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土地混合使用對住宅價格的影響—

台北市實證研究

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土地混合使用對住宅價格的影響－ 解析混合使用、密度與可及性

摘要

TOD (Transit-oriented Development) 站區的住宅價格，若因土地混合使用的實施而提高，則可能影響 TOD 提高大眾運輸使用目標的達成；然而，混合使用對房價影響的文獻仍然有限。本文研究目的有二：解析混合使用、密度與可及性；探討混合使用是否影響房價。研究假設為：空間衡量尺度的「區位差異假設」、土地使用種類的「種類越多越好假設」、與土地用量體的「量體充足假設」或「越多越好假設」。本研究應用特徵價格模型 (Hedonic Price Model) 建立台北市住宅價格模型。實證結果顯示：較佳的混合空間尺度為對面街廓混合，亦即「近，但不要太近」；住家日常生活直接需求土地使用種類，則越多越理想；但量體大小則並無影響，呈現「夠了就好」的關係模式。然而此較佳的土地混合型態的代價為高房價，形成 TOD 實施工具－混合使用－與 TOD 目標的衝突。但搭配 TOD 的高密度（高容積）政策，可緩和房價的上漲、並提高 TOD 站區的住宅供給，且可同時保有理想的土地混合使用型態。

關鍵字：TOD、土地混合使用、特徵價格模型、空間分析

Abstract

One of the primary objectives of transit-oriented development (TOD) is to provide affordable housing in station areas, which allows transit-dependents to fulfill their residential self-selection and hence to take transit. However, this objective could be hampered due to high housing prices in TOD station areas. Nonetheless, past research shed little lights on the impact of mixed use on housing prices. This research aims to analyze the relationship between mixed use, density, and accessibility on the one hand, and to evaluate the impact of mixed use on housing prices on the other hand. To accomplish this empirical research, hedonic price model is applied for the case of Taipei, Taiwan. Research findings suggest more types of compatible residential-needs uses in neighboring blocks increase housing prices. This research also reveals that higher quantity of land use does not significantly improve level of accessibility. A community designed with neighboring-blocks mixed use and high diversity of land uses provides better accessibility, but also leads to higher housing prices. Hence this research suggests raising floor area ratio cap, together with the suggested mixed use type, which on the one hand, is likely to lower housing price per unit floor area, and on the other hand, to increase housing supply in TOD station areas.

Keywords: Transit-oriented Development; Mixed Use; Hedonic Price Model; Spatial Analysis

近年由於對於永續發展目標的重視，新都市主義（New Urbanism）、智慧型成長（Smart Growth）、緊密都市（Compact City）逐漸成為都市規劃的主流（Calthorpe, 1993; Bernick and Cervero, 1997; O'Neill, 2000）；影響所及，土地混合使用，尤其是住宅區的混合使用，再度受到國內外產、官、學界的重視（Cervero and Kockelman, 1997; Grant, 2002; Tsai et al., 2006; 林楨家、蕭博正，2006），並與高密度與友善的步行空間共同成為大眾運輸導向（土地使用）發展（Transit-oriented Development/TOD）的三大實施工具（Cervero and Kockelman, 1997），以營造 TOD 站區¹有利大眾運輸經營、使用的環境。

而 TOD 站區住宅價格（以下簡稱房價）若因混合使用的實施而提高，可能影響 TOD 提高大眾運輸使用的目標，亦即 TOD 實施工具與目標的衝突。首先，TOD 站區房價若因混合使用而提高，將可能造成或加深 TOD 站區「仕紳化（Gentrification）」的現象—高所得家戶進駐而排擠較低收入戶—TOD 站區成為較不依賴、較少使用捷運的高收入戶之房地產投資地區。其次，以中低收入戶為主體的大眾運輸依賴者（Transit Dependents），因經濟能力限制，較無能力購買 TOD 站區住宅，而無法滿足其「（捷運）住宅自我選擇（Residential Self-selection）」（Levine et al., 2005; Tsai, 2008）—為搭乘捷運而偏向居住於較接近捷運車站的需求—形成都市規劃中社區與使用者間的「撮合錯誤（Mismatched）」現象（Schwanen and Mokhtarian, 2004, 2005; Tsai et al., 2006）。最後，中低收入戶因其捷運可及性降低，而造成其捷運使用率減低。

然而，目前混合使用對房價影響的文獻仍然有限，又部分衡量混合使用的指標和概念，與可及性、密度間的交錯情況仍不全然清楚。土地混合使用的型態、指標（黃書緯，2008）、對生活環境品質的負面影響（李永展，1983）、對生活便利性的正面影響（Grant, 2002）、與對交通的影響（洪軍燮，1994；陳昌顯，1994；Cervero and Kockelman, 1997; Lin and Hsiao, 2006）的相關研究已經不少，但土地混合使用對於居住環境的正、負面影響，是否反映於（Capitalized）房價（Cao and Cory, 1981; Song and Knaap, 2004）或地價（Cervero and Duncan, 2004），相關研究仍有限。

本研究的主要研究目的有二：一為解析混合使用、密度與可及性；二為探討混合使用是否影響房價，及其影響的面向。為衡量混合使用對房價的影響，本研究發展出三面向的研究假設：分別為空間衡量尺度的「區位差異假設」、土地使用種類的數量面向之「種類越多越好假設」、與土地使用量體面向的「量體充足假設」或「越多越好假設」（細節詳以下混合使用影響房價三面向假設一節）。本研究以台北市為實證案例，應用特徵價格模型（Hedonic Price Model）建立台北市住宅價格模型。研究成果對於 TOD 站區、大規模都市更新區、重劃區的實際規劃應有所助益；除此，亦可填補住宅估價於混合使用影響部分的研究缺口。本文其他章節依序為：（一）混合使用的背景、定義、與偏好；（二）混合使用對房價的影響—解析土地混合使用、密度與可及性的關係；（三）混合使用影響房價三面向假設；（四）資料來源、方法、與特徵價格模型；（五）實證分析與研究假設驗證；（六）密度對房價影響模擬分析；（七）結論與政策建議。

一、混合使用的背景、定義、與偏好

混合使用於都市計畫受到重視的原因，過去與現在稍有不同：早期偏向減少其對居住環境寧適性的負

面衝擊，近年則轉變為以混合使用促進都市永續發展的正面思考。早期台灣的混合使用偏向保留傳統混合使用居住型態、及配合家庭式商業的文化因素（此趨勢有別於美國由傳統的市中心混合，轉變為住商分離的土地使用型態（Grant, 2002）），因此，過去研究較著重於減少土地使用間不相容性的影響（如噪音、異味等（賴彥伶，2006）），依據住戶的（最低）可接受程度，對於土地使用種類、最小空間尺度、混合比例提出政策建議（李永展，1983；徐瑞梅，1985；宋良政，1986；陳惠珠，1989；陳亮全，1989；Ewing, 1996；曾慧真，1999）。除此，亦有部分研究就混合使用的正面影響，如活動便利性、居民互動性進行分析（陳惠珠，1989；莊琮博，2001；許戎聰、黃健二，2001）。近期，此混合使用的正面影響逐漸受到更多的重視，研究著重於混合使用提高社區的活動便利性或可及性，營造有利大眾運輸發展與步行的建成環境，間接地促成大眾運輸使用率提高，進而減少交通所引起的能源消耗、空氣與噪音污染（Frank and Pivo, 1994；Ewing et al., 1996；Cervero and Kockelman, 1997；曾慧真，1999），促進社會互動機會（Grant, 2002）。

混合使用的概念清楚，但其定義卻仍多樣不一致（Grant, 2002）。廣義的意涵為不同土地使用或活動場所，於某（較小）空間尺度中共同存在，但明確定義常因各研究於土地使用種類或空間定義的不同，而有所差異。住商混合使用為較狹義但最常出現的定義，較寬廣的定義則包括更多種類的土地使用（如可相容的工業使用（賴春綢，1990）、三種以上以營利為目的的商業（Urban Land Institute, 1987））、或甚至同一土地使用種類但不同使用強度（Grant, 2002）、不同社會經濟背景（如所得、人種）的混合（Cervero and Duncan, 2004；Lees, 2008）。較合理的混合使用衡量空間尺度可能相對較小，如建物、街廓、或數個街廓，其原因為於大尺度空間，如都市、行政區，各空間單元皆為混合狀況，且混合差異度可能不大。

過去混合使用研究顯示，居民對較小空間範圍內的混合接受度偏低；又過去此類研究多以居民滿意度的主觀性資料為主，較缺乏以客觀性指標衡量混合使用對住宅的影響。部分研究顯示居民對同棟、同街廓混合的接受度並不高，然而，多數商業使用者則贊成同棟混合（陳惠珠，1989；賴春綢，1990；許弘忠，1993），以接近客戶或減低營業場所成本。但此類研究成果多基於居民滿意度調查資料，屬於感受性、主觀性的衡量方式。僅有極少數研究嘗試以較客觀方法分析較佳的土地混合型態：曾有研究以線性規劃（Linear Programming）求取一定空間內的不同土地的最適混合比例程度（Optimal Land Use Mix）（Boaden, 1977）。藉由混合使用對房價的影響或許可衡量出，不同混合使用型態的總體（含正負面）影響如何反映於住宅市場（細節詳下節），有助於以客觀的資料探究最佳混合使用的形態。

二、混合使用對房價的影響—解析土地混合使用、密度與可及性的關係

混合使用對房價的影響，可區分為其對住宅活動可及性提高的正面影響、及減少住宅寧適性的負面影響兩部分（Levine et al., 2005）。混合使用對於住戶活動可及性的提高，應較偏向日常生活活動而非通勤活動，原因為工作地點於住家所在社區的機率一般不高；因此，混合使用可提高住戶於社區的活動便利性與多樣性、老人日常生活的獨立性等（Grant, 2002），進而可能提高房價。然而，高可及性的代價可能是噪音、擁擠等不寧適、不相容的負面影響，進而降低房價。因此，混合使用透過活動可及性的提高，可能對房價造成正負面不同程度的影響。

然而可及性亦受到密度高低的影響。若以住宅附近的商業活動密度（住商混合社區）為例，其對於房

¹ 約五分鐘步行距離，或半徑 400 公尺範圍（Cervero and Kockelman, 1997）。

價的影響機制與混合使用類似－商業活動的密度影響住宅的活動可及性與寧適性。密度與混合使用對房價影響的相同點為，兩者皆影響活動的可及性；不同點則為，混合使用（衡量指標）將住商使用的相對比例納入考慮。

因此，混合使用、密度、與可及性三者關係有所交錯，而三者與房價的關係，形構成三個不同層次的因果關係架構。混合使用與密度為土地使用計畫中的兩重要工具，可改變住宅至其他土地使用的可及性高低，造成不同程度的正、負面影響，進而可能反映於房價。因此，混合使用與密度可視為可及性的輸入元素（Input Factors），可及性則為其輸出（Output），對房價的影響，則可視為結果（Outcome）。

為解析混合使用、密度、可及性三種類變數間的交錯情況，以下以可及性為中心，分析前兩類與可及性的關係。眾多可及性變數於三面向的性質可能有所不同：（1）衡量的空間尺度：包括以鄰近程度（Proximity-based）（如至最近便利商店的距離）、某一空間範圍內（Boundary-based）（如步行五分鐘內的便利商店數）、及臨接與否（Adjacency-based）（如是否面臨公園）三種空間衡量類型；（2）衡量種類的數量：為僅衡量單一、或同時衡量多種土地使用種類；（3）衡量的量體大小：如是否衡量商店店數或樓地板面積。以下為三大類可及性變數於以上三面向狀況及其適用情形：

1. 對單一土地使用種類中、單一對象的可及性：適用於衡量單一對象即可：（1）滿足主要的需求，如大型超市；（2）造成顯著的衝擊；或（3）當衡量某種使用是否臨接或出現於衡量範圍內（表一）。此類變數亦以「鄰近程度」出現，如至最近公園（Song and Knapp, 2004; Song, 2005）的距離。衡量的變數多無將其量體大小納入計算。
2. 對單一土地使用種類中、多個對象的可及性：適用於某一土地使用的所有對象皆需同時納入衡量，以正確評估其影響。其衡量的空間方式以鄰近程度、與某一空間範圍內為主；前者的變數如以重力模型（Gravity-model）為基礎的變數²（Cervero and Kockelman, 1997），後者的變數如街廓內零售業、辦公室、或診所的樓地板面積或間數（表一）。衡量的變數無必然將量體大小納入計算。
3. 對多種土地使用種類中、多個對象的可及性：適用於多種土地使用種類須同時納入衡量，以正確評估其影響。其衡量的空間方式以某一空間範圍內為主。此類變數如某一空間範圍內非住宅的總樓地板面積、某一交通時間內的工作機會（Isochronal Job Accessibility Indicator）、熵值³（Entropy）（Frank and Pivo, 1994; Kockelman, 1997; Cervero, 2002; Cervero and Duncan, 2004; 林楨家與蕭博正，2006）、Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI 值)⁴（Song, 2005）、Dissimilarity Index⁵（Cervero, 1988; Cervero and

² 如住宅的商場可及性指標（Cervero and Kockelman, 1997）：

$$A_i = \sum_j (B_j / t_{ij}^\lambda)$$

其中 A_i = 居住地點分區 i 的商業可及性指標

B_j = j 區商業數量（如樓地板面積）

t_{ij} = 居住地點分區 i 到 j 區的旅行時間

λ = t_{ij} 的（阻礙）係數（Impedance Coefficient）

³ Entropy = $-\sum_k [p_k (\ln p_k)] / (\ln K)$

其中 p_k = 第 i 種土地的百分比

k = 土地使用種類的數量。

熵值衡量一定的空間範圍內，各土地使用別平均分配程度；各種使用分配越趨近同比例分配，熵值越大，土地混合使用的強度越高。

⁴ $HHI(k) = \sum_i (p_i)^2$

其中 p_i = 第 i 種土地使用的百分比

k = 土地使用種類的數量

Kockleman, 1997)、與某一空間範圍內非住宅土地使用的種類數 (Levine et al., 2005) (表一)。

可及性、混合使用、與密度變數間的交錯關係，可藉由於表一中變數的重疊情況說明。與混合使用變數交疊的可及性變數如：是否有超市位於同一街廓內、街廓內零售所佔百分比、某一空間範圍內住宅與商業樓地板面積的比值、熵、HHI 值、Dissimilarity Index、某一空間範圍內非住宅土地使用的種類數。可及性、混合使用、與密度三者交錯的包括：某一空間範圍內（如街廓、一分鐘步行半徑內）零售業、辦公室、或診所的樓地板面積。

根據過去有限的研究顯示，一般而言，相容、適量的日常生活活動的混合，對於住宅價格有提高的現象。住家附近的學校、公園、開放空間等公共設施 (Song and Knaap, 2004; Irwin, 2002; Chin and Foong, 2006)、可相容的、低度的商業使用 (Cao and Cory, 1981; Cervero and Duncan, 2004; Song and Knaap, 2004)，可提高住家日常生活活動的可及性，因此造成房價上升。另一研究顯示，住商混造成房價上升的情況發生於市中心，原因可能為市中心的居民偏好高可及性的環境；然而，對於偏好住宅寧適性的郊區居民，則混合使用反造成房價的下跌 (Geoghegan et al., 1996)。

三、混合使用影響房價三面向假設

為衡量混合使用對房價的影響，本研究根據前述分析建立三面向研究假設：(1) 空間尺度面向：住宅與日常生活直接需求土地使用（定義為家戶一段期間內需至該場所的土地使用型態）（以下簡稱日常生活土地使用）的混合使用，其於不同區位對房價的影響程度不同；其影響模式依土地使用種類，而可能為以下三者之一：(a)「越近越好」：亦即距離越近，價格越高，如迎毗性 (Yes In My Backyard/YIMBY) 設施 (圖一 A)⁶；(b)「近，但不要太近」(圖一 B)；(c)「遠，但不要太遠」(圖一 C)。假設其他情況不變，以上三情境中最高房價發生的區位，分別為由近而遠（以下簡稱為「區位差異假設」）。若其他土地使用為鄰避性 (Not In My Backyard/NIMBY) 設施，則其影響模式可能為「越遠越好」⁷；(2) 土地使用種類的數量面向：日常生活土地使用種類越多，房價越高，亦即「種類越多越方便」（以下簡稱為「種類越多越好假設」）(圖二)。(3) 土地用量體面向：日常生活土地用量體大小對房價的影響，其影響模式依土地使用種類而可能為以下兩者之一：(a)「夠了就好」的充足假設（以下簡稱為「量體充足假設」）：如鄰里中的便利商店只要達一定數量即可滿足需求 (圖三 A)；(b)「越多越好假設」：如鄰里中公園面積越大越好 (圖三 B)。

⁵ HHI 的值介於 $1/k$ 至 1 之間，值為 1 時為僅有單一土地使用。

$$\text{Dissimilarity Index} = 0.5 \sum_{i=1}^k |X_i - Y_i|$$

其中 X_i = i 分區中住宅面積佔計畫區住宅總面積的百分比

Y_i = i 分區中非住宅佔計畫區非住宅總面積的百分比

其值介於 0 與 1 之間，指標值越高則混合使用（平均分配）的程度越高。

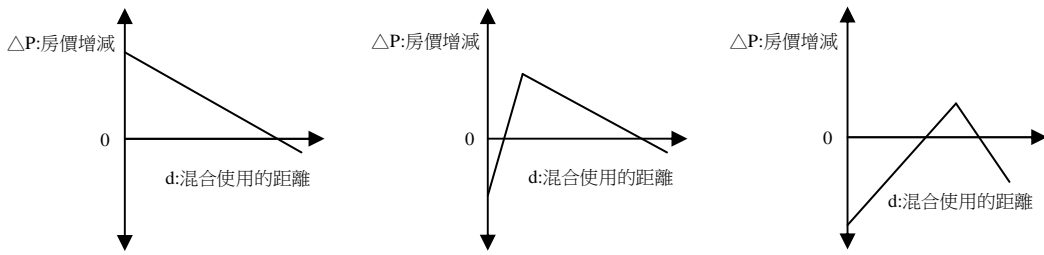
⁶ 另一特殊區位偏好情況則為相鄰最好，如開放空間、公園。

⁷ 鄰避性設施對房價的影響可能為「越遠越好」型態，但因其多為「非日常生活直接需求土地使用」，因此不予以列入本研究的混合使用類型。

表一 可及性變數的種類、應用時機、與分類依據

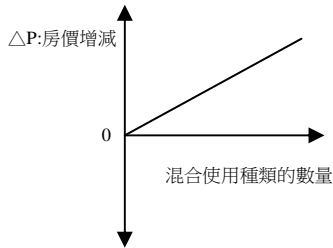
可及性變數種類	應用時機	空間尺度	衡量對象的量體	變數（變數性質）
1. 對單一土地使用種類中、單一對象的可及性	(1) 單一對象即可滿足主要的需求 (2) 單一對象即可造成顯著的衝擊 (3) 衡量某種使用是否臨接或出現於衡量範圍內	(1) 鄰近程度	無納入	●至最近超商、捷運車站、學校、公園的距離（連續型變數）
		(2) 某一空間範圍內	無納入	●是否有超市位於同一街廓內（虛擬變數） ●是否有大型超市位於步行範圍內（虛擬）
		(3) 臨接與否	無納入	●是否與公園臨接（虛擬）
2. 對單一土地使用種類中、多個對象的可及性	(1) 所有對象需同時納入衡量，以正確評估其影響。 (2) (當衡量某種使用是否臨接或出現於衡量範圍內)	(1) 鄰近程度	納入：以數量為基礎。	●重力模型為基礎的變數（連續型）
		(2) 某一空間範圍內	納入：以數量為基礎。	●某一空間範圍內（如街廓）零售業、辦公室、或診所的樓地板面積（連續型）
			納入：以百分比為基礎。	●某一空間範圍內（如街廓）零售業、辦公室、或診所樓地板所佔百分比（連續型）
3. 對多種土地使用種類中、多個對象的可及性	(1) 多種土地使用種類需同時納入衡量，以正確評估其影響。	(1) 某一空間範圍內	無納入	●某一空間範圍內零售業、辦公室、或診所的間數（連續型）
			納入：以數量為基礎。	●某一空間範圍內非住宅的總樓地板面積（連續型） ●某一空間範圍內每就業人口享有的非住宅樓地板面積（連續型） ●某一交通時間內（Isochronical）的商業空間（連續型） ●某一空間範圍內鄰避設施的土地面積或樓地板面積（連續型）
			納入：以百分比為基礎。	●熵值（Entropy）（連續型） ●Herfindahl-Hirschman Index（HHI 值）（連續型） ●Dissimilarity Index（連續型） ●某一空間範圍內商業樓地板或單元數的百分比（連續型）* ●某一空間範圍內住宅與商業樓地板面積的比值（連續型）
			無納入	●某一空間範圍內非住宅土地使用的種類數（連續型） ●某一空間範圍內有非住宅土地使用（虛擬）

* 如住、工、商樓地板於街廓內所佔百分比（賴春綢，1990），或商業單元（如門牌）佔沿街面的百分比（曾慧真，1999）。

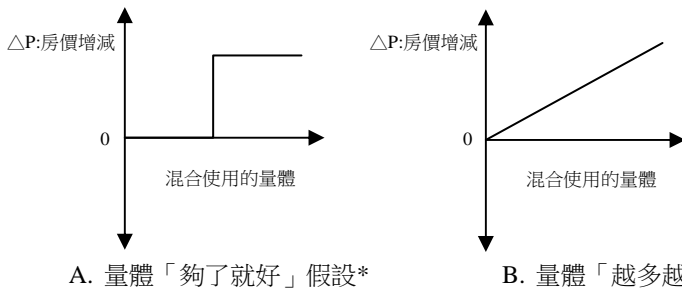


A. 混合使用「越近越好」假設 B. 「近，但不要太近」假設 C. 「遠，但不要太遠」假設

圖一 混合使用假設：空間尺度面向「區位差異假設」概念圖



圖二 混合使用假設：土地使用種類的數量面向「種類越多越好假設」概念圖



A. 量體「夠了就好」假設*

B. 量體「越多越好」假設*

*量體若過大，可能會對住宅寧適性產生較大影響而降低房價。但為達概念圖清晰的目的，因此不予以繪出。

圖三 混合使用假設：土地使用量體面向假設概念圖

四、資料來源、方法、與特徵價格模型

為驗證上述空間尺度、土地使用種類的數量、以及土地使用量體三面向研究假設，本研究的實證案例為高度土地混合使用、且混合使用種類多樣的台北市，分析單元為住宅單元。主要資料來源包括台北市不動產數位資料庫（2001 年的住宅交易價格與基本資料）⁸（台北市政府地政處）、2000 年台北市稅捐稽徵處的門牌單元現況土地使用資料、以及門牌座標、社會經濟資料、公共設施、及交通設施的地理資訊系統（Geographic Information Systems/GIS）圖檔。上述住宅單元的空間資料處理工具為 ArcGIS 與 Excel。為分析混合使用對房價的影響，本研究應用特徵價格模型建立台北市房價模型，分析工具為 SPSS。

（一）特徵價格模型：住宅單價、總價、單價－總價模型

⁸ 於 2001 年約 1800 筆交易個案中，首先篩選出住宅使用個案，繼而系統抽樣出約 700 筆交易個案，以盡量減少抽樣誤差、並兼顧後續大量土地使用空間資料處理的可行性。

為分析混合使用對房價的影響、及應用於住宅的總價估價，本研究同時採用住宅單價、與總價模型。又為改進總價模型中，住宅及社區屬性影響總價的數學計算上不盡合理之處（詳下），本節提出「單價－總價特徵價格模型」。

特徵價格模型假設大多數的消費者財貨（Consumer Goods）具許多不同面向的財貨特性，而此財貨的交易價格（Transaction Price），可視為個別面向的財貨特性價格所加總（Rosen, 1974; Cervero and Duncan, 2004）。此混合使用住宅單價特徵價格模型的內容如下（公式 1）：

$$P_i = f(M, H, L) \\ = a_0 + \sum a_M * x_M + \sum a_H * x_H + \sum a_L * x_L + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

- P_i 為住宅單元 i 的單位面積交易價格
- a 為係數
- M 為住宅單元 i 的混合使用情形
- H 為住宅單元 i 的住宅與建物屬性
- L 為住宅單元 i 的社區屬性
- ε 為誤差項

住宅總價特徵價格模型，則以住宅總價為因變數，自變數則除單價模型中的住宅、建物、社區條件屬性，另加入住宅面積為另一屬性變數（公式 2）。

$$TP_i = f(M, H, L, Q) \\ = a_0 + \sum a_M * x_M + \sum a_H * x_H + \sum a_L * x_L + a_Q * Q + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

- TP_i 為住宅單元 i 的交易總價
- Q 為住宅單元 i 的面積

上述傳統的住宅總價特徵價格模型，屬性變數對於總價的影響機制不盡合理，因此本研究提出「單價－總價特徵價格模型」。傳統的住宅總價特徵價格模型中，其住宅、建物、社區屬性若改變，則住宅總價（亦即因變數）依個別屬性的影響程度（即自變數係數大小），成比例性的增加或減少，例如，若屋齡增加一年，則住宅總價減少若干金額（如三萬）；又若住宅面積增加一坪，則住宅總價增加若干金額（如五萬）。此總價模型的缺點為，以上述案例為例，若屋齡增加一年，對不同條件的住宅，如不同大小的住宅，如 15 坪的套房與 100 坪的豪宅，其影響大小皆為三萬，顯然不盡合理。因此傳統總價模型的屬性直接影響總價的機制有改進的空間。

「單價－總價特徵價格模型」中住宅、建物、社區的個別特徵變數，透過其對住宅單價的影響，繼而與住宅面積相乘而影響總價，因此一方面可衡量個別變數對住宅單價的影響，另一方面可預測住宅總價。此修正型模型的影響機制可以區分為兩階段，第一階段：如同住宅單價特徵價格模型，住宅單價受屬性所影響（公式 1）。第二階段：應用總價為單價與面積的乘積概念，建立「單價－總價特徵價格模型」（公式 3）（蔡育新、劉小蘭、王大立，進行中論文）。

$$TP_i = P_i * Q_i \\ = f(M, H, L) * Q_i \\ = a_0 + \sum a_M * (Q * x_M) + \sum a_H * (Q * x_H) + \sum a_L * (Q * x_L) + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

(二) 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型

為驗證量體與種類的數量研究假設，混合使用的衡量採用可影響住戶日常生活活動的可及性變數。量體為基礎的可及性變數，包括非住宅使用⁹、住戶日常活動使用⁹、日常商業使用⁹等之樓地板面積。種類數量為基礎的變數，包括日常活動使用種類數、Entropy (熵)¹⁰、HHI¹⁰、存有日常活動使用、日常活動使用所佔百分比(表二)。

為驗證空間尺度面向假設，上述混合使用變數皆於數個不同空間範圍衡量：如建物、街廓、及本街廓與臨接街廓、或 0.5、1、1.5 分鐘步行半徑。本研究採用兩套空間系統以衡量土地混合使用－建物－街廓系統、步行半徑系統－兩套系統分別獨立運用於三個特徵價格的模型(單價、總價、與單價－總價模型)。建物－街廓系統考量，土地混合使用實質發生的最小空間單元為建物，以及考量土地使用分區管制的規範，以街廓為基本空間單元。步行半徑系統考量建物－街廓系統的主要缺失－無法標準化(Standardize)大小不同的建物、或街廓－因此採用 0.5、1、1.5 分鐘步行半徑(半徑分別為 40、80、120 公尺¹¹)，三個由小至大的空間單元¹²。

控制變數為其他可及性指標、住宅、建物、街廓、及本街廓與臨接街廓的特性、以及所在行政區。其他可及性指標包括到最近學校、捷運站的距離、是否臨接公園。住宅特性包括住宅單元面積、是否位於一樓。建物特性包括屋齡、建物總樓地板面積、建物形式、法定建蔽率、法定容積率、土地使用分區種類¹³、面臨馬路寬度。街廓、及本街廓與臨接街廓的特性，包括衡量空間內總樓地板、總住宅使用樓地板面積(表二)。

特徵價格模型的執行步驟有二：一為進行自變數與因變數間一對一關係分析(Bivariate Analysis)，以確認兩者間最佳的線性關係；步驟二則為複迴歸(Multivariate Analysis)分析。

9 非住宅使用：日常活動使用、非日常商業(即旅館)。

日常活動使用：日常商業使用(商業、餐飲、零售、百貨與大型商場、休閒業五類)、診所、辦公場所、私人教育設施或社區活動場所、宗教、及停車場、學校共七類

¹⁰ 採用住宅加日常活動使用共八類計算。

¹¹ 以每分鐘平均步行距離 80 公尺為計算基礎。

¹² 建物的重心若位於半徑內，則整個建物計入此半徑範圍。

¹³ 土地使用分區主要規範建蔽率、容積率、與允許土地使用種類。台北市住宅與商業分區除住一外，皆允許住商混合。本模型為衡量各分區允許土地使用種類對房價的影響，故將法定建蔽率、法定容積率、與土地使用分區同時納入；即以法定建蔽率與法定容積率為控制變數，則土地使用分區可代表其允許土地混合使用的種類。

表二 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型採用之變數

變數	替代變數
因變數：住宅單價、住宅總價（萬元/M ² ）	
住宅的活動可及性—受混合使用影響者	
量體面向： 建物內： 建物內非住宅使用的總樓地板面積（M ² ） 建物內商業使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 街廓內、或本街廓與臨接街廓： 非住宅使用的總（樓地板）面積（M ² ） 日常活動使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 商業使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 日常生活商業使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 診所使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 辦公使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 學校使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 私人教育或社區活動使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 宗教活動使用的樓地板面積（M ² ） 停車場的（樓地板）面積（M ² ）	種類面向： 建物內非住宅使用總樓地板所佔百分比（%） 建物內存有非住宅使用（1/0） 非住宅使用的總樓地板所佔百分比（%） 存有非住宅使用（1/0） 日常活動使用總樓地板所佔百分比（%） 存有日常活動使用（1/0） Entropy（熵）（本街廓與臨接街廓） HHI（本街廓與臨接街廓） 日常生活土地使用種類數 商業使用總樓地板所佔百分比（%） 存有商業使用（1/0） 日常商業使用總樓地板所佔百分比（%） 存有日常商業使用（除旅館使用外）（1/0） 停車場於臨接街廓（1/0）
其他可及性指標	
到最近學校、停車場、捷運站、公園的直線距離（10M）、是否臨接（1/0）	
住宅特性：	
住宅單元面積（M ² ） 是否位於一樓（1/0）	
建物特性：	
屋齡（年） 總樓層數 建物總樓地板面積（100 M ² ） 建物形式 ¹ ： 低樓層（1~2 樓）建物（1/0） 公寓（1/0） 土地使用分區 ² ： 法定建蔽率（%） 法定容積率（%） 土地使用分區種類 ³ ： 住二、住三、住四、商一、商二、商三、商四（1/0） 面臨道路寬度（M）	總住宅使用樓地板面積（100M ² ）
街廓內、或本街廓與臨接街廓特性：	
衡量空間內街廓總樓地板面積（M ² ）	衡量空間內街廓總住宅使用樓地板面積（M ² ）
行政區 ⁴ ： 北投區、大安區、大同區、南港區、內湖區、士林區、松山區、 文山區、信義區、中山區、中正區（1/0）	

1. 以電梯大樓為比較基準點（Baseline）。

2. 土地使用分區主要規範建蔽率、容積率、與允許土地使用種類。台北市住宅與商業分區除住一外，皆允許住商混合。本模型為衡量各分區允許土地使用種類對地價的影響，故將法定建蔽率、法定容積率、與土地使用分區類型同時納入；即以建蔽率與容積率為控制變數，則使用分區可代表其允許土地混合使用種類的程度。

3. 以住一為比較基準點。

4. 以萬華區為比較基準點。

五、實證分析與研究假設驗證

本節實證分析首先分別就以建物－街廓系統、與步行半徑系統，建立的兩組台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型結果進行分析，進而驗證三面向研究假設。

(一) 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型結果：空間尺度採建物－街廓系統

表三台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型的單價（模型一）、總價（模型二）、與單價－總價模型（模型三）的結果顯示：(1) 比較可預測總價的兩模式，單價－總價模式除於計算邏輯較合理外，其模型解釋力（Goodness of Fit: R^2 ）亦稍高；(2) 比較單價與單價－總價模型，個別特徵變數對於住宅單價的影響類似。首先，單價－總價模型較傳統總價模型的模型解釋力（ R^2 ）稍高－分別為 0.721 與 0.71－其與一般總價模型因加入面積變數使其較單價模型解釋力（ R^2 為 0.376）為高的情況一致。

其次，表三的單價－總價模型結果顯示，就建物特性面向，住宅若位於一樓，則每平方公尺較位於其他樓層單價約高 1.65 萬元；此結果可能反映出一樓有獨立的進出口、庭院、與可能為商業使用等特色。屋齡越高，住宅單價越低。法定建蔽率越高，單價越高，可能反映出市場的偏好與較低的建築成本（假設容積率與其他情況不變）。建物總樓層數越高，住宅單價越高，可能反映高樓層的高建築成本。一或二層低層建物，其單價較其他建物型態高，可能反映出每單位樓地板面積的高土地持分比例，造成土地成本提高。反之，實證結果顯示高容積上限會降低住宅單價，此結果反映出，雖然高法定容積率會提高土地價值、建築成本，但因每單位樓地板的土地分配比例下降，住宅單價反而降低。又位於大安區、松山區、士林區、中山區的住宅單價較萬華區為高，每平方公尺房價分別高 1.21、1.14、0.89、與 0.59 萬元；位於文山區、大同區則分別低 0.95、1.09 萬元。

混合使用種類的數量對於住宅單價的影響，於建物內、街廓內、本街廓與臨接街廓，三個由近到遠的空間尺度，某種程度符合「近，但不要太近」的情況。於建物內尺度下，建物內非住宅使用的總樓地板所佔百分比、與建物內存有非住宅使用的混合使用，皆降低住宅單價（分別為表三之模型一、三）。然而，於相對最遠的空間距離－本街廓與臨接街廓內，土地使用越混合，住宅單價越高；當土地使用越平均分配時，亦即越混合使用（HHI 值越低（表三之模型三）、或 Entropy 值越高（表三之模型一）時），住宅單價越高。

於單價－總價、與單價模型中，混合使用的量體變數對住宅單價皆無顯著性影響，此結果顯示日常生活土地用量體的大小，並無影響房價（表三）。若綜合（1）上述於本街廓與臨接街廓內，當土地使用種類越混合使用，則住宅單價越高，與（2）混合使用的量體大小對住宅單價無統計上顯著性影響，則臨接街廓存在混合使用時，其淨外部利益最高，但混合量體大小則無影響；因此可推論日常生活土地使用只要達一定量體、足供居民使用即可，亦即支持量體充足假設。

公園與捷運車站，及學校對住宅的可及性關係，則分別呈現「越近越好」與「越近越好，但不要臨接」的關係。住宅至公園與捷運車站的高可及性，提高住宅單價，亦即「越近越好」；於單價－

表三 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型－空間尺度採建物－街廓系統

變數	模型一：單價	總價模型	
		模型二：總價	模型三：單價－總價

	係數 (P 值)	β	係數 (P 值)	β	係數 (P 值)	β
住宅的活動可及性－受混合使用影響：						
建物內非住宅使用總樓地板百分比 (%)	-0.35(0.04)	-0.04	-1.07(0.01)	-0.07		
建物內非住宅使用總樓地板百分比*住宅單元面積					-0.01(0.04)	-0.06
建物內存有非住宅使用 (1/0)	-1.22(0.00)	-0.12	-107.09(0.01)	-0.04		
建物內存有非住宅使用*住宅單元面積					-1.31(0.00)	-0.19
Entropy (熵) (本街廓與臨接街廓)	0.28(0.03)	0.23				
Entropy 平方 (熵值平方) (本街廓與臨接街廓)	-0.04(0.06)	-0.19				
HHI (本街廓與臨接街廓)			-113.050(0.00)	-0.09		
HHI (本街廓與臨接街廓)*住宅單元面積					-0.95(0.00)	-0.11
臨接學校 (1/0)			-64.64(0.03)	-0.05		
臨接學校*住宅單元面積					-1.08(0.00)	-0.10
到最近學校的直線距離 (10M)			-0.01(0.06)	-0.04		
到最近學校的直線距離*住宅單元面積					-0.01(0.01)	-0.07
到最近公園的直線距離平方 (100M ²)	-0.20(0.00)	-0.13	-0.02(0.00)	-0.09		
到最近公園的直線距離平方*住宅單元面積					-0.01(0.00)	-0.09
到最近捷運站的直線距離平方 (100M ²)	-0.005(0.00)	-0.11				
到最近捷運站的直線距離平方*住宅單元面積					-2.8E-007(0.05)	-0.05
住宅特性：						
住宅單元面積 (M ²)			5.86(0.00)	0.74	5.63(0.00)	0.73
是否位於一樓 (1/0)	2.78(0.00)	0.40	230.14(0.00)	0.24		
是否位於一樓*住宅單元面積					1.65(0.00)	0.17
建物特性：						
總樓層數*住宅單元面積					0.09(0.00)	0.18
建物總樓地板面積 (100M ²)			0.45(0.00)	0.08		
低(1~2)樓層建築 (1/0)	1.78(0.00)	0.18	92.77(0.00)	0.07		
低樓層建築*住宅單元面積					2.09(0.00)	0.12
屋齡 (年)	-0.08(0.00)	-0.33				
屋齡*住宅單元面積					-0.02(0.08)	-0.06
法定建蔽率 (%)	0.08(0.01)	0.28				
法定建蔽率*住宅單元面積					0.07(0.02)	0.45
法定容積率 (%)	-0.004(0.02)	-0.26				
法定容積率*住宅單元面積					-0.004(0.02)	-0.23
面臨道路寬度 (M)	0.03(0.001)	0.13	2.35(0.01)	0.06		
街廓內、或本街廓與臨接街廓特性：						
街廓總住宅使用樓地板面積 (100M ²)			0.21(0.03)	-0.06		
街廓總住宅使用樓地板面積*住宅單元面積					-2.5E-005(0.00)	-0.11
行政區：						
大安區 (1/0)	1.20(0.00)	0.14	137.779(0.00)	0.11		
大安區*住宅單元面積					1.21(0.00)	0.11
大同區 (1/0)	-0.68(0.00)	-0.09	-85.24(0.00)	-0.07		
大同區*住宅單元面積					-0.95(0.00)	-0.10
士林區 (1/0)	0.92(0.00)	0.22	101.05(0.00)	0.15		
士林區*住宅單元面積					0.89(0.00)	0.18
松山區 (1/0)	0.95(0.02)	0.09	114.52(0.00)	0.08		
松山區*住宅單元面積					1.14(0.01)	0.06
文山區 (1/0)	-1.04(0.00)	-0.16	-77.82(0.00)	-0.09		
文山區*住宅單元面積					-1.09(0.00)	-0.12
中山區*住宅單元面積					0.59(0.01)	0.07
常數	5.68(0.00)		99.620 (0.047)		7.05(0.76)	
統計指標：						
樣本數	486		582		542	
Adjusted R ²	0.376		0.71		0.721	

總價與單價模型中，住宅單價與至公園與至捷運站的距離平方，皆成負向顯著性關係。學校對於住宅單價的影響則呈現「越近越好，但不要臨接」的狀況；住宅單價與其至學校距離的平方呈現負向關係，亦即距離越近，單價越高；但若與學校臨接，則單價下降（表三）。

表三標準化係數 (β)，說明屬性對住宅價格的相對影響大小。單價－總價模型中影響總價最大者，為住宅單元面積，而影響單價的變數中，影響較大的依次為法定建蔽率、法定容積率、建物內有無非住宅使用、總樓層數、是否位於一樓、臨接街廓的土地混合程度。因此，土地使用分區管制的主要實施工具－建蔽率、容積率、與混合使用－是影響住宅價格的重要因素。

(二) 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型結果：空間尺度採步行半徑系統

本小節台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型，除混合使用變數所採用的空間尺度，以步行半徑（亦即 40、80、120 公尺）取代前節之建物－街廓系統外，其餘變數皆相同。模型結果顯示，步行半徑系統與建物－街廓系統的兩系列特徵價格模型結果類似。

混合使用種類的數量對於住宅單價的影響，些許程度符合「近，但不要太近」的情況。模型四的單價模型（表四）顯示，於最小空間尺度的 40 公尺半徑內，商業樓地板百分比越高，住宅單價越低；而於 80 公尺的中尺度¹⁴內，Entropy 值越高（越平均分布），住宅單價越高。又於模型六的單價－總價模型中，於 80 公尺的尺度下，混合使用的種類越多（商業樓地板百分比、Entropy），其住宅單價也越高，亦即混合使用種類的數量對於住宅單價的正面影響，發生於中尺度的空間範圍。

於單價－總價、與單價模型中，多數混合使用量體變數對住宅單價無統計上顯著性影響，唯 80 公尺半徑內的文教設施總樓地板面積越高，房價反而越低；顯示於此中尺度空間範圍下，文教設施所引起的生活環境負面影響，大於其正面的活動便利性提高。

(三) 研究假設驗證

土地混合使用對於房價的影響，根據實證結果，第一個面向空間尺度「區位差異假設」獲得支持，而混合的最佳空間尺度為臨接街廓混合，亦即「近，但不要太近」；於此尺度下，加總混合使用可及性提高的正面影響、與其對住宅環境品質的負面影響，其淨外部效益最高；建物內與街廓內的混合使用，則其對住宅環境品質的負面效益，大於其正面的可及性提高效益。第二面向土地使用種類數量的「種類越多越好假設」，亦獲得實證結果支持；於最佳的臨接街廓空間尺度下，日常生活直接需求土地使用種類越多，則房價越高，反映出「種類越多越方便」。第三面向土地用量體的「量體充足假設」獲得實證支持；日常生活土地使用的量體大小於住宅單價無關，量體過大甚至可能造成負面影響，因此支持「夠了就好」的關係模式。

14 80 公尺半徑介於小尺度的 40 公尺與大尺度的 120 公尺半徑。

表四 台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型－空間尺度採 40、80、120 公尺半徑

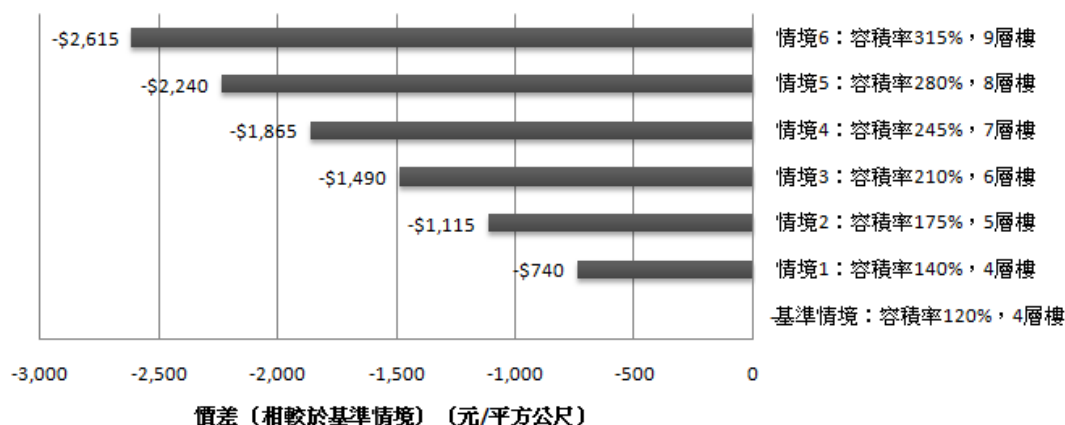
變數	模型四：單價		總價			
			模型五：總價		模型六：單價－總價	
	係數 (P 值)	β	係數 (P 值)	β	係數 (P 值)	β
住宅的活動可及性－受混合使用影響：						
商業樓地板總樓地板百分比(40公尺半徑)(%)	-2.34(0.01)	-0.12				
商業樓地板總樓地板百分比(80公尺半徑)(%)					4	1.79(0.02) 0.06
*住宅單元面積						
Entropy (熵) (80公尺半徑)	0.28(0.03)	0.23				
日常生活土地使用種類數(80公尺半徑)						
日常生活土地使用種類數(80公尺半徑)*住宅單元面積			19.56(0.00)	-0.08		1.21(0.02) -0.08
臨接學校(1/0)*住宅單元面積						-1.04(0.00) -0.10
到最近學校的直線距離(10M)*住宅單元面積						-0.01(0.02) -0.06
到最近公園的直線距離平方(100M ²)	-1.94E-4(0.00)	-0.13	-0.002(0.00)	-0.09		
到最近公園的直線距離平方*住宅單元面積						-1.35E-4(0.00) -0.07
到最近捷運站的直線距離平方(100M ²)	-5.183E-6(0.00)	-0.13				
到最近捷運站的直線距離平方*住宅單元面積						-3.1E-007(0.02) -0.05
住宅特性：						
住宅單元面積(M ²)			5.73(0.00)	0.73		3.07(0.00) 0.39
是否位於一樓(1/0)	2.93(0.00)	0.43	242.32(0.00)	0.25		
是否位於一樓*住宅單元面積						1.85(0.00) 0.21
建物特性：						
總樓層數*住宅單元面積						0.06(0.00) 0.12
建物總樓地板面積(100M ²)			0.33(0.02)	0.06		
低(1~2)樓層建築(1/0)	1.94(0.00)	0.20	111.95(0.00)	0.09		
低樓層建築*住宅單元面積						1.49(0.00) 0.11
屋齡(年)	-0.07(0.00)	-0.28				
法定建蔽率(%)	0.07(0.02)	0.26				
法定建蔽率*住宅單元面積						0.05(0.05) 0.35
法定容積率(%)	-0.004(0.02)	-0.26				
法定容積率*住宅單元面積						-0.003(0.05) -0.19
面臨道路寬度(M)	0.03(0.01)	0.11	2.22(0.02)	0.06		
街廓內、或本街廓與臨接街廓特性：						
文教設施總樓地板面積(80公尺半徑)(M ²)	-0.000244(0.001)	0.12	-0.02(0.02)	-0.06		
行政區：						
大安區(1/0)	1.09(0.01)	0.12	122.84(0.00)	0.09		
大安區*住宅單元面積						1.17(0.00) 0.11
大同區(1/0)	-0.65(0.00)	-0.09	-75.61(0.00)	-0.06		
大同區*住宅單元面積						-1.03(0.00) -0.10
士林區(1/0)	0.87(0.00)	0.21	99.76(0.00)	0.15		
士林區*住宅單元面積						0.79(0.00) 0.15
松山區(1/0)	0.88(0.03)	0.08	109.99(0.00)	0.08		
松山區*住宅單元面積						1.27(0.00) 0.09
文山區(1/0)	-1.03(0.00)	-0.16	-57.81(0.01)	-0.07		
文山區*住宅單元面積						-0.76(0.00) -0.09
中山區*住宅單元面積						0.40(0.06) 0.04
常數	4.45(0.00)		-145.12(0.00)			-4.75(0.82)
統計指標：						
樣本數	483		582			649
Adjusted R ²	0.383		0.701			0.707

六、密度對房價影響模擬分析

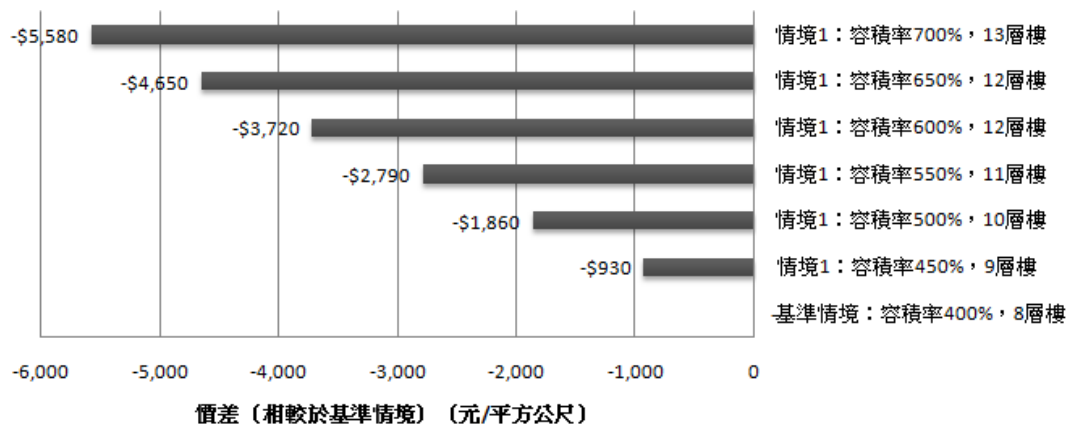
前節實證分析結果發現，跨街廓、住宅生活所需的土使用種類越多的混合使用型態，其淨外部效益最高，可為 TOD 社區規劃參考。然而，若 TOD 社區因採用此較佳的混合使用規劃型態，而使房價升高，則更加劇低收入的大眾運輸依賴者—中低收入戶—無法搬遷至 TOD 站區的可能性，形成 TOD 的實施工具—混合使用—與 TOD 目的的衝突。因此，如何保有理想 TOD 混合使用的規劃模式，但同時提供較低價格住宅，可能是政策上的兩難課題。

搭配 TOD 的高密度政策，可能解決理想混合使用型態造成房價提高的問題，但需模擬分析以釐清密度提高對房價的總體影響。前節實證分析發現，容積率—土地使用控制密度的主要工具—可減低住宅單價（可能因單位樓地板持分的土地成本降低）。但容積率增加的同時，樓層數亦可能增加；又前節實證分析亦同時發現，樓層數增加會提高住宅單價（因建築成本增加）。因此，密度增加雖有可能降低房價，但於同時考慮容積率提高與樓層數增加的情況，密度對房價的影響並不清楚，需進一步模擬分析。

此分析根據前節台北市住宅混合使用特徵價格模型的單價—總價成果（模型三），模擬提高容積率以改變密度，而住宅樓層數亦配合改變時，住宅單價的改變；模擬分析結果顯示：住宅單價隨容積率上升而降低，即使建築成本因樓層數增加而提高。此模擬分析包含兩組：分別為建蔽率為 35% 與 50%。於各組中，首先設定基準情境（Baseline Scenario）之容積率與樓層數，然後改變容積率與樓層數以設定不同情境，進而比較各情境與基準情境之住宅單價間的差異。圖四 A（建蔽率為 35%）的模擬分析結果顯示：與基準情境（容積率 120%，樓層數 4 樓）比較，情境 1（容積率增加至 140%，樓層數不變），其住宅單價每平方公尺減少 740 元；情境 2（容積率增加至 175%，樓層數增加至 5 樓），其單價減少 1,115 元。此住宅單價隨容積率上升而減少的趨勢，於其他情境持續發生；即使樓層數隨容積率增加而增高，單價仍持續下降。又此住宅單價、容積率、與樓層數的關係，於第二組建蔽率提高為 50% 的模擬分析中，同樣獲得支持（圖四 B）。



圖四 A 台北市房價模擬分析：容積率、樓層數對住宅單價的影響—建蔽率 35%



圖四 B 台北市房價模擬分析：容積率、樓層數對住宅單價的影響－建蔽率 50%

七、結論與政策建議

本研究發現，就空間尺度面向而言，同棟建物內混合與同街廓內的混合，皆降低住宅單價；此現象可能反映出，街廓空間尺度層級以下的混合使用，造成住戶生活環境品質的降低，高於日常生活活動可及性提高的效益。因此，混合使用政策應可考慮以跨街廓的混合型態為主，減少同街廓與同棟混合。

其次，就混合使用種類的數量面向而言，與住宅相容的日常生活活動土地使用種類越多，住宅單價越高；於相鄰街廓的高可及空間範圍內，他種土地使用種類越多，如零售、辦公、醫療、文化、宗教、停車場，日常生活活動可及性越高，因此單價越高。然而，就土地使用的量體面向，日常生活場所若滿足基本需求，則其量體多寡對可及性並無影響；如社區中某一數量的便利商店，或許已可滿足基本小型購物行為，不需大量便利商店。綜合混合使用種類的數量、與土地使用的量體兩面向的成果，土地種類的多樣性較土地的量體大小對可及性影響為大；換言之，就住宅的日常生活活動的可及性考量，混合使用所帶來的多樣性，與密度對土地用量體的提高，前者的角色更形重要。

然而，伴隨高可及性、生活品質的跨街廓、多樣性混合社區，是較高的住宅單價。若此混合使用型態於 TOD 站區實施，則以大眾運輸為主要交通工具的中低收入戶，將因高房價而無法搬入；造成欲搬遷至捷運車站旁，以就近使用捷運的市場需求受到抑制，亦即 TOD 的政策無法有效利用，欲搭乘捷運的「(捷運)住宅自我選擇」的市場力量，以促進捷運的使用 (Schwanen and Mokhtarian, 2004; Levine et al., 2005; Tsai, 2008)，形成類似「被分區管制排擠 (Zoned Out)」(Levine, 2006)的現象。此住宅自我選擇的市場力量未獲得政策滿足的結果，則為捷運旅次可能轉為私人運具旅次 (Schwanen and Mokhtarian, 2005)。因此，此土地混合使用政策，間接造成捷運使用的未最高效率化情況。

跨街廓混合使用的高房價，可搭配 TOD 的另一重要工具－高密度（即高容積率），及低建蔽率實施，以降低房價。提高容積率的上限，可能於兩個面向降低住宅單價：其一為本研究實證證明，就住宅個體而言，高容積率可能因降低單位住宅樓地板的土地持分面積，而降低住宅單價；其二為較大規模的容積率提高，如 TOD 站區，可增加市場住宅的供給，進而整體性地降低房價。本實證亦發現低建蔽率可降低住宅單價；除此，其高法定空地率與可能的高綠覆率，亦可同時提升生活環境品質，有助生態都市的實施。

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(五) 附件：出席國際學術會議心得報告

報告人姓名	蔡育新	服務機構 及職稱	國立政治大學地政學系 助理教授
時間 會議 地點	2009年4月1日至4月3日	本會核定 補助文號	計畫編號： NSC 96-2415-H-004 -014 - 流水號： 95WFA0200251
會議 名稱	(中文) 英國與愛爾蘭規劃研究研討會 (英文) The UK-Ireland Planning Research Conference		
發表 論文 題目	(中文) 戶量變化與住宅供給對都市擴張的影響 (英文) Impacts of Shrinking Household Size and Housing Supply in Central City on Urban "Sprawl"		
<p>報告內容：</p> <p>一、參加會議經過</p> <p>由於個人是第一次到英國，因此於會議議程開始前幾日先抵達倫敦，以對倫敦的都市發展狀況進行粗淺的認識與了解。開會前一天再前往三個小時鐵路車程外的開會地點—Newcastle University，會期共三天，除於第二日發表論文外，也利用其他時間聆聽其他學者發表的相關或有興趣的論文。個人論文發表後有幾位學者提問與討論，對日後投稿期刊甚有幫助。</p> <p>二、與會心得</p> <p>此國際會議是英國（UK）與愛爾蘭（Ireland）兩國都市規劃領域的研討會，約有一百篇論文的發表，主要參與仍以英、愛兩國學者為主，部分來自歐美與亞洲國家。會議的主軸為 Unequal Places: Planning and Territorial Cohesion，其與歐盟近年的空間發展重點相關。</p> <p>三、攜回資料名稱及內容</p> <p>會議論文摘要集以及一些發表論文： Abstracts of The UK-Ireland Planning Research Conference -- Unequal Places: Planning and Territorial Cohesion</p>			

(六) 附件：出席國際學術會議論文 (論文進行中，請勿引用)

Abstract

A great deal of literature has already contributed to the methods of characterizing, quantifying compactness/"sprawl," and its causes. However, population, generally used in measuring compactness/"sprawl", when decreasing does not necessarily indicate reducing housing demand in central city when household size shrinks, which is likely to affect anti-sprawl policy making. Secondly, unmet housing demand in central city, will lead to outbound intra-metropolitan migration; this spill-over effect may found the groundwork of pushing force of "sprawling" like in a gravitation model, accompanied by the pulling force of attractiveness of outskirt, both of which may be reinforced by the level of accessibility/channeling force between central city and outskirt, conceptually. However, this concept has seldom been applied in analyzing, quantifying compactness/"sprawl."

The purposes of this research are threefold: first, it aims to differentiate population from household in terms of what they reveal in characterizing compactness/"sprawl." Secondly, a pushing-channeling-pulling gravity model will be developed to classify causes of "sprawl," and to gauge the magnitudes of individual and interactive effects of pushing, channeling and pulling forces. Third, a series of archetypal compactness/"sprawl" characterized by changes in household, population and employment altogether will be developed to better understand the phenomenon of "sprawl." To conduct this empirical research, 36 metropolitan areas in Taiwan will be applied for years 1966, 1980, 1990, and 2000. The primary analysis tools include descriptive statistics, and panel data regression.

Keywords: urban "sprawl," household size, housing supply, panel data regression

1. Introduction

Mostly, urban “sprawl” or decentralization is observed and measured with population distribution within a metropolitan area. However, decreased population in central city does not necessarily mean urban sprawl for a few conditions. For example, space left by decreased population in central city may be replaced or out-bid by commercial uses, which still constitute a strong urban core. On the other hand, decreased population in central city does not necessarily indicate centrifugal forces of population, either. For instant, in a special case where a society is experiencing shrinking household size due to socio-economic changes such as fewer-kids families, increasing single-parent families, lagged marriage age, the size of households, representing housing needs, in the central city may still increase, though the population is reduced.

The purposes of this research are threefold: first, it aims to differentiate population from household in terms of what they reveal in characterizing compactness/”sprawl.” Secondly, a pushing-channeling-pulling gravity model will be developed to classify causes of “sprawl,” and to gauge the magnitudes of individual and interactive effects of pushing, channeling and pulling forces. Third, a series of archetypal compactness/”sprawl” characterized by changes in household, population and employment altogether will be developed to better understand the phenomenon of “sprawl.” The hypotheses of this empirical research are two-fold: on the one hand, push effect of unmet housing demand in central city cause urban sprawl, among others, affected by housing supply policy in central cities and shrinking household size. On the other hand, push effect, pull effect, and raised level of channel interact in terms of affecting urban sprawl.

This paper starts with a revisit to conceptual, physical, and index-based definition of urban sprawl, and the causes of urban sprawl. Then, this empirical study employed Taiwan to evaluate the impact of pulling, pushing and level of accessibility between central city and outskirts on urban sprawl. The data needed are compiled from a few different government demographic, economic, and map data bases over a 3.5-decade-span—between 1966 and 2000. Research methods include descriptive statistics, panel data modeling. Finally, policy implications are developed for land use plans, housing policies for central city and outskirts.

2. Revisit to Urban Sprawl

The definitions of urban sprawl seems not extremely confusing conceptually, but not so straightforward when involving measuring it, in particular digging into the concept-base of currently applied indexes. The more universal static definition of urban involves the concept of low density metropolis-wide or locally, and local strip development, and leap-frog development. Dynamic transformation of urban sprawl” involves. Population is decentralized, or the population is moving outward from central city to outskirts (Figure 1.a). In many cases, it leads to urban “sprawl.” The dilemma of this type of dynamic urban sprawl is embedded in the new spatial distribution patterns (Figure 1.b).

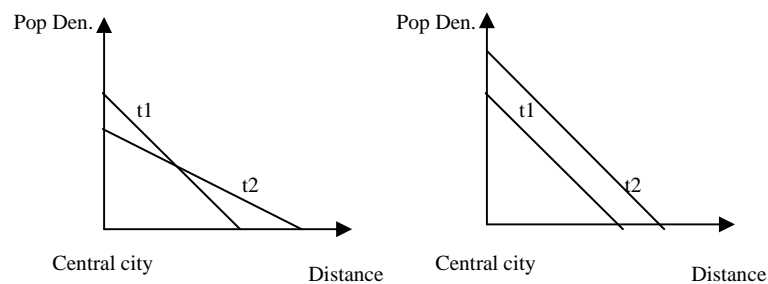


Figure 1. (a) Dynamic urban sprawl; (b) Case with confusing condition of urban sprawl.

Population and employment should be both taken into account to gauge compactness/sprawl since they are two major activities that use up space in a metropolitan area. The basic one is to measure, for example in central city, if population and employment increases or decreases, i.e., the signs of changes (Table 1).

Table 1. Archetypal central city: Changes of population, household, and employment in cc.

	Pop +	Pop -
Emp. +	Toward compactness	Same level of compactness/sprawl with change in land use type (Issue: need a term for this), including possible pop replaced by Emp. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● HH +: Toward “compactness” (not replaced by emp.) (This is why the use of hh is significant.) ● HH -: Pop possibly replaced by Emp.
Emp. --	Same level of compactness/sprawl with change in land use type (Issue: need a term for this), including possible emp replaced by pop.	Toward “sprawl” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● HH +: still with residential attraction though. ● HH -: Toward “sprawl”

There are at least two methods to count change of population and employment altogether, as opposed to only examining the directions of change, i.e., for the two “Same level of compactness/sprawl with change in land use,” in the above table. One type of methods is to count the floor space for residential and commercial in use. The most ideal data to calculate if space is more used or less to judge if central city is used us more or less. However, the data are mostly unavailable. The other type of method is to count the land area for residential and commercial in use. The variable is not ideal since the real floor space used up cannot be correctly counted. The data may not be counted correctly also when land use is mixed in the buildings. In addition, mostly the data are unavailable.

The way of thinking about dynamics of growth, redistribution, and impact of sub-area characteristics in terms of population dimension alone. The growth of population constitutes what and the amount has to be distributed in space in a metropolitan area. Housing stock formulates the level of attraction in terms of quantity on the one hand. Unmet housing demand in this sub-area may cause the force of spill-over, or in the central city case, urban sprawl. So the above involves three variables representing different roles: population growth represents the amount to be distributed; housing stock represent the force of pulling, and; unmet housing demand cause the force of pushing. For example, for central city, the overall population growth of metropolitan, and then blown up by shrinking household size, formulates the amount needed to be distributed, which cause change of urban form, but not necessarily compactness or “sprawl;” (t-t1—t0).

3. Factors Causing Urban Sprawl

Factors causing sprawl may involve two phenomena: change of population (growth, mostly, and decrease), and (re)distribution of activities (both residential and employment). Growth definitely leads to distribution of new population and employment, affected by pushing, pull, and accessibility characteristics of places in a metropolitan area, and accessibility ability of population and employment. Redistribution of existing population and employment is also affected by characteristics of places in a metropolitan area. In a fast growing metropolitan area, the impact of distribution of growing residential and employment spatial needs on urban form could be larger than that of redistribution of existing residential and employment needs.

Growth will definitely affect degree of compactness/sprawl since the urban form will change due to more space used by human. However, growth will not necessarily lead to compact or sprawling form; in contrast, new urban form depends on policies digesting their new spatial demand. Hence growth may reinforce the impact of exiting compactness or

“sprawl” tendency possibly shaped by such policies housing policies, transportation policies; for example, newly resulted unmet (increasing) housing demand in central city may reinforce sprawling trends.

Table 2 Four Population-Household-Employment-Based Archetypal Central Cities: Taiwan

No	△POP in CC	△HH in CC	△EMP In CC	Type of central city, by Pop., HH, and Employment	Policy Implications or Further Analysis Needed	Jobs/Housing Balance	Overall △POP	Overall Compactness/Sprawl	Policy Implications
1	+	+	+	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Growing central city (CC); ● Toward compact CC. 	To serve spatial needs from centralizing population and employment to lead to more compact urban form, and maintain residential livability.	N/A	N/A	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Conditionally desired/acceptable if standards of living (livability) is maintained.
2	+	+	--	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Population-growing CC, but with weakening employment; ● Residential activities replacing employment activities. ● What could have been missed: <i>Wrongly diagnosed as more compact CC since being observed from population alone.</i> 	<i>(Towards jobs/housing balance? If toward balanced, then the cc is heading toward good urban form; if not, it's not.)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Toward balance ● Away from balance-More economically robust CC 	N/A	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Acceptable ● Planning-oriented policy intervention to induce CC-bound migration of employment?
3	+	--	+	-- (Barely exist at present)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
4	+	--	--	-- (Barely exist at present)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
5	--	+	+	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Employment-growing CC, with increasing housing demand but with diminishing population. ● Employment activities replacing residential activities, yet with more residential demand. ● <i>What could have been missed: Wrongly-Diagnosed as less compact CC since being observed from population alone, and yet with more residential demand.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Increasing housing supply can serve housing needs, and hence leads to more compact CC. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Toward balance ● Away from balance-More economically robust CC 	N/A	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Acceptable ● Market-oriented policy meet CC-bound migration of population.
6	--	+	--	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Weakening CC, but with increasing housing demand. ● <i>What could have been missed: Decentralizing CC, yet the residential need in CC was not identified if not observing from HH.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Increasing housing supply can serve housing needs, and hence leads to compact CC. 	N/A	N/A	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Market-oriented policy meet CC-bound migration of population.
7	--	--	+	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Employment-growing CC, but with weakening population. ● <i>What could have been missed: Wrongly-diagnosed as less compact CC since being observed from population alone and yet with more employment demand.,</i> 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Toward balance ● Away from balance-More economically robust CC 	N/A	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Acceptable ● Planning-oriented policy intervention to induce CC-bound migration of population?
8	--	--	--	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Direct Observation: Weakening central city ● Urban form: Less compact CC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● (Diminishing metro or decentralizing urban form? Needs to analyze the overall growth rate of the metro and compactness/sprawl index.) 	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● + Decentralizing ● -- Diminishing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● + Decentralizing CC but still of compactness in general ● -- Sprawling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Planning-oriented policy intervention to induce CC-bound migration of population and employment?

Growth -- the growth of population constitutes what and the amount have to be distributed in space in a metropolitan area. Housing stock formulates the level of attraction in terms of quantity on the one hand. Unmet housing demand in this sub-area may cause the force of spill-over (push out forces), or in the central city case, urban sprawl.

So the above involves three variables representing different roles: population growth represents the amount to be distributed; housing stock represent the force of pulling, and; unmet housing demand cause the force of pushing. For example, for central city, (1) the overall population growth of metropolitan, and then blown up by shrinking household size, formulates the amount needed to be distributed, which cause change of urban form, but not necessarily compactness or “sprawl;” (t-t1—t0).

The outward pushing forces between time 1 and time 2 (i.e., expected POP t2 – Real POP t2)(the pink part), lead to outward population movement/change at the outskirts at the ending year of the period (t2), or the change of degree of urban “sprawl” between t1 and t2 (e.g., pop-based sprawl t2- pop-based sprawl t1).

Unmet demand for space for population and employment cause push out effect. Unmet demand is a collective result of housing demand and supply, in terms of both quantity and quality. Characteristics in terms of both quality and quantity. For instance, the simplest one, highway system differs from general road systems in terms of quality, and also the length of roads per se differs in terms of quantity. Another example of quantity difference alone is the unmet housing demand. If not, then the good thing is that both compactness and sprawl can be gauged. In this case, a sub-area in a metropolitan area can have both push-outward and pull-inward factors and the overall condition. For central city, push effect means “sprawl” forces, and pull effect means “compactness” effect. For suburban areas, push effect may “compactness” force or further “sprawl” effect.

If a direction is defined as forces causing compactness and sprawl, then forces can be defined, for explaining sprawl, as pushing outward forces of central city, pulling-outward forces of suburban areas, on the one hand. And on the other hand, pulling-inward forces of central cities, and pushing outward of suburban areas. The analysis unit seems to be the metropolitan areas since the sprawl and compactness is measured at the metropolitan area level, sprawling forces can also be measured at the metropolitan level, such as pushing-outward forces and pulling-outward forces, and the compactness effects

4. Methods

This research employs a time-series-based framework to analyze the dynamics of urban “sprawl” factors and their impacts on “sprawl.” The time series framework incorporates time points, years 1966, 1980, 1990, and 2000, for 36 metropolitan areas in Taiwan. Due to both time-series and cross-sectional data format, panel data analysis is employed, which is conducted in Stata 10.

Population and employment should be both taken into account to gauge compactness/sprawl since they are two major activities that use up space in a metropolitan area. Hence, USI is based not only on population (e.g., Pop-Moran’s I in Table 1), but also employment (e.g., Pop-Emp-Moran’s I in Table 1), which altogether can reveal if urban “sprawl” measured according to population spatial distribution pattern is not really happening if employment spatial distribution is counted; for example, population-based decentralized central city may be substituted by employment space, which does not weaken central city but possibly the other way around, and may not be treated as urban “sprawl” but a result of “population bid out by commercials.”

To count population and employment together for measuring compactness/sprawl, an assumption is adopted that one percentage point loss/emigration of population in one sub-area in a metropolitan area can be made up by the gain/immigration of one percentage point of employment, and vice versa. This assumption can lead to weightings of employment and population, which allow counting them altogether, and the following index is developed (Table 1):

Mix Index of Population and Employment

= (Population + Employment * W) _{population-based}, OR

= (Population / W + Employment) _{employment-based}

Where W = Metropolitan Population / Metropolitan Employment

A panel regression model is built to probe factors causing the spatial distribution of population in a metropolitan developing in a sprawling fashion, based on the experience of intermediate and large 23 metropolitan areas in Taiwan for 1966, 1980, 1990, and 2000. This panel model, with change in the degree of urban “sprawl” as independent variable, composing three time-point time-series data, allows it to examine the extent to which factors, for example at the beginning of a time point (e.g., 1966 of the 1966-1980) affects the change of urban form during this time point. A variety of the 23 metropolitan areas expands the variance of degrees of change of urban “sprawl” and the characteristics of the metropolitan areas. The selection of change of urban “sprawl” in a dynamic sense, as opposed to degree of urban “sprawl” in a stable sense, makes it possible to uncover what makes a metropolitan more compact or sprawling (more in the notes). The findings of this model serve to examine the research hypothesis.

Following are framework and variables of the panel regression model of the dynamic urban “sprawl” model. Out of the 36 metropolitan areas in Taiwan (Yang, 2001), only 26 intermediate to large metropolitan areas are selected. Secondary data are collected for four time points, 1966, 1980, 1990, and 2000, ten to 15 years apart, which is probably not too short to observe changes in a metropolitan areas in terms of land use, transportation infrastructure, socio-economic characteristics, and urban form. These four time points formulate three time time points of observation, i.e., 1966~1980, 1980~1990, and 1990~2000, making up 78 (3*26) observations in total.

Change of global Moran’s I, an urban sprawl index (USI for short hereafter), is chosen as dependent variable to measure degree of urban “sprawl,” and independent variables are classified according their impacts on urban “sprawl” (Equation 1). Global Moran’s I is able to gauge the degree to which high-density sub-areas in a metropolitan area are clustered; it, hence, is able to distinguish compactness from sprawl—the more compact the urban form, the higher the value of Moran’s I (Tsai, 2005). Hence positive value of change of Moran’s I indicates a metropolitan area is becoming more compact, and vice versa. Moran’s I are calculated from the city-based data for each metropolitan areas with Spatial Autocorrelation Tool of ArcGIS 9.2. The weighting in calculating the Moran coefficient is the inverse distance between the centroids of two cells, which more sensitive and accurate in characterizing metropolitan forms than contiguity criteria (i.e., 0 for discontinuous cells, and 1 for continuous cells).

Theoretically potential factors leading to more sprawling urban form are classified into pushing-outward, pulling-outward, and accessibility categories (Equation 1, Table 1), a gravity-model like theory. First of all, pushing-outward factors can further be classified into pushing outward from central city and pushing outward in general. The former are those pushing population out of central cities, primarily unmet housing demand for central-city living in terms of quantity, quality, and price of housing, and quality of community theoretically; data dated back more than four decades are only available for quantity-based for this empirical study. As a consequence, variables are incorporated that measure the housing demand not served by new housing in central city between previous time point (i.e., (t-1)) and current time point (i.e., t0), not by existing empty housing stock at previous time point, or by both a whole (Table 1). Hence, pushing-outward factors are mostly related to under-served housing demand. The pushing outward in general category are those factors that measures increasing spatial needs, which if not served vertically (higher floor area rate), is likely to be served horizontally, that is moving outward. The variables include population growth rate, change of household size, which altogether contribute to household growth rate.

Secondly, by the same token, pulling-outward factors are those pulling population out of

¹ 1966 is selected instead of 1970 because some most significant variables for this research are only available then.

² Some data are only available one year before or after.

³ Sprawling indexes measuring the degree that activities are evenly distributed, such as Shannon’s entropy and Sprawl Index, are not selected since they are unable to measure spatial relationship (Tsai, 2005).

central cities to outskirts, majorly attraction of outskirts characteristics, including quality of communities, and quality, quantity, and price of housing. Due to the limited availability of the forty-year-old data, merely new housing added during the time point in question, and existing unoccupied housing at the beginning of the time point are incorporated. In contrast to under-served housing demand of pushing-outward factors, the incorporated pulling-outward factors are supply of housing.

Finally, accessibility variables are those that facilitate the pushing/pulling outward factors, and it can be further broken down by public policy related, and socioeconomic characteristics: the former include highway length, number of highway entrance/exits, intercity roadway length, and the latter include wage, automobile ownership, and moped ownership (Table 1).

Other than the above three types of factors causing urban sprawl, there are variables that might also affects the change of urban form over time that needs to be controlled for. These control variables may include characteristics of a metropolitan area, such as population at the beginning time point of the observation time point (i.e., t-1), percentage change of population size (t-1~t0), percentage change of household size (t-1~t0), and population density (t-1) (Table 1).

The factors affecting change of urban form in terms of urban sprawl/compactness can be of dynamic or stable fashion. In this dynamic model measuring the change of degree of urban sprawl/compactness during an observation time point (i.e., $\Delta USI_{i, t-(t-1)}$ in equation 1), variables shown above can be both the change of certain characteristics during a time point (i.e., dynamic); for example, incremental number of highway interchange during a time point may lead to worsening degree of urban sprawl. On the other hand, and the characteristic at certain time point (i.e., stable) may also cause more sprawling urban form during a time point; for example, a metropolitan of high population density (at the beginning of the time point) may have higher floor area cap, and hence given others equal, might still develop in a more compact shape; or pressure from high-density living might cause emigration from high-density to low-density sub-areas, and hence leads to less compact form. In short, the above sprawl-causing factors are classified according to the mechanism that variables affect urban form; they can be further broken by time-series (dynamic) and difference between metropolitan areas (cross-sectional) for the panel regression model.

$$\Delta USI_{i, t0-(t-1)} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 X_{push} + \beta_2 X_{pull} + \beta_3 X_{accessibility} + \beta_4 X_{control} + \varepsilon_{i, t0} \quad (1)$$

Where

$\Delta USI_{i, t0-(t-1)}$ is change of urban sprawl index (USI) of metropolitan area i from previous time point (t-1) to current time point (t0), where i = metropolitan area, and t = time

α_i is the unknown intercept for each entity

$X_{push (t-1)}$ is the pushing outward factors,

$X_{\text{pull}(t-1)}$ is the pulling outward factors

$X_{\text{accessibility}(t-1)}$ is factors of accessibility connecting between inner cities and outskirt,

β is the coefficients for X , and

ε is is the error term

It is noteworthy that the independent variables come in two kinds of format: the stable and dynamic; the stable statistics shows the status at the beginning or mid-term of an observation time point, and dynamic statistics gauges the change of characteristic of a dynamic statistic. In this change of urban sprawl model, this stable arrangement of independent variables lead to cross-sectional like analysis, i.e., different characteristic of metropolitan areas, regardless which time point they occurs, leads to more compact or less sprawling development in the future. On the other hand, the dynamic arrangement measures whether the change of status leads to a more compact/less sprawling urban form in the future, which is more like time-series analysis.

**Table 3 Variables adapted in developing panel models of urban “sprawl,”
by pushing outward, pulling outward, and accessibility categories**

Variable	Alternative Variable(s)
Urban Sprawl Index (USI):	
Change of Sprawl Index (SI), population based ($\Delta SI_{(t-1)-t0}$)	
Pushing outward factors:	
Overall pushing outward:	
Household growth rate between previous time point (i.e., t-1) and current time point (i.e., t0) ($\Delta HH\%_{(t-1)-t0}$)	Population growth rate between previous time point and current time point ($\Delta Pop\%_{(t-1)-t0}$)
Percentage change in household size ($\Delta HH\text{-}Size\%_{(t-1)-t0}$)	
Pushing outward from central cities:	
Ratio of household growth not served by new housing in central cities between previous time point and current time point to metropolitan households $[(\text{predicted household growth in central cities}_{(t-1)-t0} - \text{new housing in central city}_{(t-1)-t0}) / \text{total metropolitan households}_{t0}]$ ($\Delta HH_{cc}\text{-}Not\text{-}Served\text{-}By\text{-}New\text{-}Housing_{cc(t-1)-t0}$)	Ratio of Household growth not served by new and existing unoccupied housing in central cities between previous time point and current time point to metropolitan households $[(\text{predicted household growth in central cities}_{(t-1)-t0} - \text{new and existing empty housing in central cities})_{t0} / \text{total metropolitan households}_{t0}]$ ($\text{Ratio-}\Delta HH_{cc}\text{-}Not\text{-}Served\text{-}By\text{-}All\text{-}Housing_{cc(t-1)-t0}$)
	Ratio of Migration from central cities to outskirts between previous time point and current time point to metropolitan households $[(\text{predicted number of households in central cities}_{t0} - \text{real number of household in central cities}_{t0}) / \text{total metropolitan households}_{t0}]$ ($\text{Ratio.Migration}_{cc(t-1)-t0}$)
Pulling outward factors:	
Unoccupied housing stock in the outskirts in previous time point ($\text{Outskirt-Housing-Stock}_{(t-1)}$) (<i>absolute quantity</i>) (<i>Quantity-based, as opposed to price-, and quality-based</i>)	Percentage unoccupied housing stock in the outskirts in previous time point ($= \text{Outskirt-Housing-Stock}_{(t-1)} / \text{Metropolitan-Housing-Stock}_{(t-1)}$) ($\% \text{Outskirt-Housing-Stock}_{(t-1)}$) (<i>relative quantity</i>)
New housing built from previous time point to current time point in the outskirts ($\text{Outskirt-New-Housing}_{(t-1)-t0}$) (<i>absolute quantity</i>)	Percentage new housing built from previous time point to current time point in the outskirts ($= \text{Outskirt-New-Housing}_{(t-1)-t0} / \text{Metropolitan-New-Housing}_{(t-1)-t0}$) (<i>relative quantity</i>) ($\% \text{Outskirt-New-Housing}_{(t-1)-t0}$)
Ratio of all available housing in the outskirts to metropolitan households ($\text{New housing}_{(t-1)-t0} \text{ plus unoccupied housing stock in outskirts}_{(t-1)} / \text{total metropolitan households}_{t0}$) ($\text{Ratio-Outskirt-All-Housing}_{(t-1)-t0}$)	
Accessibility variables:	
Public policy related:	
Highway length at mid-time-period (i.e., t-0.5) (KM) ($\text{Highway-KM}_{(t-0.5)}$)	Highway density at mid-time-period (KM/KM ²) ($\text{Highway-Density}_{(t-0.5)}$)
Number of highway exits at mid-time-period ($\text{Highway-Exit}_{(t-0.5)}$)	Density of highway exits at mid-time-period ($\text{Highway-ExitDensity}_{(t-0.5)}$)
Socioeconomic characteristics	
Household automobile ownership at mid-time-period ($\text{Automobile-Ownership}_{(t-0.5)}$)	
Household moped ownership at mid-time-period ($\text{Moped-Ownership}_{(t-0.5)}$)	
Control variables	
Population at previous time point ($\text{Pop}_{(t-1)}$)	
Household density at previous time point ($\text{HH-Density}_{(t-1)}$)	

Growth rate of the whole metro is picked to calculate newly developed demand for housing/space in central city. Submitting the population change between t1 and t2 in central city (the green part) from the population growth above (population t1 * growth rate t1-t2)(the purple part) the magnitude of pushing-outward forces are calculated (the pink part) (Figure 2).

Expected POP growth =
can be assumed as the
average growth rate of the
metro, composed of birth

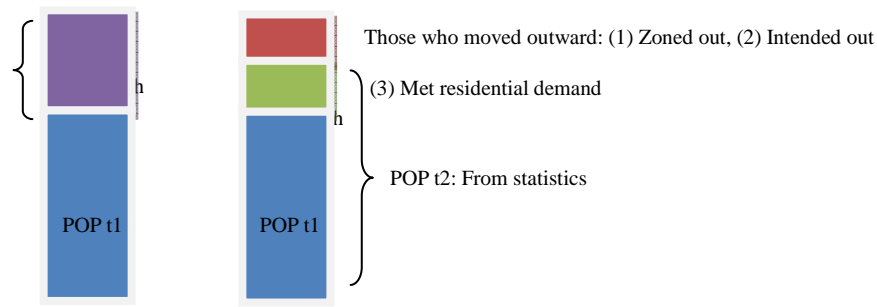


Figure 2 The Way of Calculating Pushing-outward Forces

5. Empirical Results of Panel Regression Model of Urban Sprawl

Table 3 presents a fixed-effects model of panel regression analysis for the 36 metropolitan areas in Taiwan for three time periods—1966-80, 1980-90, and 1990-2000; this model shows the variables that cause a metropolitan to become less compact or more sprawling during the three observation periods. This panel model is a dynamic model which shows what factors cause the change of urban form, rather than a stable model showing the characteristics of metropolitan areas with different degrees of compactness/sprawl. This fixed-effects model is selected over fixed effects model since the results of Hausman test suggests its superiority where the probability is not significant (i.e., $.009 < .05$). In addition, Robust standard errors are adopted to control for heteroskedasticity. The model has fairly good predictive powers with goodness of fit of 61.2%.

First of all, the panel model results show that generally the pulling-outwards forces cause less compact or more sprawling development though some of the results are not statistically significant (Table 3). Controlling for two metropolitan variables—population and household density—the more rapidly the population grows over a some-one-decade-long period in a metropolitan area, indicating more residential spatial needs, the less compact or more sprawling it becomes, without considering how compact or sprawling a metropolitan area is at the beginning of an observation time period; the coefficient and P-value of population growth rate reveals that the change of Sprawl Index is statistically positively affected by population growth. However, even though household size has a negative coefficient, indicating that shrinking household also contributes more residential needs and hence less compact development or urban sprawl, it is not statistically significant. Similarly, emigration from central cities to outskirts has a positive coefficient, meaning it will cause less compact or more sprawling development, but it is not statistically significant. All the findings as a whole suggest that when the need for residential space a metropolitan area in Taiwan grows, the metropolitan appears to grow un-smartly from the population distribution point of view. Besides, this analysis again supports that population is an ideal variable to gauge the degree of urban sprawl, but the number of households is superior than population in measuring needs for residential space.

Secondly, the panel model results show that the higher the proportion of all available housing (existing unoccupied housing stock plus newly built housing) in the outskirts, the less compact or more sprawling the metropolitan area becomes (Table 3). However, the impact is only borderline significant. This result may imply that, given others equal, the housing available in the outskirts pulls households outwards to outskirts, and hence cause less compact development or urban sprawl, or vice versa that the housing available in central cities may lead to more compact development. Thirdly, the model also reveals that improved accessibility due to higher automobile ownership, lead to a less compact or more sprawling development spatial pattern. In addition, the number of highway exits does not statistically affect urban form (Table 3).

Finally, the model shows that the degree to which a metropolitan will become more sprawling or compact is also affected by its population size and household density. Given others equal, the larger the metropolitan population, the less compact or more sprawling its urban form will become (Table 3). This result is consistent with the impact of population growth presented above. Household density of a metropolitan area affects USI differently; the higher the household density, the more compact or less sprawling the metropolitan area will become. Unlike population size, which is largely caused by the nature of the society, and metropolitan area, household density to certain degree can be affected by land use policy and consequently can be a significant policy tool affecting urban form in terms of urban sprawl.

Further, the relative significance of each factor that leads to less compact/more sprawling urban form is revealed by the magnitude of standardized coefficients (Table 3). This significance analysis of factors will be analyzed separately for policy-related and for natural characteristics of a metropolitan area, respectively, even though the line sometimes is hard to draw when policies are mostly made to cope with development trend. This arrange of analysis framework make it easier to understand what natural characteristics cause a metropolitan area to grow in a more compact or more sprawling way, and what policies can shape future urban form more significantly.

Table 3 Dynamic Panel Model of Urban “Sprawl,” Taiwan’s Metropolitan Areas, 1966-2000

Variables	Coefficient (Sig.)	Robust S.E.	Standardized Coefficient
Pushing outward factors:			
Overall pushing outward:			
Population growth rate between previous time point and current time point ($\Delta Pop\%_{(t-1)-t0}$)	14.881(.029)	6.644	.119
Percentage change in household size ($\Delta HH\text{-}Size\%_{(t-1)-t0}$)	-39.602(.381)	44.900	-.052
Pushing outward from central cities:			
Ratio of migration from central cities to outskirts between previous time point and current time point to metropolitan households ($Ratio.Migration_{cc,(t-1)-t0}$)	16.282(.805)	65.724	.026
Pulling outward factors:			
Ratio of all available housing in the outskirts to metropolitan households ($Ratio\text{-}Outskirt\text{-}All\text{-}Housing_{(t-1)-t0}$)	34.580(.060)	18.082	.142
Accessibility variables:			
Public policy related:			

Number of highway exits at mid-time-period (<i>Highway-Exit</i> _(t-0.5))	.362(.612)	.711	.041
Socioeconomic characteristics:			
Household automobile ownership at mid-time-period (<i>Automobile-Ownership</i> _(t-0.5))	.342(.000)	.026	1.222
Control variables:			
Population _(t-1)	4.56e-05 (.000)	9.63e-06	1.449
Household density _(t-1) (HH/KM ²)	-.253 (.000)	-.046	-2.056
Constant	2.582(.778)	9.119	0.262
Summary Statistics:			
Total number of observations	108 (3 time periods, 36 metropolitan areas)		
R ²	0.612		
Hausman test (Fixed/Random): Prob.	.009		

In the arena of natural characteristics, population size of a metropolitan area is the most significant factor, and followed by household automobile ownership, and population growth rate (Table 3). Across all metropolitan areas, the larger population size, household automobile ownership, and population growth rate, the less clustered/more dispersed the metropolitan area becomes. Among these non-policy variables, household automobile ownership, in fact, can be affected by such policy as transportation infrastructure, taxing and pricing policies, and density of land use policy.

The policy-related variables affecting the change of degree of urban sprawl, are household density, and the availability of housing in the outskirts (Table 6), all of which are land-use related factors. Household density has a lot higher impact than the availability of housing in the outskirts, and in fact is the most crucial factors of all. The higher the overall household density, and less supply of housing in the outskirt, the more compact or less sprawling a metropolitan area will become.

8. Conclusions and Policy Implications

In reality, many cities are not monocentric, but polycentric. So the issue of how to define where is place to be developed and others are not in order to determine pull/push as “toward sprawl” or “toward compactness.” How to grow environmentally smartly given that population is head toward to the high point, and then convex to the shrinking period on the one hand, and human-built area is hard to turn back as nature environment again? Perfect substitution effect can lead to more compact development, but perfect substitution effect will not materialize in the short run, since human-built area is hard to turn back as nature environment again in foreseeable horizon. Substitution effect means people flowing into metropolitan areas now switch from living in less compact rural areas or small towns to more compact metropolitan areas. At this level, overall the urbanized areas are growing environmentally smartly since more people live in higher density areas.

Variables affecting unmatched housing/neighborhood, or unmet housing demand can be analyzed by this framework, so that the policy dealing with decentralized cc is developed accordingly. For example: under supply of housing in cc due to floor-area cap (i.e., quantity of housing), leads to high housing prices (quantity affecting housing characteristics). In turn, given others equality, high housing prices lead to push-out effect. For example: shrinking household size leads to more housing demand. And given others equal, shrinking household size lead to push-out effect.

Increasing number or change of households represents the flow of moving entity, which is better than population since it is a result of household size and number of households. So, does this mean the change of number of households from $t-1$ can be partially affected by the degree of preferred quality of an area, other than quantity, which will formulate the push/pull force of $t-1$, and in turn, affect urban form of t_0 .

Increasing hh from time $t-2$ to time $t-1$ in cc, meaning toward-compactness force during this period, which underlying the attractiveness of cc from $t-2$ to $t-1$, may still represent the degree of attractiveness of this area in terms of quality given the level of quality seldom overturn promptly. Change of hh in central cc from $t-2$ to time $t-1$, is a joint outcome of all quality aspects, as well as quantity for the same period of time. Hence, quality-based variables can definitely be incorporated. However, since not all location-choice variables may be available and collected, change of households at time $t-1$ can still be of great importance.

Notes

1 Non-work trips are not included for a few reasons: first, since non-work trips are composed of a variety of trip purposes (e.g., personal business, shopping, and medical appointments), their relationships with self-selection and transit proximity are likely to be different from each other. In addition, many non-home-end destinations of non-work trips are not as easy for riders to pinpoint as workplaces. Also, to collect statistically large enough sample of one particular type of non-work trips would be too costly. As a result, both data collection and analysis for non-work trips are barely feasible for this research.

References

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