2015; Zondag, 2015), the model uses a logsum
 139 formula associated with a logit model of destination/origin choice as follows,

$$140 \quad A_i^n = \frac{1}{-\lambda} \ln \left\{ \sum_j W_j \exp(-\lambda g_{ij}) \right\} \quad (1)$$

141 where,

- A_i^n is the accessibility of activity type n for zone i ;
- j refers to a zone whose connection with i is under consideration;
- g_{ij} is the transport cost of transport from zone i to zone j ;
- W_j represents the importance of the connection for A_i ;
- λ is the coefficient of traffic cost.

142 W_j measures the medical service, educational service and employment
 143 opportunities afforded by zone j for OA, and the number of residents in zone j for DA.
 144 Negative λ realizes the traffic cost and therefore the exponential term discounts W_j .

145 3.2 Consumption Utility

146 Statistic shows that households spend their more than one third income on housing
 147 (Sohu, 2016; Eurostat, 2014; USDA, 2014). In the simplest case the research defines
 148 the utility of consumption as the household satisfaction obtained from their income
 149 spent on two goods, namely, housing space and *ogs* (i.e., other goods and services)
 150 based on Cobb-Douglas function,

$$151 \quad U_{pi} = (a_{pi}^H)^{\beta_p^H} \cdot (a_{pi}^O)^{\beta_p^O} \quad (2)$$

$$152 \quad \beta_p^H + \beta_p^O = 1 \quad (3)$$

153 where U_{pi} is the household utility during period p in zone i , a_{pi}^H is the average
 154 housing space occupied by a household, a^O is the average expenditure on *ogs*, and β_p^H
 155 and β_p^O are the propensities to spend the income on housing space and *ogs* respectively.
 156 Transportation cost takes the second largest share of household expenditure, but is

157 excluded here as it is counted implicitly in the following location utility equations.

158 **3.3 Activity location choice**

159 **(1) Residential location choice**

160 The residential location model forecasts the number of households by zone. It
161 assumes that individuals choose locations to maximize utility with constraints of
162 floorspace distribution and locations where households previously located. The
163 factors that affect residential location including OA and a set of real estate rents are
164 weighted to the location utility (V). The consumers for housing spaces value zones as
165 a function of their environmental and locational attributes relative to the work place.
166 As how individuals value different locations is unknown, a probabilistic discrete
167 choice model (Coppola et al, 2013; Hsu & Guo, 2006; Train, 1986) is used to estimate
168 the probability that residents choose zone i as their place of residence, in which the
169 error terms are assumed to be independently and identically distributed (Coppola et al,
170 2013; Gumbel 1941). Therefore, the probability that residents choose zone i as their
171 place of residence is given here as,

$$172 \quad H(L)_{t+1,i} = H(M)_{t+1} \cdot \frac{H_{ii} \cdot \left(\frac{F(A)_{t+1,i}^H}{F(A)_{ii}^H} \right) \cdot \exp(\Delta V_{t+1,i}^H)}{\sum_i H_{ii} \cdot \left(\frac{F(A)_{t+1,i}^H}{F(A)_{ii}^H} \right) \cdot \exp(\Delta V_{t+1,i}^H)} \quad (4)$$

173 where $H(L)_{t+1,i}$ is the number of households moving to the zone i during the time
174 $t+1$ and $H(M)_{t+1}$ is the total number of households to locate in the city, while H_{ii} is the
175 total households in zone i at time t . $F(A)_{ii}$ is the housing floorspace occupied in zone i
176 at t by mobile households, $F(A)_{t+1,i}$ is the total housing floorspace available from the
177 land use policy scenario at $t+1$, which includes the available floorspace left at t plus
178 the incremental floorspace at $t+1$ in zone i . $\Delta V_{t+1,i}$ is the utility weighted as the sum of
179 the accessibility change and consumption utility change, while the consumption utility
180 is estimated based on average wage and real estate rent.

181 **(2) Employment location choice**

182 The employment here refers to the economic activities excluding households. The
183 employment location model determining the employment distribution by zone is
184 similar to the household location model above, by only replacing household terms
185 with the ones relating to employment. It estimates the location of mobile activities
186 including the migrants and relocating local residents, which generally accounts for a

187 small percentage of the total. The model assumes that the location of each mobile
 188 employment is affected by the location of the population.

189 **3.4 Real estate rent**

190 The distribution (i.e., densities) change of the household and business activities due to
 191 the location of these activities as shown in the location model above subsequently
 192 causes the change of zonal rent. The real estate rent model then re-estimates the rent
 193 by zone and again re-calculates the location of these activities. It calculates the
 194 average property rents for each zone as a function of supply and demand and the
 195 previous rent levels. The rent is the major factor affecting the utility/profitability of
 196 activities. The rent changes in accordance with the multiplication of demand relative to
 197 the supply of floorspace. For housing, the rent is estimated as,

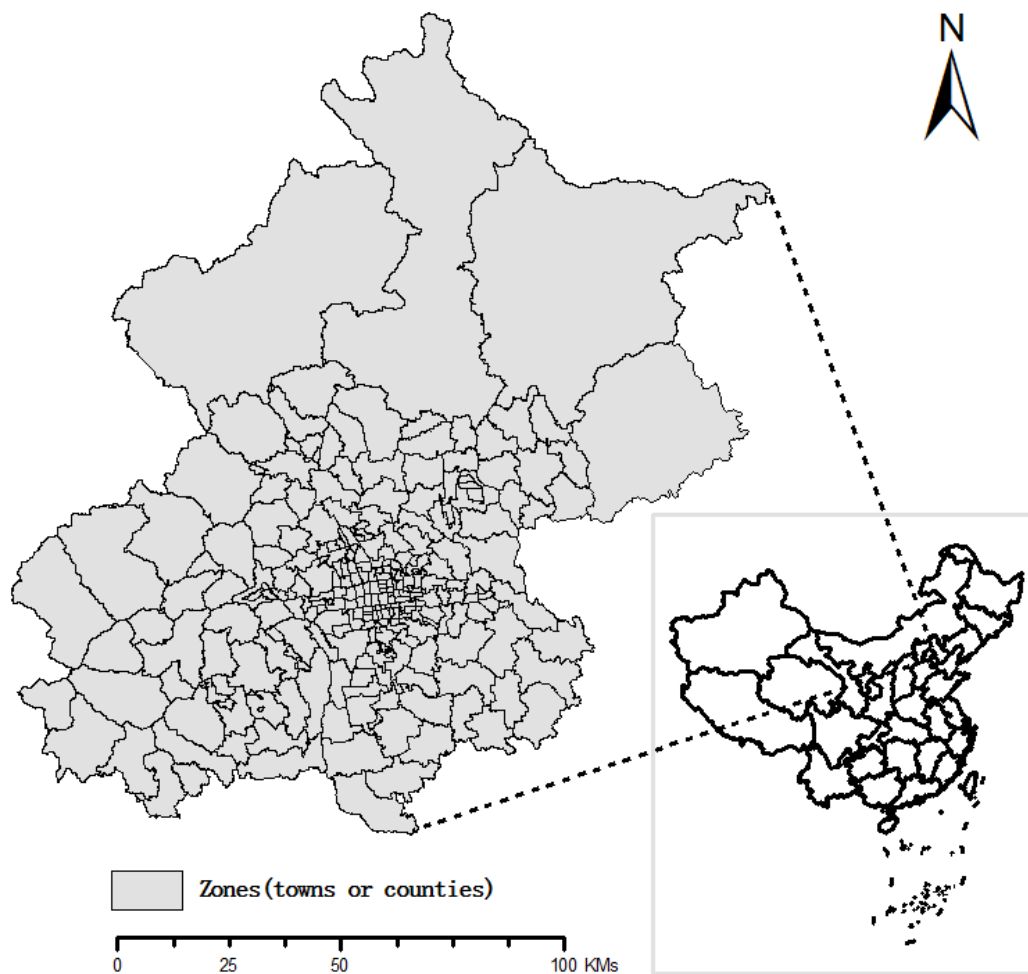
$$198 \quad r'_{pi}{}^H = r_{pi}{}^H \cdot \left[\frac{\sum_h a_{pi}^H \cdot (H(L)_{pi}^h)}{F(A)_{pi}^H} \right] \quad (5)$$

199 where r' is the newly estimated rent of housing floorspace in zone i , while r at the
 200 right of the equation is the previous rent. Variable a is the present density of household
 201 activities. $H(L)^h$ is the quantity of households of type h in zone i . $F(A)_p$ is the current
 202 quantity of available floorspace. In the same way the rent equation for employment
 203 floorspace is obtained by substituting the household variables and parameters for
 204 employment ones.

205 **4. An application - Beijing metropolitan area**

206 **4.1 Study area introduction and data**

207 There were 18 districts, i.e., counties in Beijing (later adjusted to 16 districts), 14 of
 208 which are inside or intersect with the 6th Ring Road – the outmost ring road. The other 4
 209 remote suburban districts, i.e., *Huairou*, *Miyun*, *Pinggu*, *Yanqing* are outside the ring
 210 road. The 14 districts are modelled at town levels with 4 remote districts at district level.
 211 They are disaggregated into 243 zones including districts (also, called counties by
 212 administration) and towns as shown in Fig.2.



213

214

Fig.2 Study Area: Beijing, China

215 The 6th Chinese Census data (NBSC, 2010) provides zonal demographic data
 216 relating to households, workers, the elderly and children. The subsequent years are
 217 extrapolated linearly in the model based on the average annual population growth and
 218 population estimates. The employment activity data with detailed employment
 219 distribution of Beijing is prepared based on Baidu Map Point of Interest data (Baidu,
 220 2013) and Beijing Economic Statistics Yearbook (CSP, 2013), which covers
 221 companies, organizations, institutes and hospitals etc., with more than 700,000
 222 records. The data information by company includes the scale, location, fixed assets
 223 and employees etc.

224 The spatial data includes the administrative divisions at county and town levels
 225 and road networks with roads at various levels such as highways, urban express roads,
 226 national roads, provincial roads and county roads. The GIS technique is applied to
 227 deal with the intersection of metro lines and roads. If a road intersects with the buffer
 228 area of a metro station, the road and the metro line are considered to intersect with

229 each other. A transport cost matrix for all pairs of zones is calculated based on the
230 estimated average speed for the roads at the various levels.

231 In the model the urban activities are classified into two broad types: household or
232 housing and business or employment activities. The household data describes the
233 distribution of households and population at workers, elder citizen and children level
234 by town. The employment data is used to generate the distribution of all jobs.

235 **4.2 Model Calibration and Goodness-of-fit of the Model**

236 The model applies an automated calibration procedure to the specified coefficients. It
237 starts from a predefined date and a known state with the best guess of a value set, and
238 then compares the results with the observed values on a defined end date. In practice the
239 predicted rent values by zone are used in the comparison. If they differ significantly from
240 the corresponding observed values, the coefficients are adjusted based on the hill
241 climbing algorithm. More specifically, if the rents are greater than the observed values
242 while the correlation between them is less than a threshold, say, 0.60, the coefficients are
243 reduced or increased by proportion according to the sign of the correlation. This
244 procedure continues until it converges against the observed data.

245 Activity distributions are predicted from based year 2010 on a yearly basis. As
246 lack of census data for the following years, the endogenous rents are used and
247 validated against the observed rents in 2014 (Sofang, 2014). The results between the
248 two show a satisfactory correlation, $R^2=0.8$. Data quality safeguarded by appropriate
249 data pre-processing methods directed by economic theories also plays an important
250 part for a good model fit. The model uses the factor, affordability, from the housing
251 demand models (Albouy & Ehrlich, 2014; Mumtaz, 1995) as the determining factor of
252 the rent. It states that the rent positively correlates with the income level of
253 households. In the model the observed rents are determined by total household
254 income over floorspace. More specifically, they are calculated as the household
255 expenditure on the unit of floorspace based on the household income level, adjusted
256 by a ratio factor, i.e. the total household expenditure on floorspace over the total
257 floorsapce value. The estimated rents in the model could oscillate out of the range and
258 will not converge, so the outliers of the observed rents are dropped before the
259 modeling process starts.

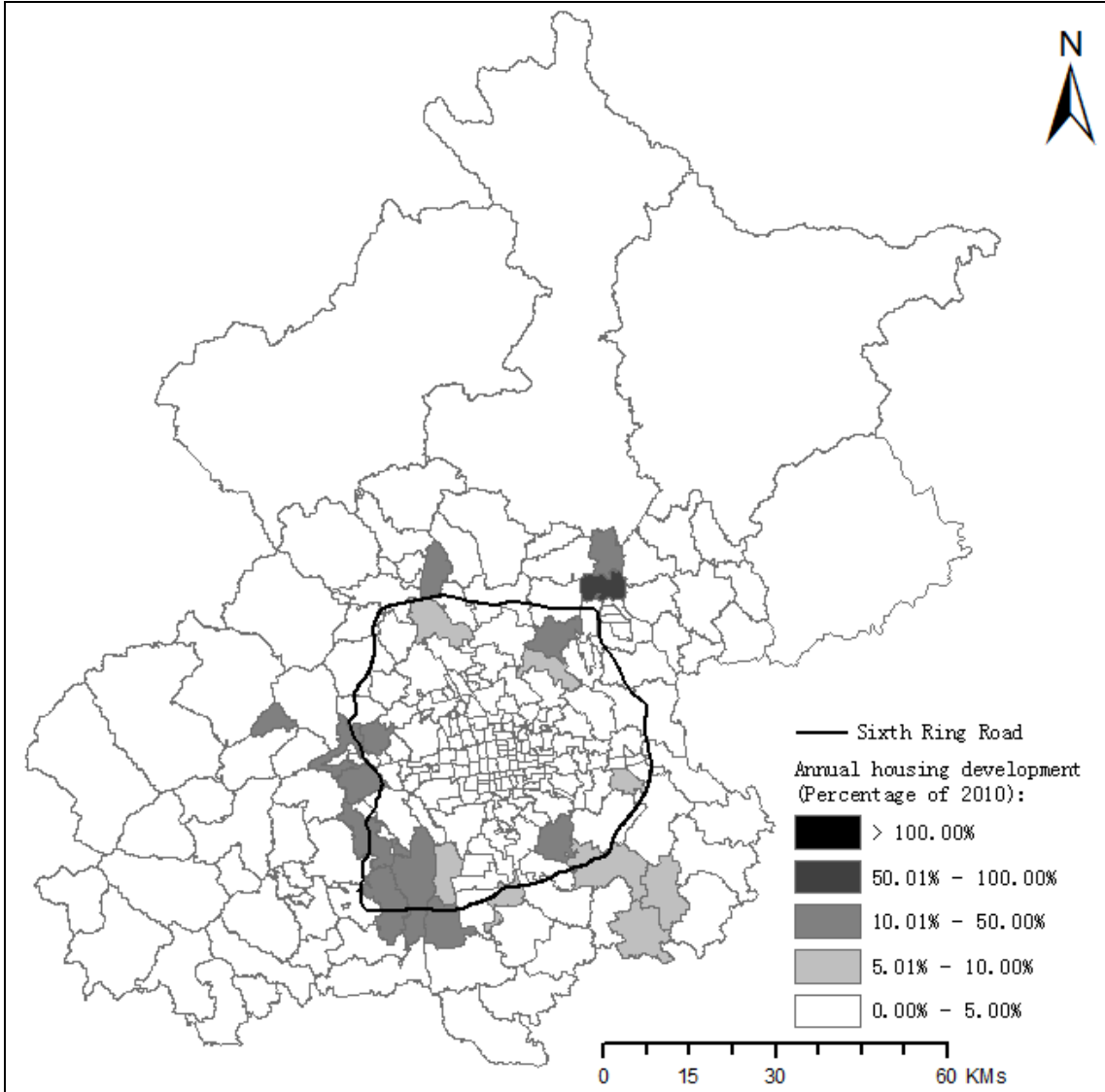
260 **4.3 Results**

261 **(1) Scenario: land use development**

262 The model calculates the distribution of business in terms of employment. The
263 corresponding land use represented by floorspace is categorized into housing and
264 employment floorspaces.

265 The government sells land use rights to developers on a yearly basis in Beijing with
266 the usage types either housing or employment and the permissible amount of floorspace
267 that could be developed on it. The research collects the latest land transactions data by
268 zone from 2009 to 2013 and averages them to provide a starting point for the designation
269 of future land use policies for each year as shown in Fig.3. The maps indicate that the
270 employment floorspace development intensity on the outskirts of Beijing is much greater
271 than the housing floor space development, implying that the employment activities are
272 locating or relocating to the outskirts. Here the population and employment growth rates
273 are set equal exogenously.

274



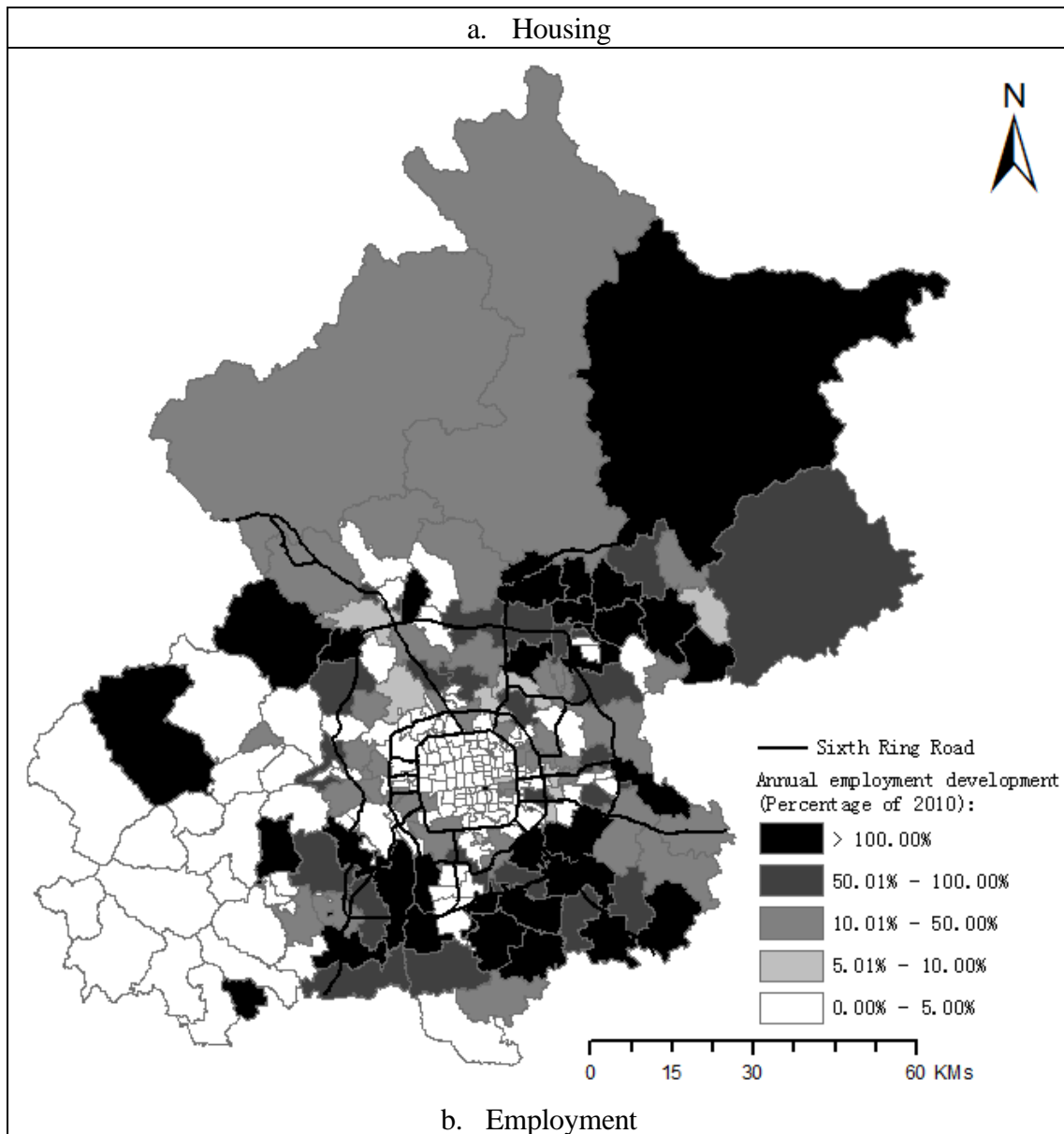


Fig.3 Trend of floorspace development

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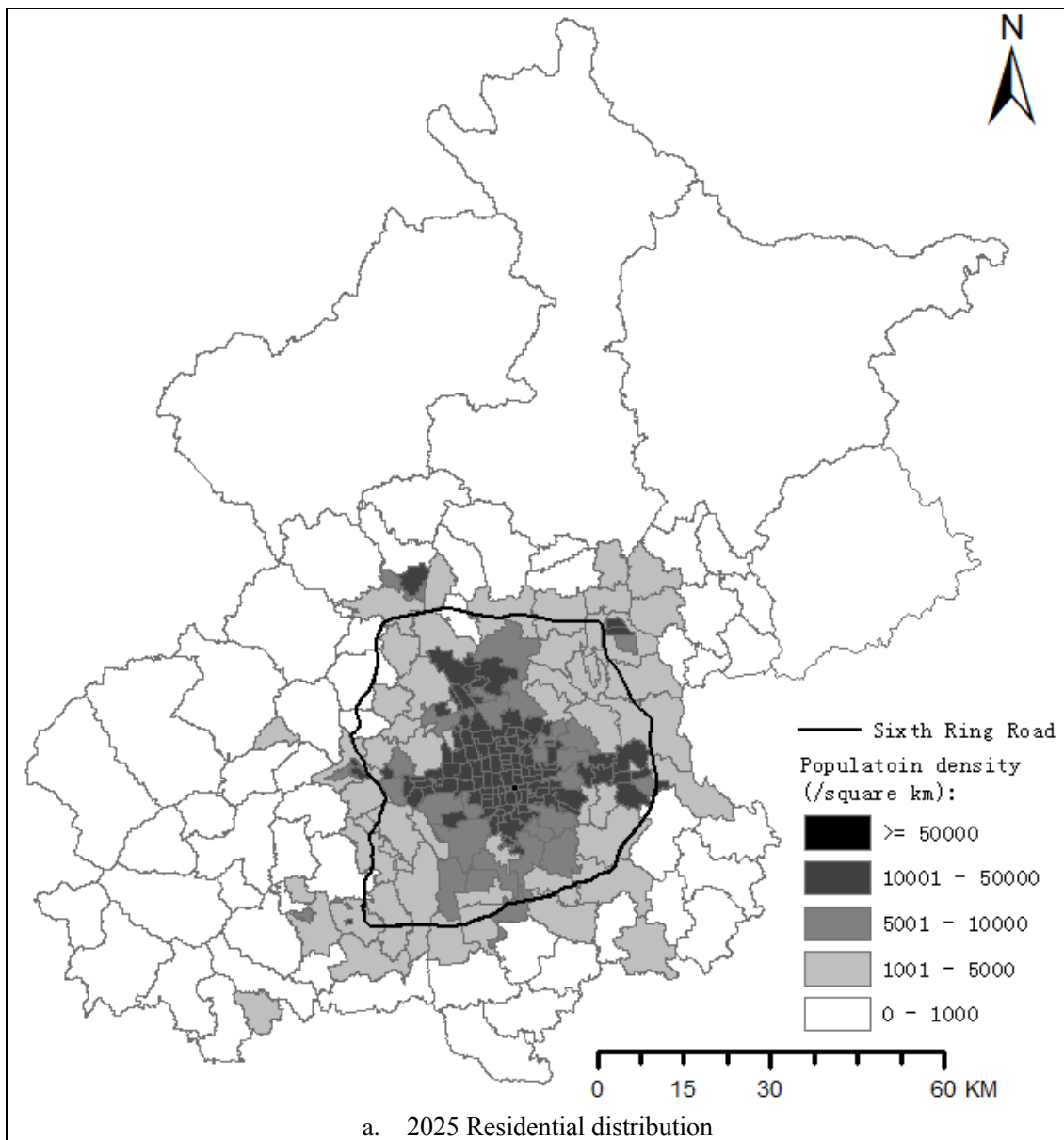
276 **(2) 2025 forecast activity distribution**

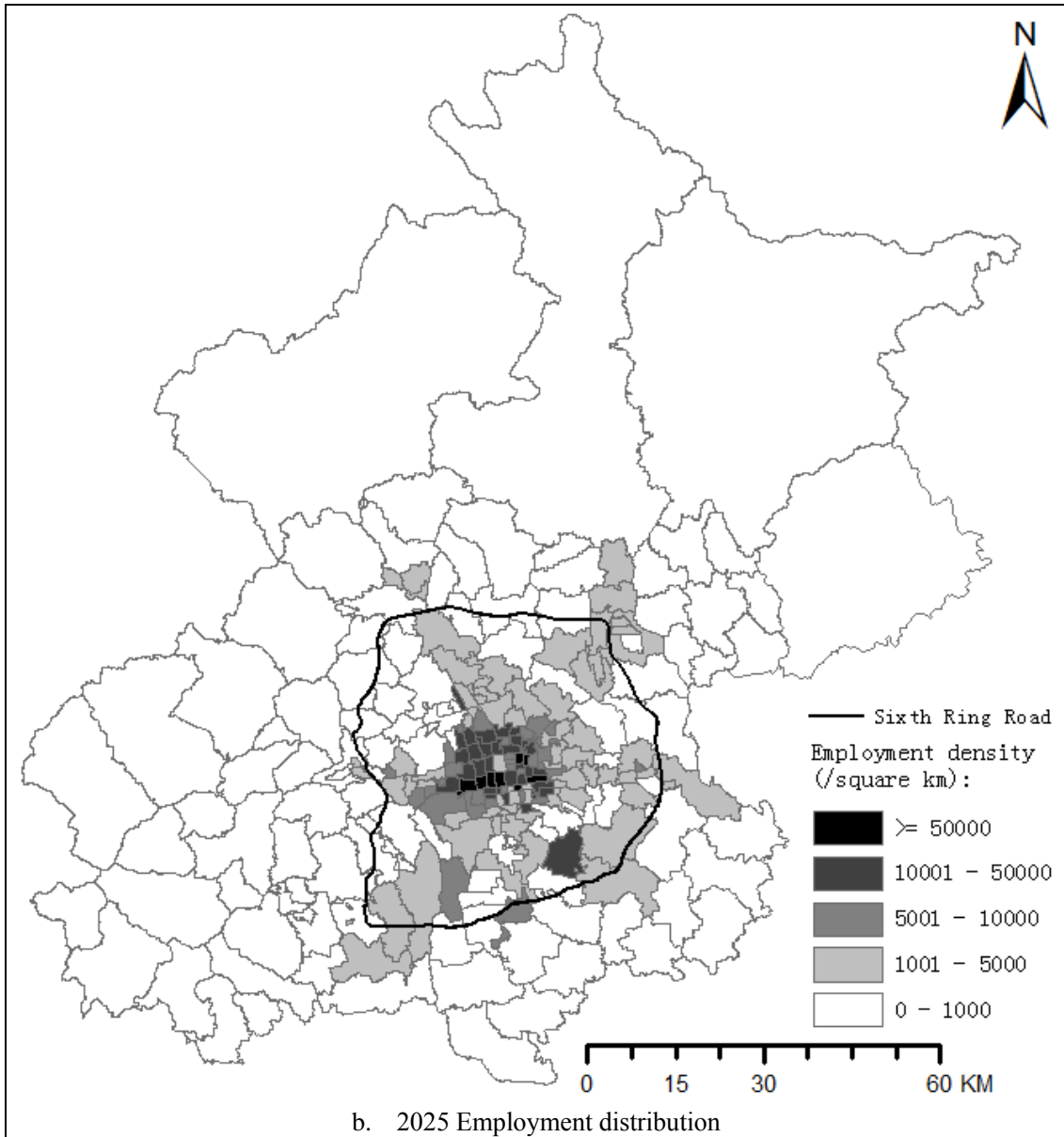
277 The land use scenario above is then applied to the model and the urban development
 278 trends in Beijing up to 2025 are forecast. The residential and employment
 279 distributions in 2025 are shown in Fig.4a and b. The results are then compared with
 280 the activity distributions in 2010 in Fig. 4c and d.

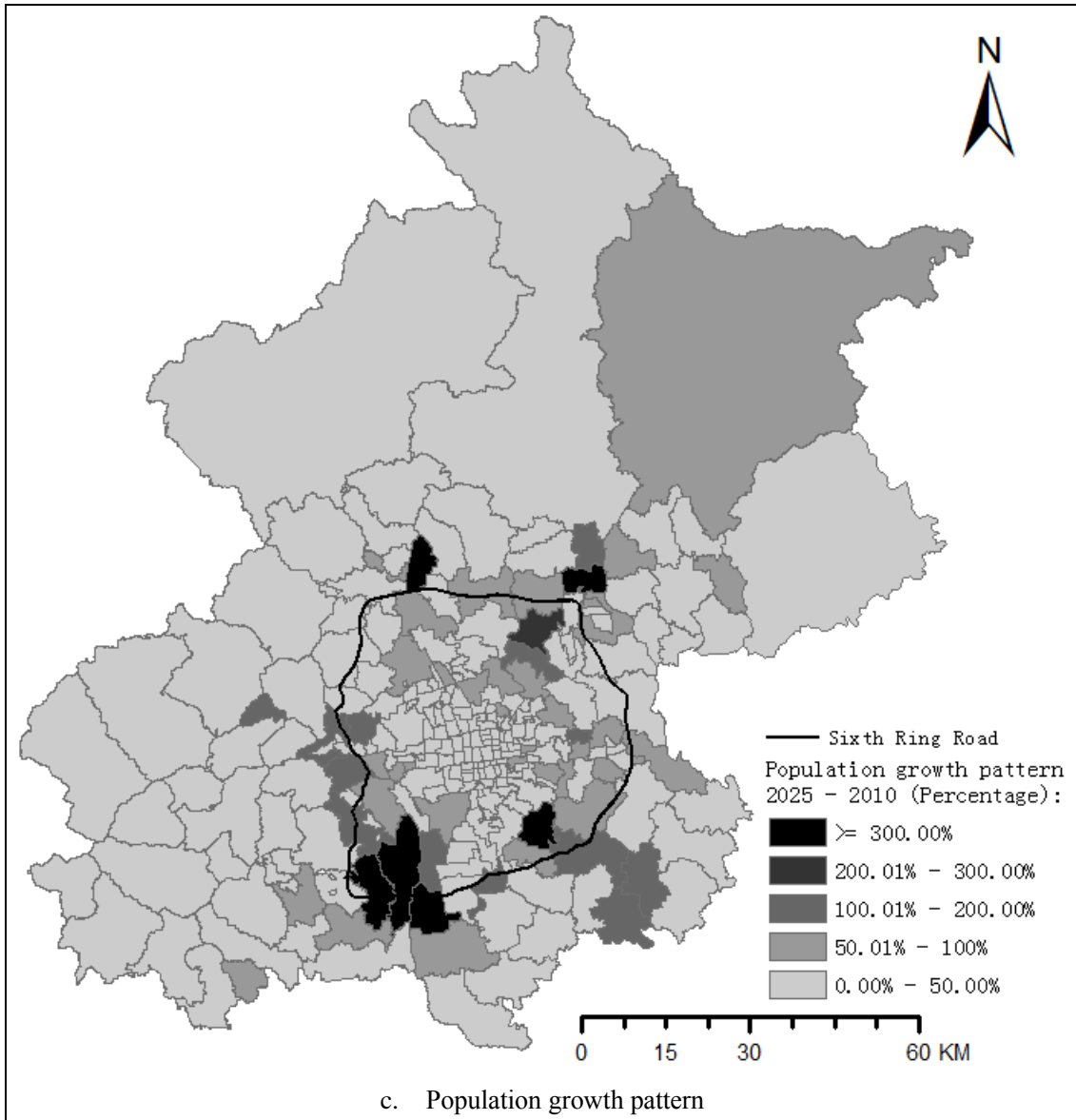
281 According to Fig.4a and b, the residents and employment densities are still high
 282 in central Beijing in 2025, with most zones whose residents' densities are more
 283 concentrated than the employment and only few zones showing high employment
 284 densities. Fig.4c and d show the differences between the years 2025 and 2010
 285 residential population and employment distributions respectively. As shown in Fig. 4c,

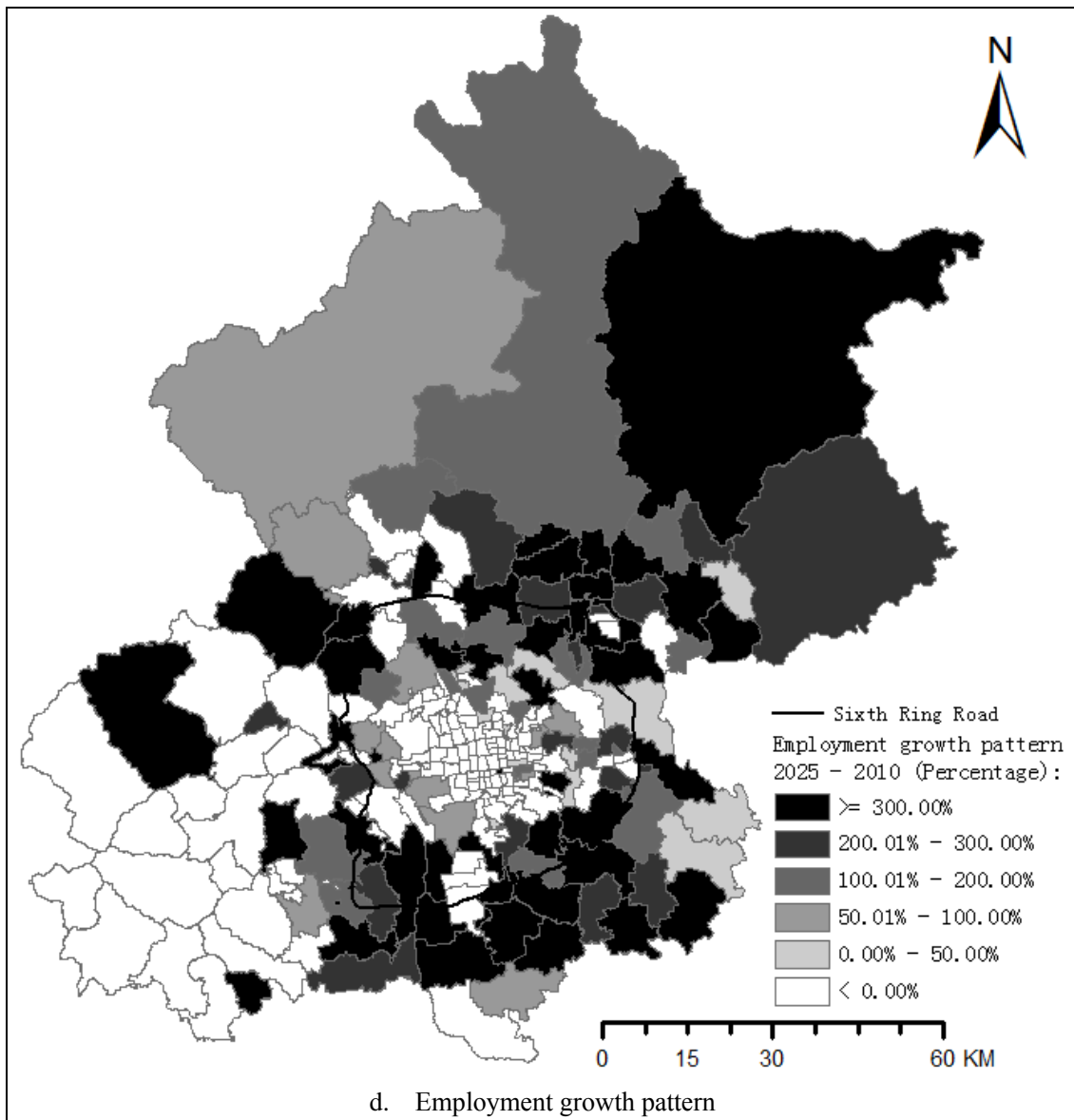
286 the population density of each zone has increased along with the total population
287 increases, though the higher population density increase is mainly located along the
288 6th ring road. The employment distribution change is more decentralized from Fig. 4d.
289 Some zones' (mainly, in central city) employment densities decrease, even though the
290 overall employment increases by 2% as set in the scenario. This indicates that with
291 more floorspace developed in suburb, more businesses will move from the central
292 urban areas with higher rents to outside of the city for lower rents, while the residents
293 still prefer to live close to the central city because of the high transport accessibility
294 and jobs. Nevertheless, the growth patterns in Fig.4c and d indicate the trend that
295 more and more people and jobs are moving to the outskirts.

296









297 Fig.4 Resident and employment growth patterns (2025 vs 2010)

298 **5. Discussion and Future work**

299 **5.1 Usefulness of the model**

300 This study is intended to provide a methodology or tool to test the urban land use or
 301 transport policies. In this study, an automatic calibration method is implemented.
 302 Though the results of goodness-of-fit tests are encouraging, modeling the future
 303 development of cities remains difficult, as unexpected factors affect location rents and
 304 the behavior of actors can change. The model perhaps should not be used to predict
 305 the future distribution of a city but as a tool for examining the possible differences
 306 arising from the adoption of different policies in a context of a continuation of past
 307 behavior of actors.

308 **5.2 Land use policies**

309 The land market modeling nonetheless remains important as the land market is a key
310 factor affecting the floorspace development. As suggested in the paper, the aim of this
311 study is to provide a tool to test land use/transport policy scenarios and project various
312 activity distributions. However, at present this model does not have a land use market
313 sub-model.

314 The decentralization of the urban activities in Beijing is currently being planned
315 by the authority as a consequence of the heavy traffic congestion and pollution in the
316 central city. For example, a new airport will be built in the south of Beijing; the
317 municipal government is considering the move to the suburban district of *Tongzhou*.
318 These further stimulate the floorspace development on the outskirts of the city. Even
319 so, as these projects will not be realized for a number of years, this study assumes that
320 the current land use policy trends will continue. In practice these trends may not
321 necessarily be the real future policies of the authority.

322 Beijing's urban land use and floorspace development is partly determined by the
323 government and developers and further influenced by the land market. As the
324 floorspace is one of the key factors determining the urban activity distribution, a
325 sub-model to forecast the floorspace development pattern with respect to the land
326 market requirements needs to be developed.

327 **5.3 Location utility and modeling spatial scale**

328 In this study, the location utility/profitability is estimated as the weighted sum of its
329 accessibility affected by transport cost and activity distribution and its consumption
330 utility/profitability measured by rent.

331 The model is applied to Beijing at zone or so-called town scale. It is the most
332 detailed and finest scale at which a model has ever been constructed in China. A town
333 however is still a considerably large area with varied employment activities.

334 Implementation of the model at an even lower level such as a neighbourhood or
335 community level is possible but requires an efficient algorithm with more detailed
336 data and high performance computing. An alternative method is to work with other
337 models toward an integrated solution.

338 **5.4 Activity categorization and accessibility estimation**

339 This study differentiates the accessibility by activity. Based on the family member age,

340 the household accessibility is divided into three parts, i.e. the hospital accessibility for
341 the elderly, the workplace accessibility for workers and the school accessibility for
342 children. The employment accessibility is estimated at sectoral level. However
343 different companies may have different degrees of sensitivity to the distribution of the
344 residential population and needs for space to access to the utilities and suppliers. With
345 the data available it is feasible to develop a model to estimate the employment
346 accessibility at company level.

347 The households are currently treated as a single socio-economic group in the
348 model. However, households can be classified into groups based on the income level
349 and preference of transport. Perhaps, one of the targets for the next version of the
350 model is to develop a more sophisticated household accessibility estimation
351 sub-model by identifying different socio-economic groups.

352 **5.5 Transport scenario**

353 This study does not incorporate any change in the transport system as it usually alters
354 more slowly than the land use. However, the model is capable of modeling the impact
355 of the transport system change on the activity distribution. For example, the transport
356 cost can be re-estimated with an updated road network. The transport accessibility and
357 transport cost variables provide strong functionalities for transport policy simulation
358 and an interface to integrate with other intelligent transport tools.

359 **6. Conclusions**

360 This research enriches the land use/transport interaction model portfolio by
361 developing an activity-based LUTI model using the concepts – activities (mainly,
362 households and employment activities) and activity location and relocation. The
363 model is predominately a tool for a region to test its land-use and transport policies. It
364 is an equilibrium model, comprising a residential and employment activity location
365 sub-model, a transport sub-model and an implicit real estate rent adjustment
366 sub-model. The urban activity location and relocation is determined iteratively. The
367 model is subsequently applied to Beijing to forecast the distribution of activities in
368 2025 based on the present land use policies. Modeling results show that the zones in
369 central city have higher population in 2025 than that in 2010, but with the decreasing
370 number of employment. The results also indicate that more residents and employers
371 choose to locate on the outskirts of the city.

372 The results provide evidence that the model is capable of quantifying the activity

373 distribution change by zone and supporting decision makers to test new urban land
374 use and transport policies. The model can be applied to other cities in China with
375 refinement. The study is the first step in developing LUTI type models to examine the
376 urban spatial evolution and support the sustainable development of Chinese cities
377 within a large work program. As discussed, a set of sub-models will be developed in
378 the next generation of the model. Other further work includes model validation based
379 on retrospective methods using historical data, the Other Services (i.e, *ogs*)
380 endogeneity, and the improvement of zone valuation.

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