

The Impact of Urban Amenities on Apartment Prices in Münster – How Important is Location within a Bike-City?

Norbert Hiller*

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Abstract: Beside the specific object attributes, location is the fundamental determinant for real estate. But how important is location within a city? Contrary to popular belief our results suggest that this parameter explains only a small proportion of price variation, whereas object attributes are crucial. “Location, location, location” does not capture the essence of an apartment value. In a bike-city it is only an explanation part which has relative little impact on price variations. Therefore, we suggest “size, age, location” as comprehensive determinants for local apartment prices.

Keywords: Amenities; Hedonic Method; Real Estate and Urban Economics; Factor Analysis, Relative Importance

1. Introduction

The quality of a location can be valued by its amenities, such as shops, restaurants or a lake. Therefore primarily amenities determine where people want to live. At the macro level, researchers underline their positive consumption effect, which increases the demand to live in cities with generous amenities. Particularly the role of restaurants, museums, movie theaters, bowling alleys and hotels are compared between metropolitan areas (Glaeser et al. 2001). At an urban micro level, their role has only partly been investigated, although many hedonic pricing models (which measure its effects) have been developed. For example, Noonan (2007), and Ahlfeldt & Maennig (2010) highlight the price effects of famous landmarks on house prices. Furthermore, road noise or the distance to the nearest green space and body of water have a significant impact on residential property prices (Brandt and Maennig 2011). Sirmans et al. (2005) provide a broad overview of potential determinants of hedonic pricing models in different studies. The coverage of classic macro level amenities is very low, so that further research is clearly necessary.

In this empirical paper, we measure the impact of location characteristics on apartment prices with a long vector of local amenities. We use data for the medium-sized German city of Münster (Westphalia) for three reasons. Firstly, the role of amenities in major German major cities is unexplored at a micro level. Secondly, in the Second World War, 91% of the historic center of Münster was destroyed and 63% the whole city. Compared to other German cities, the historical center has largely been rebuilt and a substantial amount of built heritage exists in the central business district (CBD). Thus, amenities that can be regarded as historic buildings are measureable. Thirdly, Münster is a “bike-city”. There are round about 500,000 bikes for 291,754 inhabitants (University of Münster 2005). This is a rare characteristic, compared with other major cities in developed nations.

* Institute of Regional and Urban Economics, University of Muenster, Am Stadtgraben 9, Germany, 48143 Muenster, e-mail: hiller@insiwo.de

In the following Section 2, we give a short overview of the data. To measure the micro level impact of amenities on housing prices, we construct a basic hedonic regression model, which is described in Section 3. Therefore, we expand our model with a neighborhood matrix to take spatial dependence into account. In Section 4, we measure the relative importance of the variables to determine the strength of dimensions leading to apartment price variations in Münster.

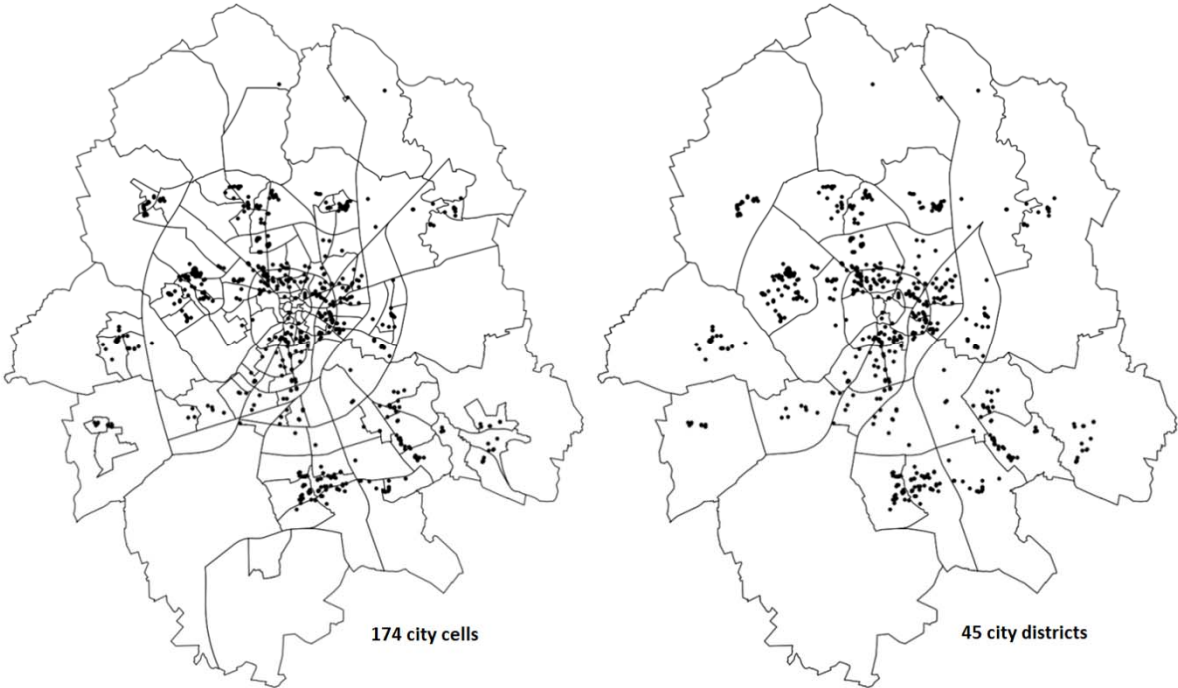
2. Data

The study covers the entire city of Münster, which has an area of 303 km² and a population of 291,754 (December 31st, 2011). As in other central European cities, the apartment market is an important submarket. With its 45,843 students (2012), the role of apartments in Münster as an investment object is very attractive.

We considered 633 apartment sales by “F+B GmbH” between 2008 and 2012. The data includes the usual object parameters (e. g. *rooms, age, kitchen, bathroom, balcony, garden, elevator, apartment type*). Furthermore, we observe different amenities (e. g. *restaurants, bakeries, pubs, sport clubs, building heritage*), landscape parameters (e. g. *building area, forest area, farmland, high-traffic area, commercial area*) and social neighborhood parameters (e. g. *unemployment rate, income per taxpayer, share of foreigners, basic service area in sqm*) from the year 2011. Additionally, we use *street noise* data which can be negatively related to apartment prices (Ball 1973, Andersson et al. 2009). The amenity data is collected by “Stadt Münster” (City of Münster).

The apartment- and amenity-data is based on geographic coordinates, so we can measure the Euclidean distance between each apartment and the located amenity. The social neighborhood parameters are based on 174 statistical districts (called *city cells*), the landscape parameters on 45 statistical districts (called *city districts*). Figure 1 shows the location of the apartments and the boundaries of the different district types.

Figure 1: Apartments in the statistical districts of Münster



The complete data set consists of the transaction price, 23 object attributes, 11 neighborhood parameters, 5 landscape parameters, 25 (dis-)amenity values and 5 time dummies. A statistical description of the data set is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Variable names, definitions and summary statistics

Variable	Definition	Mean
<i>Dependent variable (P)</i>		
Price	Transaction price of property	131502.20
<i>Object attributes(O)</i>		
Rooms	Number of rooms	2.59
Size	Living area in sqm	74.79
Age	Age of property in years	30.07
First time in use	1 if apartment is used first time, 0 otherwise	0.12
Kitchen	1 if property has a kitchen, 0 otherwise	0.38
Loft	1 if property is a loft, 0 otherwise	0.15
Balkony	1 if property has a balcony, 0 otherwise	0.56
Elevator	1 if property has an elevator, 0 otherwise	0.08
Parking place	1 if property has a parking place, 0 otherwise	0.74
Fireplace	1 if property has a fireplace, 0 otherwise	0.02
One floor heating	1 if property has a one floor heating, 0 otherwise	0.10
Basement	1 if property has a basement, 0 otherwise	0.65
Quiet	1 if property is in a quiet area, 0 otherwise	0.26
Central heating	1 if property has a central heating, 0 otherwise	0.63
Garden	1 if property has a garden, 0 otherwise	0.20
Renovated	1 if property is renovated, 0 otherwise	0.09
Luxurious	1 if property is luxurious, 0 otherwise	0.11
Brightly	1 if property has lots natural light, 0 otherwise	0.25
Floor heating	1 if property has a floor heating, 0 otherwise	0.06
Loggia	1 if property is a loggia, 0 otherwise	0.09
New building	1 if property is a new building, 0 otherwise	0.06
Maisonette	1 if property is a maisonette, 0 otherwise	0.06
Parquet floor	1 if property has a parquet floor, 0 otherwise	0.09
<i>Neighborhood (N)</i>		
Population density	Population density in city cells (174)	44.49
Households with childr.	Households with children in city cells (174)	111.73
Ratio of family househ.	Ratio of family households in city cells (174)	0.12
Ratio free housing	Ratio of sponsored housing in city districts (45)	0.05
Playground in sqm	Playground in sqm in city districts (45)	10141.36
Basic service in sqm	Basic service in sqm in city districts (45)	2317.6
Ratio foreigners	Ratio of foreigners in city districts (45)	0.21
Ratio elderly	Ratio of elderly (> 65 years) in city districts (45)	0.22
Ratio unemployment	Ratio of unemployment in city districts (45)	0.06
Income per taxpayer	Income per taxpayer in city districts (45)	29276.39
Ratio house reserve	Ratio of house reserve in city districts (45)	0.04
<i>Landscape (L)</i>		
Ratio building area	Ratio of building area in city districts (45)	0.43
Ratio industrial area	Ratio of industrial area in city districts (45)	0.003
Ratio traffic area	Ratio of traffic area in city districts (45)	0.15
Ratio farm area	Ratio of farm area in city districts (45)	0.23
Ratio forest area	Ratio of forest area in city districts (45)	0.08

Table 1: continued

Variable	Definition	Mean
<i>(Dis-)Amenities (A)</i>		
Dist CBD	Distance to the central business district	3977.66
Dist built heritage	Distance to the next built heritage	376.19
Dist restaurants	Distance to the next restaurants	440.94
Dist sport club	Distance to the next sport club	1433.50
Dist canteen	Distance to the next canteen	1434.62
Dist amusement place	Distance to the next amusement place	1752.61
Dist ice cream parlor	Distance to the next ice cream parlor	727.21
Dist coffee bar	Distance to the next coffee bar	1250.15
Dist disco	Distance to the next disco	2597.34
Dist kiosk	Distance to the next kiosk	1031.59
Dist bakery	Distance to the next bakery	594.52
Dist bakery self-service	Distance to the next bakery self-service	1146.45
Dist bakery and coffee	Distance to the next bakery and coffee bar	459.57
Dist bus station	Distance to the next bus station	135.84
Dist hotel/inn	Distance to the next hotel/inn	922.68
Dist snack bar	Distance to the next snack bar	326.11
Dist pub	Distance to the next pub	1029.65
Dist other pub	Distance to the next "alternative" pub	1590.01
Dist central station	Distance to the central station	4021.83
Dist cinema	Distance to the next cinema	2627.15
Dist day-care center	Distance to the next day-care center	635.91
Dist grocery store	Distance to the next grocery store	381.00
Dist museum	Distance to the next museum	1782.63
Dist primary school	Distance to the next primary school	507.76
Noisy	1 if noise level is above 55 DB, 0 otherwise	0.13
<i>Time dummies (T)</i>		
Dummy date 2008	Time dummy for 2008	0.22
Dummy date 2009	Time dummy for 2009	0.20
Dummy date 2010	Time dummy for 2010	0.19
Dummy date 2011	Time dummy for 2011	0.25
Dummy date 2012	Time dummy for 2012	0.15

The relationship between the value and *age* of the apartment is expected to follow a U-shaped curve. Very old houses can earn a premium due to their historic character, and thus, the *age* and *square of age* are included in the model. The variable *quiet* captures the object attributes done by "F+B GmbH", whereas the *noise dummy* is generated by the street-noise level collected by the "Stadt Münster". The distances to the next amenity are linear. Furthermore, the *ratio of free housing* represents social housing apartments which are subsidized by the government. Its residents do not have to pay for rent or energy. The *basic service* describes the sales area for basic food in the 45 city districts. Yearly *time dummies* are also added to the model.

Since the amenity data is observed for only one year, we must assume that they do not change over the observed period (2008 to 2012). With only 633 observations, the number of 69 independent variables is very high. In a regression, the coefficient of determination could be overestimated, but the number of variables will decrease, for reasons we mention in Section 3.1.

3. Model

3.1 Basic Approach

We assume that at equilibrium, the attractiveness of real estate is fully capitalized into property prices. The attractiveness can depend on object attributes (O), amenities (A), landscape parameters (L) and neighborhood parameters (N). Furthermore, we use time dummies (T) to control for price changes over the observation period. The implicit prices in these parameters are estimated using a standard hedonic approach (Rosen 1974, Muellbauer 1974, Li and Brown 1980, Blomquist and Worley 1981). For the semi-logarithmic form, the basic model can be written as:

$$\log(P)_i = \alpha + \beta_{ij}O_{ij} + \gamma_{ik}L_{ik} + \delta_{il}N_{il} + \theta_{im}A_{im} + \eta_{in}T_{in} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where P is the transaction price; j, k, l, m and n represent the number of attributes of object i ; $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \theta$ and η are coefficients and ε is an error term. Log-linear specifications allow non-linearity and are intuitively interpretable. The coefficients give the percentage impact of changes in attribute values on property prices. Furthermore, we assume that all attributes are homogeneous. There are no quality differences between restaurants, highways or historical monuments.² Since Alonso (1964), a large body of literature has appeared on real estate values and their decline with increasing distance from the CBD. Therefore, we include this distance to avoid bias, which can result from congestion.³ In a first regression (model 1) we identify high multicollinearity, especially between the distance measures. The distance is calculated as linear, although the multicollinearity appears by using decaying or logarithm distances. Table 2 shows the variance inflation factors of all variables, where significant variables (10% and better) appear in bold.⁴ In general, if the variance inflation factor is higher than 10, the level of multicollinearity appears to be a problem.

² The impressive castle of Münster is treated as a geographical data point like any other national heritage. There is no weighting.

³ We define the CBD near the cathedral of Münster at Domplatz 1.

⁴ The variables "Ratio of building area" and "Dummy date 2008" are not included, because they are a linear combination of other dependent variables (perfect multicollinearity).

Table 2: Variance inflation factors of model (1)

Variance inflation factor			
Rooms	2.615053	Ratio house reserve	5.392912
Size	2.603307	Ratio industrial area	21.554964
Age	7.527693	Ratio traffic area	9.754702
Age (squared)	5.792492	Ratio farm area	24.450225
First time in use	1.773360	Ratio forest area	20.069555
Kitchen	1.336391	Dist CBD	191.341625
Loft	1.245640	Dist built heritage	4.986515
Balkony	1.227519	Dist restaurants	3.875663
Elevator	1.187053	Dist sport club	6.133198
Parking place	1.510472	Dist Canteen	15.413397
Fireplace	1.171064	Dist amusement place	16.042240
One floor heating	1.643958	Dist ice cream parlor	10.258949
Basement	1.404974	Dist coffee bar	18.189568
Quiet	1.169566	Dist disco	4.656709
Central heating	1.548470	Dist kiosk	20.195550
Garden	1.259665	Dist bakery	5.727338
Renovated	1.313616	Dist bakery self-service	10.530710
Luxurious	1.397434	Dist bakery and coffee	5.157992
Brightly	1.219271	Dist bus station	1.383534
Floor heating	1.290559	Dist hotel/inn	5.211585
Loggia	1.126296	Dist snack bar	2.518550
New building	1.445130	Dist pub	11.749564
Maisonette	1.176760	Dist other pub	22.122599
Parquet floor	1.209619	Dist central station	80.221640
Population density	4.032483	Dist cinema	58.050392
Households with children	4.660571	Dist day-care center	5.261692
Ratio family households	4.721573	Dist grocery store	3.060511
Ratio free housing	16.352002	Dist museum	14.328708
Playground in sqm	6.919873	Dist primary school	2.083016
Basic service in sqm	7.486790	Noisy	1.699894
Ratio foreigners	17.676349	Dummy date 2009	1.774063
Ratio elderly	5.700676	Dummy date 2010	1.883338
Ratio unemployment	24.510488	Dummy date 2011	1.994120
Income per taxpayer	3.314479	Dummy date 2012	1.795211

Particularly the variance inflation factors suggest that many neighborhood and distance measures are correlated with each other. Thus, the estimators have a wide confidence interval and are may not be significant. However, there are different strategies for handling the problem, namely elimination of variables, using more data – which is not available⁵ – or merging correlated variables by a principal component analysis. We prefer merging than eliminating variables, so as to avoid omitted variable bias and to benefit from all available location information.

⁵ E. g. we cannot control for „crime“, because the data privacy level in Germany is too restrictive.

3.2 Principal Components

We use principal component analysis to extract orthogonal factors from the landscape, neighborhood and amenity data. After the analysis, we will have different amenity-indices which represent different location benefits. The landscape and neighborhood variables are based on 45 city districts. We first define the principal neighborhood components (PCN) for this spatial unit, and then we define principal components for the distance-based amenities (PCA).

For an effective principal component analysis, we need a useful correlation matrix. The goodness of the spatial unit and the amenity correlation matrix can be controlled by Bartlett's test and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (Dziuban and Shirkey 1974). The Bartlett test hypothesizes that the correlation matrix is equal to the identity matrix. This hypothesis can be declined for both correlation matrices with a p-value of 0. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy represents the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables. A value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact, so that principal component analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors. Both matrices pass the test. We further use the Kaiser-Guttman-Criteria, where the number of eigenvalues > 1 determines the number of components. In addition, the cumulative variance should be higher than 75%. We do not follow these criteria strictly. Overall, the components should describe the data in an interpretable manner. Tables 3 and 4 show, we argue, the most suitable results of principal component analysis for both correlation matrices.

Table 3: Principal component analysis of 45 city district variables

Component	Percent variance explained	Cumulative	Eigenvalues
A	31	31	4.88
B	28	59	3.04
C	16	75	1.84

Component	Name	Variable loadings (> 0.50)	
A	PCN low income	Ratio free housing	0.77
		Ratio industrial area	0.83
		Playground in sqm	0.58
		Ratio foreigners	0.88
		Ratio unemployment	0.94
B	PCN high income	Ratio house reserve	0.66
		Ratio traffic area	-0.88
		Ratio farm area	0.90
		Ratio forest area	0.72
		Ratio building area	-0.96
		Income per taxpayer	0.44
C	PCN shopping	Basic service in sqm	0.82
		Ratio elderly	-0.70

Table 4: Principal component analysis of amenity distances

Component	Percent variance explained	Cumulative	Eigenvalues
D	28	28	8.83
E	10	37	2.89
F	9	47	2.20
G	9	56	1.41
H	9	65	1.34
I	8	72	1.23
J	6	78	0.99
K	4	82	0.87

Component	Name	Variable loadings (> 0.50)	
D	PCA centrality	Dist coffee bar	0.90
		Dist other pub	0.84
		Dist disco	0.84
		Dist cinema	0.84
		Dist kiosk	0.83
		Dist CBD	0.82
		Dist canteen	0.78
		Dist central station	0.77
		Dist amusement place	0.63
		E	PCA food
Dist grocery store	0.78		
Dist snackbar	0.55		
Dist ice cream parlor	0.55		
F	PCA culture	Dist museum	0.91
G	PCA recreation	Dist sport club	0.84
		Dist built heritage	0.75
H	PCA convivial	Dist bakery	0.88
		Dist hotel/inn	0.63
		Dist pub	0.62
I	PCA childcare	Dist day-care center	0.62
		Dist bakery self-service	0.57
		Dist primary school	0.54
J	PCA restaurant	Dist restaurants	0.81
K	PCA accessibility	Dist bus station	0.93

The landscape and neighborhood components account for at least 75%, and the amenity components for 82% of their (correlation matrix) variation. These components are rotated using a VARIMAX procedure to produce uncorrelated factors. Overall, we identify groups of variables, which determine the value of different amenities.

Firstly, the neighborhood variables (Table 3) can be separated into three different components: *Low income*, *high income* and *shopping* neighborhoods. The low income component is characterized by a high *ratio of subsidized households*, *foreigners* and *unemployment*. Furthermore, large *playgrounds* can be observed, because there is nowhere for children to play, in contrast to areas with free-standing houses. A high ratio of *industrial areas* can be interpreted as a disamenity (pollution, noise, high traffic) which has a negative impact on apartment prices. Overall, the low income component explains 31% of the variation. High income neighborhoods in a city are characterized by a many natural amenities (a high *ratio*

of forest and farm area, a low ratio of high-traffic and building areas) and high income per taxpayer. Thus, the *houserreserve* (developing area) is large, so only taxpayers with a high income will build and live in this part of town. The component explains 28% of the variation. The shopping component is characterized by a high grade of *basic services* and a low ratio of *elderly* people. Therefore, it forms part of the business district, which explains 15% of the variation.

Secondly, the amenity variables (Table 4) are converted into eight components, where the centrality variables (e. g. *CBD, central station, cinema, discos*) explain, at 28%, most of the variation. Although the University of Münster has no central campus, its *canteens* are distributed around the central city and therefore form part of the centrality component. The other components remain close to 10%, where the accessibility (distance to the next *bus station*) has the lowest variance explanation at 4%. By using principal components, our OLS-model takes the following form:

$$\log(P)_i = \alpha + \beta_{ij}O_{ij} + \delta_{ik}PCN_{ik} + \theta_{il}PCA_{il} + \eta_{im}T_{im} + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

where P is the transaction price; j, k, l and m represent the number of attributes of object i ; $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \theta$ and η are coefficients and ε is an error term. The attractiveness of a apartment depends on object attributes (O), neighborhood components (PCN), amenity components (PCA) and the time dummies (T). Before we use the component indices as OLS repressors, we have to consider spatial dependence, which can affect our results in various ways.

3.3 Spatial Dependence

If spatial autocorrelation arises from error terms and is therefore not independently distributed across space, the autocorrelation can lead to biased and inefficient standard errors. As Brasington and Hite (2005) show, spatial methods increase efficiency and consistency and reduce the bias of parameter estimates in hedonic analysis. To find the most likely spatial model for explaining the data, the LM-tests of Anselin (1988) and the robust LM-tests of Anselin et al. (1996) are used. A positive test suggests rejecting the regular OLS-model and using a Spatial Error Model (SEM) or a Spatial Lag Model (SAR) to account for spatial autocorrelation. Although LeSage and Pace (2009) and Elhorst (2010) recommend a Spatial Durbin Model (SDM) for interpretation purposes, we cannot include a large number of lag variables in our model, because we have only a few observations.

To control for spatial dependency, a neighborhood matrix is necessary, and its definition affects the test result. The distance between apartments is essential for the neighborhood matrix or rather the spatial model. Not every neighboring house has the same weight in the model. It would make more sense to have the weights decrease with distance. This is more robust to variability, due to houses receiving equal weight because they enter a neighborhood. Thus, we use the decay distance parameter $1/d$. For example, if the apartment is 100 (200) meters away, it takes the value 0.01 (0.005). By doubling the distance, their weight will be halved. Based on Moran's I (p-value = 0.000, statistic = 0.0368), we cannot reject spatial dependence. The Lagrangian multipliers suggest a spatial lag model (SAR).⁶ Therefore, we

⁶ **Lagrange Multiplier** **p-value (t-statistic)**
 LM Spatial Error: 0.000 (20.0609)
 LM Spatial Lag: 0.000 (75.778)
 Robust LM Spatial Error: 0.697 (0.1516)
 Robust LM Spatial Lag: 0.000 (55.8682)

include the weighted neighborhood matrix W in our OLS-model to obtain spatial autocorrelation. The SAR-Model (3) shows that the price of apartments is related to the price of neighboring apartments.

$$\log(P)_i = \alpha + \beta_{ij}O_{ij} + \delta_{ik}PCN_{ik} + \theta_{il}PCA_{il} + \eta_{im}T_{im} + \rho W\log(P) + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

The model induces a global form of spillovers, where the price setting depends partly on the neighborhood price settings (Anselin 2002). Thus, for example, the object attributes of neighboring apartments will have an effect on the observed apartment prices. To measure the spatial behavior of the data, we also construct a SEM-Model (4).

$$\log(P)_i = \alpha + \beta_{ij}O_{ij} + \delta_{ik}PCN_{ik} + \theta_{il}PCA_{il} + \eta_{im}T_{im} + u \quad (4)$$

$$\text{with } u = \lambda Wu + e$$

In comparison to our SAR-Model, the SEM-Model includes the neighborhood matrix in the error term which, follows a spatial autoregressive process. Thus positive externalities like tree-lined roads or a low crime rate, which are omitted in our data, are accounted for the model.

4. Results

4.1 Regressions

Table 5 provides the coefficient results of the three models. The estimated signs generally meet theoretical expectations. The *number of rooms*, the *size* and the *age squared* are positively related to the sale price. *Age* itself is negatively related to the sale price, confirming the hypothesized U-shaped relationship between price and age. Other quality and condition aspects of the apartments are also important. A *fireplace* or a garden has a significant positive impact on prices. If the apartment is *renovated* (or is *luxurious*, *has lots natural light* or is a *maisonette*), the price will increase. *Noise* is negatively related to the price. Only in our spatial models are the *balcony* or *one floor heating* (each floor has only one heating unit) significant variables. Thus, the observed apartment will benefit from the neighborhood, because all nearby apartments share the same pleasant view (*balconies*) or benefit from new housing technology (*one floor heating*).

Two of three neighborhood components are significant. If the neighborhood is characterized by *low income*, the value of the apartment is lower. *High income* does not have a significant impact on prices. A high basic supply of sales area in sqm (*shopping*) is positively related to the apartment prices, because its residents save transport costs in the context of food purchases. Six of eight amenity components are significant and negatively related to the price. The highest coefficient is related to the *centrality* and *culture* component. This confirms the relationship between price and the distance to the central business district, which is generally measured in hedonic house price analysis. Large distances (in a view of a higher component value) to food-outlets, recreation, childcare and restaurants are also significantly negatively related to prices.

The *time dummies* suggest that, compared to 2008, the prices in 2011 and 2012 increase significantly. This is associated with the housing bubble debate that commenced, only two years ago in German research and the media. Real estate is referred to as “Betongold” (concrete gold) as an alternative to real gold, for instance, due the Euro-crisis. In 2008, the low

interest rate set by the European Central Bank and the Euro crisis of confidence lead to higher apartment prices in Münster.

Table 6 compares the three models. For the spatial models, we document log-likelihoods, as well as the likelihood ratio and Wald statistics for testing joint significance of the spatial parameters. They support the need to take spatial dependence into account. The inclusion of a spatial autocorrelation, as lag or error terms, leads to an increase in the R^2 (from 0.7964 (OLS) to 0.8132 (SEM) to 0.8224 (SAR)). The AIC and BIC decline as well. Given a Moran's I value of +0.036, the null hypothesis of spatially uncorrelated error terms has to be rejected, a result that is confirmed by the LM-test for error dependence.

Table 5: Regression coefficient results

Variables	OLS-Model (2)		SEM-Model (4)		SAR-Model (3)	
	coefficient	t-statistic	coefficient	t-statistic	coefficient	t-statistic
Constant	10.7700***	129.811	10.7740***	90,2139	3.2312***	3.5049
Rooms	0.1800***	12.514	0.1826***	13,5578	0.1804***	13.6688
Size	0.0045***	9.984	0.0041***	9,7370	0.0042***	10.0070
Age	-0.0119***	-8.02	-0.0118***	-8,2254	-0.0111***	-8.1444
Age (squared)	0.0001***	6.952	0.0001***	7,2380	0.0001***	7.1862
First time in use	0.2329***	4.829	0.2345***	5,2027	0.2414***	5.4549
Kitchen	-0.0189	-0.666	-0.0086	-0,3252	-0.0038	-0.1448
Loft	-0.0503	-1.358	-0.0351	-1,0131	-0.0348	-1.0250
Balkony	0.0411	1.521	0.0333	1,3188	0.0416**	1.6784
Elevator	0.0767	1.541	0.0435	0,9360	0.0437	0.9552
Parking place	0.0426	1.265	0.0443	1,3976	0.0426	1.3801
Fireplace	0.3060**	3.199	0.2860**	3,1097	0.2826***	3.2184
One floor heating	0.0709	1.409	0.0865*	1,8325	0.0797*	1.7262
Basement	0.0407	1.355	0.0365	1,3203	0.0328	1.1906
Quiet	0.0182	0.612	0.0066	0,2343	0.0097	0.3548
Central heating	0.0041	0.131	0.0131	0,4538	0.0104	0.3654
Garden	0.0893***	2.617	0.0922***	2,9258	0.0875***	2.7953
Renovated	0.1003**	2.076	0.0914**	2,0030	0.0941**	2.1225
Luxurious	0.1470***	3.251	0.1178***	2,7738	0.1211***	2.9136
Brightly	0.0504*	1.659	0.0473*	1,6758	0.0538*	1.9273
Floor heating	0.0274	0.46	-0.0035	-0,0624	-0.0214	-0.3888
Loggia	-0.0024	-0.053	-0.0070	-0,1622	-0.0073	-0.1724
New building	0.0487	0.771	0.0423	0,7193	0.0475	0.8198
Maisonette	0.1664***	2.953	0.1734***	3,2501	0.1825***	3.5274
Parquet floor	0.0243	0.529	-0.0002	-0,0056	-0.0012	-0.0280
Population density	-0.0006	-1.092	-0.0006	-1,0976	-0.0004	-0.7997
Households with children	0.0000	-0.039	0.0001	0,4188	0.0001	0.6664
Ratio family households	0.1583	0.533	0.1320	0,3969	-0.2702	-0.9763
Noisy	-0.1376***	-3.316	-0.1300***	-2,9477	-0.0915**	-2.3712
PCN low income	-0.1043***	-5.232	-0.0950***	-4,0711	-0.0659***	-3.4819
PCN high income	-0.0293	-0.87	-0.0281	-0,7550	-0.0153	-0.4954
PCN shopping	0.0491***	3.095	0.0260	1,2052	0.0312**	2.1324
PCA centrality	-0.1353***	-5.486	-0.1351***	-4,3856	-0.0861***	-3.6533
PCA culture	-0.1146***	-5.705	-0.0893***	-3,5394	-0.0614***	-3.1671
PCA food	-0.0497***	-3.418	-0.0566***	-3,4621	-0.0419***	-3.1303
PCA recreation	-0.0775***	-4.773	-0.0656***	-2,9791	-0.0223	-1.3595
PCA convivial	-0.0179	-1.124	-0.0251	-1,2791	-0.0126	-0.8593
PCA childcare	-0.0422**	-2.384	-0.0279	-1,2864	-0.0218	-1.3253
PCA restaurant	-0.0618***	-3.98	-0.0578***	-3,1161	-0.0396***	-2.7348
PCA bus station	0.0137	1.033	0.0223	1,6213	0.0141	1.1594
Dummy date 2009	-0.0229	-0.562	-0.0097	-0,2559	0.0011	0.0301
Dummy date 2010	0.0606	1.427	0.0545	1,3665	0.0612	1.5730
Dummy date 2011	0.0930**	2.349	0.0935**	2,5342	0.0916**	2.5231
Dummy date 2012	0.1550***	3.523	0.1685***	4,0572	0.1639***	4.0598

Note: The symbols *, **, and *** denote significance at the 10, 5, and 1% levels, respectively.

Table 6: Regression comparison

Indicators	OLS-Model (2)	SEM-Model (4)	SAR-Model (3)
R ²	0.7964	0.8132	0.8224
AIC	363.165	339.944	308.23
BIC	563.436	544.666	512.952
Moran's I of residuals	0.0368***	0.0066	-0.0063
Log-likelihood		-123.9723	-108.1152
Likelihood ratio		25.221***	57.149***
Wald statistics		120.2***	69.649***

Furthermore, the likelihood ratio and Wald test suggest taking spatial dependence into account. The SEM and SAR models capture spatial dependence, as indicated by LM-tests for error dependence and Moran's I for the residuals. Furthermore, the coefficients have a low level of multicollinearity (all variance inflation factors are below 8, as Table A. 1 in the appendix suggests). Summarizing the SAR model is most suitable for explain the data.

4.2 Relative Importance

Until now, we have gathered a lot of information about three explanatory dimensions: object attributes, location and time. In summary, we can explain around 80% percent of the price variation. The spatial models improve our results marginally (in view of our R², AIC and BIC). The signs of the coefficients do not change, only the p-values are partly lower. Altogether, we know a lot about interrelated signs of the coefficients and the behavior of different variables, as well as their impact on real estate prices, but not their relative importance. Johnson and Lebreton (2004) define relative importance as

"the proportionate contribution each predictor makes to R², considering both its direct effect (i.e., its correlation with the criterion) and its effect when combined with the other variables in the regression equation".

Therefore, we consider the relative importance of location. To investigate this, we focus on the R² of our OLS-Model. For spatial models, there is no valid method for computing the relative importance. However we believe that the results will only change marginally for the spatial models. Following Grömping (2009), there are four criteria for decomposing R². Firstly, the model has to be decomposed into shares, which are in sum, the model variance (proper decomposition). Secondly, all shares have to be non-negative (non-negativity). Thirdly, regressors with a $\beta = 0$ should have a zero share (exclusion) and finally, a regressor with $\beta \neq 0$ should receive a non-zero share (inclusion). Grömping (2009) recommends two computer-intensive methods: LMG (developed by Lindeman, Merenda and Gold 1980) and PMVD (Proportional Marginal Variance Decomposition by Feldman 2005). LMG allocates for instance to *rooms*, the average over all allocations to *rooms* from all possible orderings of the regressors. This gives each order of regressors the same weight, which is data-independent. PMVD calculates β -weighted averages of the regressors. Each order of regressors receives a data-dependent weight (Feldman 2005). We prefer the PMVD method, because it complies with the criteria of exclusion and inclusion (Grömping 2009). As a result, some regressors are more dominant. Moreover, we use the LMG-results to control our PMVD-results.

To measure the relative importance, it is essential that the correlation between each variable be low, and that only significant variables are used (Johnson and Lebreton 2004). The principal components lead to low variance inflation factors, so that our 22 significant variables

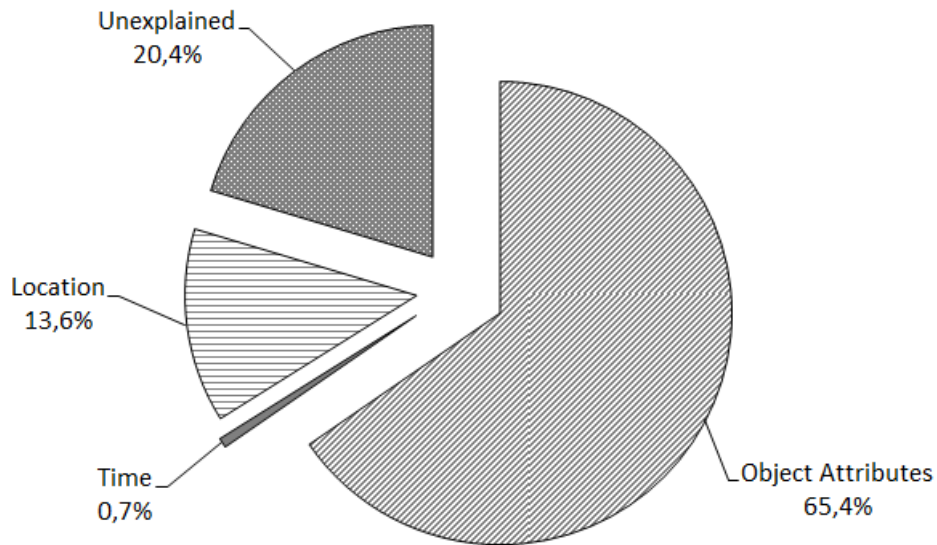
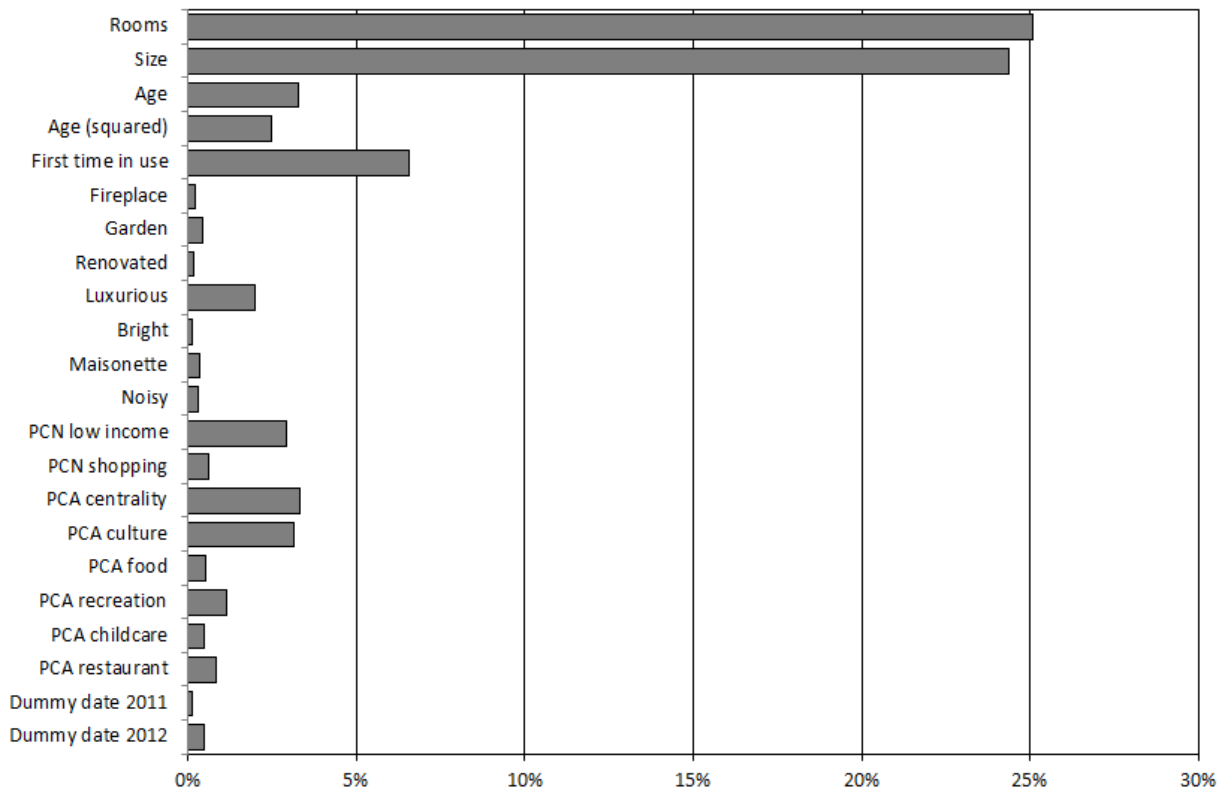
are suitable for this method. Figure 2 shows the relative importance of the regressors for apartment prices based on PMVD.⁷

Some variables explain a high proportion of R^2 . Especially *rooms*, *size*, *age*, *first time in use*, *luxurious*, *poor neighborhood*, *centrality* and *culture* explain most of the price variations. But what is the difference between a coefficient and the relative importance? For example, a *fireplace* has a positive and significant coefficient of 0.3060, whereas *first time in use* has only a coefficient of 0.2329. Yet, the relative importance of *fireplace* is only 0.24% and *first time in use* explains 6.60% of R^2 . The residents do not consider the incremental amount of a *fireplace*, while holding other attributes constant. They consider simultaneously all aspects that are important to them and implicitly weight each aspect relative to the others in determining their overall willingness to pay.

Altogether, the location-based parameters do not have a high explanatory value. In sum, they explain only 13.6% of the price variation, while the object attributes explain most with 63.2%. Hence, “location, location, location” does not in fact reflect the important determinants of apartment prices. The ranking is more like “size, age, location”, but even this is only half the story. We only focus on the micro level of Münster. Rural apartments are not observed in the data, hence location parameters are only assigned for the real estate market of the city of Münster. Therefore, location parameters (like the distance to the CBD) can be explained more comprehensively, if we compare apartments between rural and urban regions. If a large-scale regional data set can be explained by one model, the role of location may increase. An investor, who wants to buy an apartment in Münster, should evidently not overestimate the role of location.

⁷ For LMG, we observe marginal differences. Location explains 15,5%, time 0,6% and the object attributes 63,6% of the variation. For more details, see Figure A.1 and Table A.2 in the appendix.

Figure 2: Shares of relative importance for apartment prices (method PMVD)



Note: The R^2 of the OLS with (only) significant variables is 79.64

5. Conclusion

In our hedonic models, we outline the role of different location parameters for real estate prices. Our results underline the negative relationship between a large distance to amenities and apartment prices. Furthermore, location is not the main price determinant. Object attributes like size and age explain most of price variations. Thus, we suggest “size, age, location” instead of “location, location, location” as the fundamental price determinants within a bike-city. However, the relative importance of location parameters may rise, if rural data is included. Therefore more research on these issues is clearly necessary.

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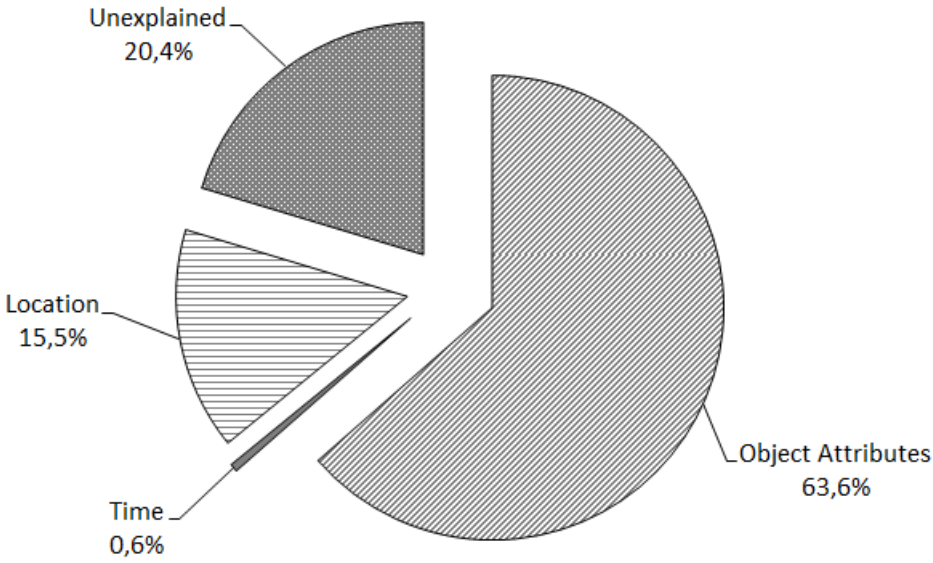
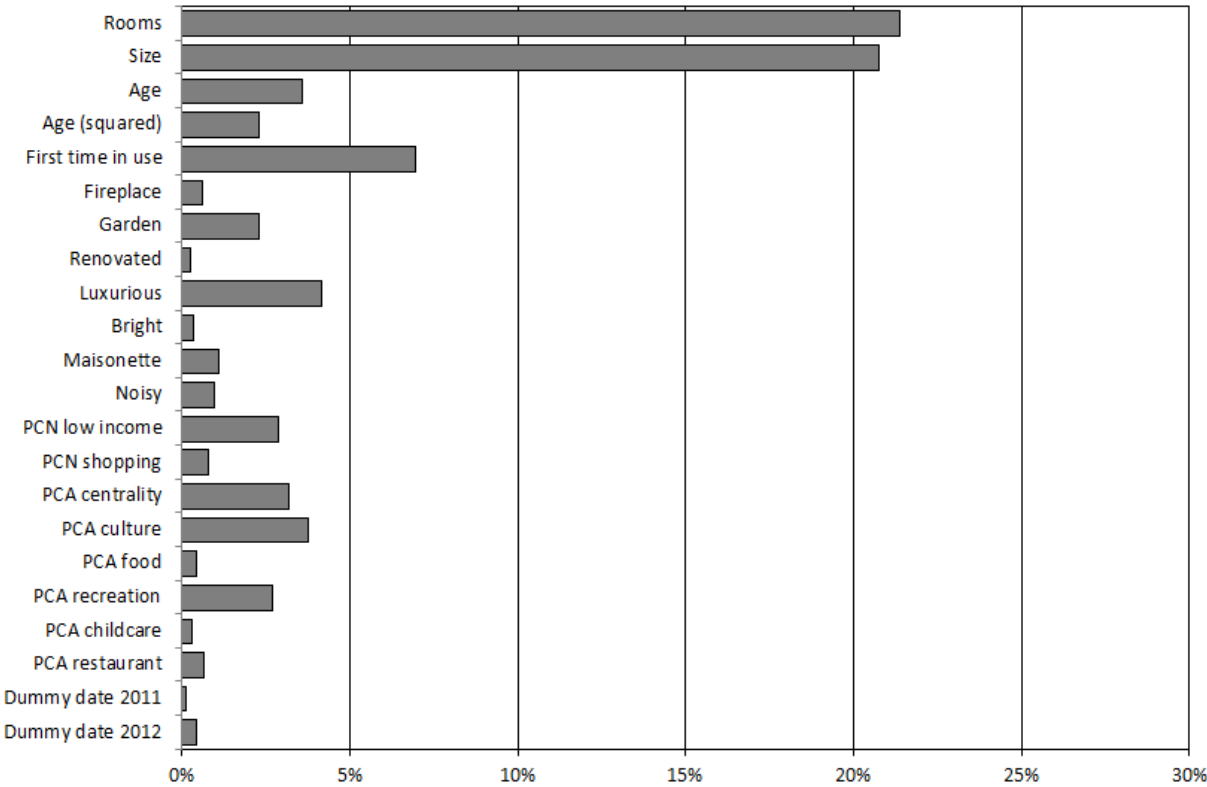
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Appendix

Table A.1: Variance inflation factors of model (2)

Variance inflation factor			
Rooms	2.517467	Maisonette	1.113504
Size	2.528619	Parquet floor	1.161690
Age	6.909526	Population density	2.942633
Age (squared)	5.210640	Households with Children	3.300579
First time in use	1.641588	Ratio family households	3.209623
Kitchen	1.246547	Noisy	1.268530
Loft	1.161656	PCN low income	2.593662
Balkony	1.172207	PCN high income	7.382646
Elevator	1.133247	PCN shopping	1.640002
Parking place	1.430739	PCA centrality	3.968922
Fireplace	1.112031	PCA culture	2.632975
One floor heating	1.523426	PCA food	1.377366
Basement	1.342086	PCA recreation	1.721568
Quiet	1.115499	PCA convivial	1.659065
Central heating	1.463963	PCA childcare	2.040492
Garden	1.197209	PCA restaurant	1.573055
Renovated	1.250988	PCA bus station	1.144212
Luxurious	1.346797	Dummy date 2009	1.700901
Brightly	1.140309	Dummy date 2010	1.761961
Floor heating	1.212307	Dummy date 2011	1.901951
Loggia	1.077047	Dummy date 2012	1.655086
New building	1.400862		

Figure A.1: Shares of relative importance for apartment prices (method LMG)



Note: The R^2 of the OLS with (only) significant variables is 79.64

Table A.2: Variance inflation factors of 22 significant variables for the PMVD/LMG method

Variance inflation factor			
Rooms	2.385525	Noisy	1.133975
Size	2.381177	PCN low income	1.835748
Age	5.410911	PCN shopping	1.330356
Age (squared)	4.646479	PCA centrality	1.132052
First time in use	1.431833	PCA culture	1.100446
Fireplace	1.070660	PCA food	1.047428
Garden	1.120334	PCA recreation	1.307264
Renovated	1.185718	PCA childcare	1.569857
Luxurious	1.187413	PCA restaurant	1.205348
Brightly	1.083022	Dummy date 2011	1.129814
Maisonette	1.065476	Dummy date 2012	1.142102

If we omit *rooms* and *age (squared)*, the variance inflation factors are all below 2. This reduced OLS-Model explains 70.69% (R^2) of the price variation (method LMG). The object attributes explain 53.86%, the location parameters 16.37%, and the time dummies 0.46%.