

Development of a cellular automata-based model approach for sustainable planning of affordable housing projects: an application case study in Algiers

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Title

Development of a CA-based model approach for sustainable planning of affordable housing projects: an application case study in Algiers

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Declarations of interest

none.

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Title 1

Development of a Cellular Automata-based model approach for 2 sustainable planning of affordable housing projects: an 3 application case study in Algiers

5 Abstract

4

6 Being considered as a basic necessity and a key element in the development of sustainable communities, housing 7 is a major concern for the Algerian government. Algiers is facing for the last years a challenging housing 8 shortage and as a way to overcome this problem, many housing projects have been launched. However, the 9 pressing need to address this crisis has disregarded what the pattern of landscape will be, how the existing 10 infrastructures will accommodate with such housing projects and how they will impact on human well-being. 11 This research aims to advance the challenges of planning for sustainability by proposing a methodological 12 approach in a context of high lack of data to support decision-makers in the elaboration of affordable housing 13 projects. The main objective is to trade off urban growth with residential satisfaction and the preservation of 14 natural resources. We developed two Cellular Automata (CA) based residential development scenarios to 15 identify suitable locations for future affordable housing projects: Urban densification scenario (UD) and 16 Constrained urban sprawl scenario (CUS). Both scenarios are based on indicators of residential preferences and 17 measures taken in order to counter the negative effects of urbanization. Results reveal the low capacity of 18 Algiers to meet the housing shortage according to the conditions set for each scenario. The scenarios were 19 evaluated by quantifying their spatial patterns using a preselected set of six class-level landscape metrics. Results 20 show a combination of aggregated and dispersed patterns growth for both scenarios meeting trade-offs among 21 the advantages and the challenges of urban densification and urban sprawl. Then, Standard deviation and 22 regression analysis were conducted to assess the accuracy of CA simulation and the evaluation of pattern 23 changes in the simulated scenarios. The resulting values indicate the good performance of CA and confirm its 24 effectiveness in predicting the future locations of housing projects.

25 Keywords 26 Residential preferences; Housing projects locations; Sustainable Urban Planning; Cellular Automata; Landscape

27 metrics; Regression analysis.

28 Highlights

29 . The importance of spatial decision-behaviour process in the planification of affordable housing projects is30 attested.

31 . A Cellular Automata-based model is developed and suitable locations for future housing programs are32 identified.

33 . This innovative approach combines indicators of households residential preferences with measures to protect34 natural and agricultural areas.

35 . Natural resources are protected and accessibility to public transport and amenities is optimised.

36 . The model can be adjusted according to local social and environmental demands to support the transition37 towards sustainable and inclusive housing policies.

38 1.Introduction

Good housing is a key success element in provisioning human well-being and sustainable communities; therefore, governments should afford adequate and well-located housing possibilities, meeting the needs of all segments of existing and future society, offering equality of opportunities and good services for all, with a focus on environmental issues and landscape functioning (Gopalan et al., 2015; Dillmana et al., 2017; Costarelli et al., 2019). In accordance to the 2030 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), cities today need to employ sustainable strategies in housing policies and programs based on inclusion and participation.

45 Affordable housing is provided for households whose income is not adequate to afford appropriate housing 46 directly on the market based on government initiatives. However, apart from price, sustainability issues such as 47 land use efficiency, neighborhood environment, location, transportation, work opportunities and sense of 48 belongings are strongly discussed in such housing programs (Abdel Raheem et al., 2020; Saidu et al., 2020). Up 49 to now, the consideration of these components is often overlooked when addressing housing crisis, particularly in developing countries due to their explosive population growth. Therefore, housing projects are planned mainly 50 51 on the basis of cost that can significantly increase when including social and environmental perspectives, and 52 thus, distort the adopted strategies to overcome the critical growing housing needs (Gan et al., 2017).

53 As a way to address the housing crisis and the prevalence of slums, as well as their impact on quality of life, the 54 Algerian government has allocated considerable budgets on different housing programs and policies through four 55 national development plans since 2001 (Djafri et al., 2019; Niang, 2019). They target all income levels 56 separately (low – middle – high), thus undermining the idea of social mix (Costarelli et al., 2019; Safar-Zitoune, 57 2020). However, there is still a gap in terms of housing supply, quality and affordability compared to the 58 effective demand (Aknouch, 2016). This is particularly relevant in the capital Algiers, where affordable housing 59 indicator Price to Income Ratio (PIR) (Sani, 2015) for the year 2021 is around 26.33 (> 5) (Numbeo, 2009). It 60 highlights the considerable gap that exists between the real estate market supply and the purchasing power of 61 households. So far, due to the weakness of instruments and unstudied policies (Belguidoum et al., 2010), these 62 housing projects have generally gone by hand with the disconnection of the end-users from their everyday urban surroundings (Mebirouk et al., 2005; Msilta, 2009; Naceur, 2013; Djafri et al., 2021), challenging social 63 64 cohesion and revealing neighborhood effects such as insecurity and delinquency (Boutabbal, 2016; Safar-65 Zitoune, 2020), residential segregation (Safar-Zitoun, 2009; Benazzouz-Belhai, 2018), the inadequacy of 66 dwellings to household's lifestyles (Souiah, 2005; Bendraoua et al, 2008), the lack of public facilities, amenities 67 and public transportation, and the difficulties in accessing workplaces (Msilta,, 2009; Semmoud, 2015). As a 68 result, many vacant dwellings have been identified as being unoccupied by their owners (Semyane, 2020). 69 Additionally, lack of transparency and coordination between government institutions and political interferences 70 (Belguidoum et al., 2010; Cheniki et al., 2020) have also contributed to the failure of these national housing 71 programs.

These housing projects play also a critical role driving the process of urban growth. They lead to an irreversible land transformation through landscape fragmentation, shrinking of agricultural lands (Bellout et al., 2020) and an increase of natural and man-made hazards (Boughazi et al., 2014; Boughedir, 2015). As well as an enhancement in population mobility and traffic congestion, thus altering urban metabolism (Tabti-Talamali, 2018; Chaguetmi et al., 2020). Therefore, there is a need to develop a framework that will support decision-makers in their spatialdecision behaviours in order to best manage the spatial form of the urban footprint as well as to respond to various households' residential preferences, aiming to reach residential satisfaction.

However, despite the government's aim to introduce smart approaches into decision-making processes, notably through the "Algiers Smart City" project (Aït-Yahia, 2019), as yet, it is rather difficult to take into account sustainable actions in Algerian urban plans and policies at different scales. The main cause is the low technical capacity of municipalities to manage their local urban growth (Berezovska-Azzag et al., 2015), driven by 83 political arbitrary decisions in order to avoid socio-political tensions (Hocine, 2021). Moreover, this problem is 84 often associated with the lack (or usually non- existence) of time series spatial data, especially at a fine scale 85 (Rabhi et al., 2019). Data is in most cases not digitized and impossible to access, while data that capture 86 household patterns and individual's decision behaviours usually do not exist. In addition to this, public 87 administrative systems are weak and not computerized, despite the "E-Algeria" project launched in 2013 by the 88 government to move towards e-governance and introduce ICTs in public administrations (Taib, 2015; Fortas, 89 2017). Up to now, there is still a strong reluctance and multifaceted resistance (Aüt-Yahia, 2019) as ICTs provide 90 more information and transparency, and play a key role in the renewal of forms of democracy and citizens' 91 participation in the decision-making process (Taib, 2015; Aït-Yahia, 2016; Cheniki et al., 2020). This makes it 92 difficult to assess the current situation as well as to forecast future changes for impact minimization.

93 Nowadays, the need to use urban modeling approaches in the study of urban systems has become vital to shift 94 towards sustainable and efficient planning. There are variety of approaches and methods developed for this aim 95 including Markov chain, Logistic regression, Potential Model, Cellular Automata (Dabbaghian et al. 2010; 96 Yulianto et al., 2018; Antoni et al., 2019; Liao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Asfaw et al., 2020; Priem et al., 97 2021; Zhang et al., 2021) and Agent-based models (Crooks et al., 2014; Bharath et al. 2016; Guangjin et al., 98 2016; Wahyudi et al., 2019). These models and methods can be used alone or in combination with one another or 99 with other statistic models. The flexibility of CA-based models and their ability to integrate GIS technologies to 100 model complex urban systems have contributed to their common use in urban growth modelling (Santé et al., 101 2010; Liu, Yan et al., 2019; Liu, Yunqiang et al., 2019). In geography, the territorial dimension of Cellular 102 Automata was supported by Tobler 1979 (Tobler, 1979), through his pioneering work in the geographic systems 103 domaine. Several approaches and models were subsequently proposed to modify standard CA to make it suitable 104 to simulate land use changes from a bottom-up perspective, particularly in urban and peri-urban areas. Cellular 105 Automata (CA) is a discrete computer model (Jen, 1990) composed of a cellular grid where each cell is classified 106 as one of a number of predefined states. In geography and land planning applications, these states usually 107 correspond to land use categories (transportation, dense housing, individual housing, etc.). Within the CA grid, 108 each cell's state can evolve in time t according to the states of the neighborhood cells. Transition rules are then 109 applied iteratively as many times as desired.

In Algeria, only very rare studies have worked on urban modeling. Two notable studies can be cited (Nedjai et al., 2016 and Rabhi et al., 2019), where urban growth was predicted as a whole. In this research, we consider the city as a system that can be defined by synergies among various components, where land use changes are the

consequence of multiple drivers that include human behaviours and decisions such as housing choices (Liu et al.,2019).

This study adopts a Cellular Automata based modeling approach to produce prospective scenarios of residential developments of the capital Algiers. The main objective is the identification of suitable locations for future affordable housing projects that will best sustain natural resources, especially in a context of shortage of capital and land supply for urbanization, while seeking to provide human well-being (Yigitcanlar et al., 2015). The generated outcomes will also allow to evidence the role and impact of spatial-decision behaviours in reshaping landscape structure using landscape metrics.

121 2.Methodology

122 2.1. Study area

123 The study was carried out in Algiers, the capital of Algeria, it is located on the Mediterranean coast, 124 geographically between 36°42'N and 3°03'E. It covers an area of 1190 km2 and is comprised of 57 125 municipalities, with a population of 3.154 million in 2015. During the last decades, urbanization has increased significantly in the city of Algiers, the growth of urban areas increased from about 13 597 hectares in 1987 to 126 127 over 19 629 hectares in 2000 and over 33 400 hectares in 2014, with an average growth of 707 hectares per year 128 (Bouchachi, 2017). Most of the changes in land use have been on the expense of the agricultural lands belonging 129 to the Mitidja plain, which is very problematic because of its very high agricultural potential and gently sloping 130 lands (Bellout, 2020).

131 Algiers has a Master Plan of Urban Planning and Development (PDAU 2000-2029). It provides a set of actions 132 to achieve suitable management and development of the city (Ammara, 2014; Bachar, 2016). It is supported by a 133 Strategic Development Plan (PSDA 2029) elaborated in 2006 by the municipality of Algiers within the 134 framework of the revision of the PDAU as well as the creation of a development plan for Algiers Bay. Through 135 these tools, public authorities express major interest in launching massive housing programs. However, the 136 deficiencies currently experienced by the housing industry and housing market advance the weaknesses in the 137 methodological approaches of these tools. They remain evasive and overcome by local realities (Ammara, 2014; 138 Djermoune, 2014; Kehal-Boucherit, 2019).

139 2.2. Land Use and Land Cover (LULC) mapping of Algiers

Unlike land cover, which represents the physical elements of the landscape (vegetation, water, urban patch etc.),
land use cannot be determined by analysing satellite and aerial imagery, as it represents the consequences of
anthropogenic actions on landscape and how it is used (housing, facilities, etc.) (Singh, 2021). In this context of
non-availability of LULC map of Algiers, we were constrained to produce the geographic information
(shapefiles) needed for this study, following the stages below.

145 1.Delimitation of urbanized areas. We performed an NDVI index on a sentinel 2A image of the region of Algiers 146 with a resolution of 1m to separate areas with vegetation cover from areas with rock/concrete cover. Then we 147 conducted a photo-interpretation approach to increase the accuracy between the classes. The very low NDVI 148 values (≤ 0.1) correspond to barren rock surfaces. Intermediate values (0.2 to 0.3) represent shrub and grassland 149 areas. High values (0.6 to 0.8) indicate temperate or humid tropical forests.

Delimitation of agricultural lands according to their agricultural aptitudes. In order to define the agricultural lands that must be protected, we reclassified the categories of the agricultural aptitudes provided by the Master
 Plan of Urban Planning and Development of Algiers (PDAU) into two principal categories: (1) Low agricultural potential lands, (2) High agricultural potential lands.

154 3. Spatial designation of LU/LC categories. In order to locate and map LULC categories, we exploited the vector

data provided by Open Street map (OSM). OSM vector data are commonly used to identify LU/LC categories

156 (Kunze et al, 2015; Sertel et al, 2018; Sertel et al, 2021). However, we were constrained to conduct an urban land

LU/LC Categories	Cells	%	Color	Code	Description
Transportation	16359	3.51		TRN	Public transport stations and stops and highways
Dense Housing	107540	23.12		DH	high density housing typologies
Dense Individual Housing	18796	4.04		DIH	Dense individual single and/or multi-family housing typologies
Public Services and Urban Facilities	17990	3.86		PSUF	Schools, hospitals, recreations, green infrastructures, administrations
Activities and Industry	32740	7.04		AI	Industrial areas and factories
High Agricultural Potential Lands	209473	45.05		HAPL	Lands with high agricultural aptitude
Low Agricultural Potential Lands	19340	4.15		LAPL	Lands with low agricultural aptitude
Waterways and Hydrolic Infrastructures	8703	1.87		WHI	waterways, wetlands, hydraulic stations and infrastructures
Forests	33775	7.26		FOR	Forests, nature parks
Urban Wastelands	251	0.05		UW	Land gaps and brownfields

157

158

Table 1. Classification of LULC categories of Algiers.

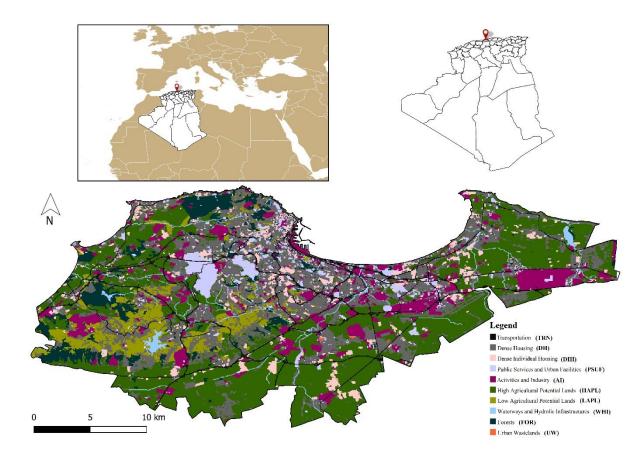
survey in order to verify, update and complete the OSM data. (Pissourios, 2019).

160 On the basis of the shapefiles produced by the previous stages, 10 categories of LULC were defined (Tab.1) and

stored in a grid map with a resolution of 50m*50m per cell (Fig.1).

162 2.3. Design of future residential developments

163 Literature review indicates that the traditional urban-rural divide is the main driving force behind households' 164 residential preferences, as it gives each a broad set of features that influence household choices (Vasanen, 2012; 165 Ströbele et al., 2017; Foelskea et al., 2019; Jansen, 2020). In this study, attention was focused on preferences 166 related to landscapes and infrastructures. Landscape preferences are driven by two main trends: (i) A trend 167 generated by preferences for dense housing typologies in dense urban surroundings (Howley, 2009; Caplan et 168 al., 2021). (ii) A trend generated by preferences for individual – single family housing typologies in open spaces, 169 and for rural and natural amenities (Foelskea et al., 2019). Meanwhile, infrastructures preferences are related to 170 mobility behaviour based on the means of transport used, and to the availability and proximity to everyday 171 services





172

Fig 1. Study Area. Land Use/Land Cover and Political map of Algiers.

and facilities (Walks, 2008). These indicators are interrelated as their overlap defines the final residentialpreferences of households.

Based on the produced digital LULC map of Algiers (section 2.2.) and the indicators of residential preferences mentioned above, two scenarios of residential developments have been elaborated to identify the suitable locations of future affordable housing projects. However, preferences have been constrained by measures taken in order to counter the negative effects of urbanisation towards a planning for sustainability. These measures include the protection of agricultural lands, natural and green landscape elements, as well as the promotion of the use of public transport (Westerink et al., 2013; Simard, 2014; Artmann et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021).

(UD) Urban Densification. This scenario aims to develop Dense Housing (DH) land use category by meeting the preferences for high density housing typologies in urban surroundings. It depicts the densification of the existing urban areas and the availability of public transports means and everyday urban facilities and services in the immediate surroundings (Teller, 2021). This will lead to a relative mixed land use that can help to promote walkability (Meijer, 2020). This scenario expresses also a local concern for natural environment and agricultural lands.

(CUS) Constrained Urban Sprawl. This scenario is designed for households with preferences for individual housing in peri-urban and rural areas. However, given that the existing typologies of individual housing are already dense in Algiers, we will settle for orienting the development of Dense Individual Housing (DIH) land use category on the edges of existing urban areas. It also considers preferences for recreation in natural landscapes. It provides relative proximity and access to urban areas and amenities to create opportunities to balance protection of the natural landscape and outdoor living aspirations.

194 2.4. Simulation of future residential developments

In this study, we used Lucsim CA Software (Antoni, 2017) to simulate the scenarios designed. It is a geographical Cellular Automata, its major functionality is based on P. Torrens's definition (Torrens, 2000). It is based on the assumption that the state of each cell is determined by its neighborhood, or in our case, by the LULC categories of surrounding cells within a given radius:

199 $\forall i \in E, V_{i,kl} = f(V_{ik}(t), \Omega_i(t))$

200 Where,

201 $\Omega_i = f(V_{k=1}^r, V_{k=2}^r, \dots, V_{k=N}^r) \text{ and } r \in \{0, \dots, \infty\}$

where *E* is a set of cells that can undergo a transition (nonlocked), V_i is the land use of the cell *i*, Ω_i is the neighborhood of the cell *i* within a radius *r* (at time *t*), and C_n^r is the number of cells with a land use *S* within a radius *r*, at time *t* (Antoni et al., 2018).

205 To guide CA during simulation, particular sets of transition rules were defined to achieve the goals of each 206 scenario. We based our two scenarios on the assumption that housing projects will only be developed on low 207 agricultural potential lands (LAPL) (Forsyth et al, 2021) in accordance with the Law 90 - 29 (Official Journal of 208 Algerian Republic, 1990) on urban planning and development. This law prohibits urban development on high 209 agricultural potential lands (HAPL) to protect the Mitidja plain. It also prohibits any construction within 100 210 metres of the coastline that does not require immediate proximity to water. The law 04 - 05 (Official Journal of 211 Algerian Republic, 2004), which requires the implementation of a safety perimeter for zones exposed to 212 technological risks (AI) was also taken into consideration. We assumed that no housing projects will be planned 213 on urban wastelands (UW), considering them as flexible spaces, opening various opportunities. They are 214 particularly interesting for urban green systems and provide real potential to promote biodiversity in the city 215 (Bonthoux et al, 2014; Brun et al, 2018; Draus et al. 2020).

- (UD) Locations of future housing projects corresponding to urban densification scenario are determined by thetransition rules translated as follows:
- 218 The proportion of DH and DIH must be over 30% in a radius of 200 meters.
- 219 There must be at least 3 PSUF cells and 2 TRN cells in a radius of 1 km.
- 220 There must be no AI cells in a radius of 1 km.
- 221 There must be at least 1 AI cell in a radius of 2 km.
- 222 There must be no HAPL, FOR and WHI cells in a radius of 1 km.
- 223 There must be no SEA cells in a radius of 100 meters.
- 224 (CUS) Locations of future housing projects corresponding to constrained urban sprawl scenario are determined
- by the transition rules translated as follows:
- 226 —The proportion of DIH must be over 30% in a radius of 200 meters.
- 227 —The proportion of DH must be over 30% in a radius of 500 meters.

- 228 There must be at least 1 TRN cell and 1 PSUF cell in a radius of 1 km.
- 229 There must be no AI cells in a radius of 1 km.
- 230 There must be no FOR, WHI and HAPL cells in a radius of 500 meters.
- **231** There must be at least 1 AI cell in a radius of 2 km.
- There must be at least 1 FOR cell, 1 WHI cell and 1 HAP cell in a radius of 1 km.
- **233** There must be no SEA cells in a radius of 100 meters.

234 2.5. Landscape metrics and statistical analysis

Landscape metrics are mathematical indices developed to quantify various patterns of landscape from a
categorical map of a defined geographic area, depending on the spatial scale of interest: (i) landscape level, (ii)
class level, (iii) patch level. They are grouped into different structural categories (Area and edge metrics, Shape
metrics, Aggregation metrics, etc.). However, most metrics can belong to more than one category (Uuemaa et al.,
2009; McGarigal, 2012).

240 Our objective is to assess the spatial processes of residential developments in order to quantify the impact of 241 each simulated residential scenario on the spatial patterns of the region of Algiers. This quantification allows to 242 determine the role of the spatial distribution behaviour of housing projects in the configuration and composition 243 of the spatial structure for each scenario. To achieve this goal, Landscape metrics were calculated at the class level so that each LULC category is represented by its corresponding value of each spatial metric computed, as 244 245 they are calculated from all patches of each category (Aguilira, 2011; McGarigal, 2012; Sertel et al, 2018). It is 246 critical to select appropriate landscape metrics when analysing landscape patterns since many of them are 247 redundant and provide similar information because they rely on the same basic measures (area, edges, adjacency, 248 distance, etc.). There are some methods used to help identify a relevant set of landscape metrics, including 249 statistical methods and expert knowledge (Griffith et al., 2000; Plexida et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2019). In this 250 study we used principal component analysis (PCA) and Spearman's rank correlation (SRC).

A total of 26 class level landscape metrics were initially selected and computed using Fragstat software
(McGarigal et al., 2012): SHAPE_MN, FRAC_MN, PARA_MN, CIRCLE_MN, CONTIG_MN, PAFRAC,
GYRATE_MN, PLAND, LPI, TE, ED, GYRATE_MN, ENN_MN, PROX_MN, CONNECT, NP, PD, LSI,
CLUMPY, PLADJ, IJI, COHESION, DIVISION, SPLIT, AI, NLSI. At first, we performed a PCA to help

255 identify a smaller set of landscape metrics. The results identify 4 components that explain 76% of the variance of 256 the whole dataset. The first and second components include area-edge, shape and aggregation metrics, the third 257 component includes shape and aggregation metrics and the fourth component includes shape metrics only. 258 Metrics that were not strongly correlated with the first 4 components were excluded from the analysis: 259 GYRATE_MN, NP, PD, CLUMPY, IJI and NLSI. SRC was then conducted to create a correlation coefficient 260 matrix of the landscape metrics selected after PCA. Landscape metrics with correlations greater than 0.80 were 261 considered to be redundant. However, it was decided to include at least one core metric for each structural group. 262 IJI was added back into the list because it is critical to quantify the intermixing of classes. In this way, a final set 263 of 6 class-level landscape metrics was defined (Table 2.) out of 26.

Metric	Range	Unit	Description
Mean Shape Index (SHAPE_MN)	SHAPE_MN >= 1	None	Each class is summarised as the mean of each patch belonging to class <i>i</i> . SHAPE describes the ratio between the actual perimeter of the patch and the hypothetical minimum perimeter of the patch. The minimum perimeter equals the perimeter if the patch would be maximally compact.
Edge Density (ED)	ED >= 0	Meters/ hectare	This metric describes the configuration of the landscape, e.g., because an aggregation of the same class will result in a low edge density. The metric is standardized to the total landscape area, and therefore comparisons among landscapes with different total areas are possible.
Largest Patch Index (LPI)	0 < LPI <= 100	Percent	This metric is the percentage of the landscape covered by the corresponding largest patch of each class <i>i</i> . It is a simple measure of dominance.
Aggregation Index (AI)	0 <= AI <= 100	Percent	This metric equals the number of like adjacencies divided by the theoretical maximum possible number of like adjacencies for that class summed over each class for the entire landscape. The metric is based on the adjacency matrix and the single-count method.
Mean- Proximity Index (PROX_MN)	$PROX_MN \ge 0$	None	This metric characterizes the degree of spatial isolation of patches, high proximity values indicate that neighbouring patches, of the same type of class <i>i</i> , are less isolated and aggregated, low values are indicative of fragmentation.
Interspersion and Juxtaposition Index (IJI)	0 < IJI <= 100	Percent	This metric describes the intermixing of classes (i.e., without considering like adjacencies - the diagonal of the adjacency table). The number of classes to calculate IJI must be >= than 3.

264

265	Table 2. Description of the selected	class level landscape metrics for	the study adapted from McGa	ırigal, et

266

al. (2012) and Hesselbarth et al. (2021).

267 In order to assess the implications of the simulated residential developments on the real landscape, we calculated 268 the standard deviation between landscape metrics values for each LULC category from the real landscape with 269 each of the produced scenarios. This allows to measure the dispersion of values around their mean, the lower the 270 standard deviation, the more homogeneous the values. Then, a linear regression was performed for each class 271 metric. Adjusted r^2 values allow to determine the relationship among each class level landscape metric for each 272 scenario and the real landscape in order to verify the accuracy of the spatial patterns recreated by the scenarios, 273 and thus, determine how the strategies on spatial decision-behaviour are associated with potential changes in 274 landscape patterns of the study area.

275 **3. Results and discussion**

276 3.1. Scenarios

277 Urban Densification Scenario (UD)

The simulation identified 808 new Dense Housing (DH) cells (202 Ha) that fit the rules required by the UD
scenario in 9 iterations spread over 8 municipalities (Fig.2). It corresponds to 4.17% of the total Low
Agricultural Potential Lands (LAPL). The restricted number of cells identified within a high number of iterations
indicates that Algiers is already very dense. The results indicate also that the existing facilities and public
transport will not be subject to any extra pressure given the very limited number of cells that will be able to
accommodate housing projects. These results also show that urban densification is unlikely to meet housing
needs on its own, and thus the need for urban expansion cannot be excluded.

285 Constrained Urban Sprawl Scenario (CUS)

286 The simulation identified 9645 new Dense Individual Housing (DIH) cells (2411,25 Ha) that fit the rules 287 required by the CUS scenario in 16 iterations. The process is slower and involves more iterations than the UD 288 scenario because the rules for this configuration meet many more constraints in order to counter the negative 289 effects of conventional urban sprawl. The identified cells are spread over municipalities located mainly in the 290 West of Algiers (Fig.3) because of their low agricultural potential lands. It corresponds to 49.87% of the total 291 LAPL. As an alternative to dispersed sprawl, it presents tradeoffs among residential aspirations for rural 292 amenities and objectives related to sustainable land management as the identified cells are close to the existing 293 urban areas. This may help reduce car dependency while being surrounded by natural elements.

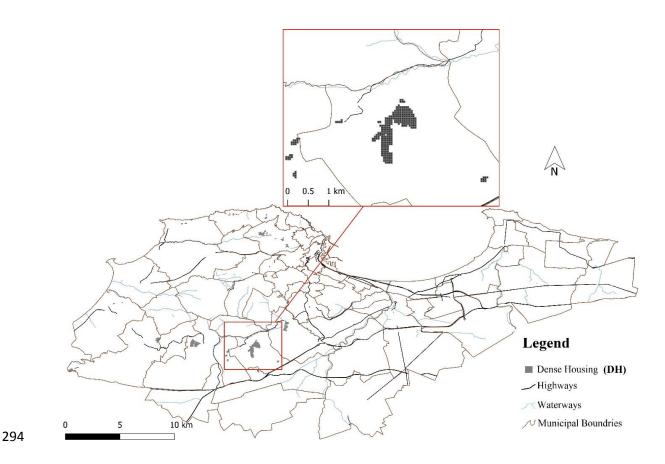
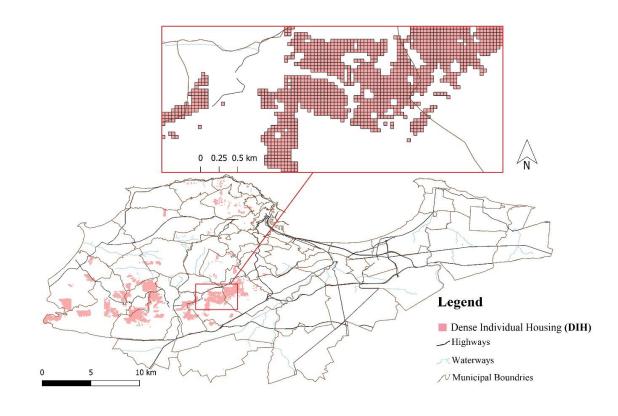




Fig 2. UD Scenario. Location of new Dense Housing (DH) cells according to UD simulation.



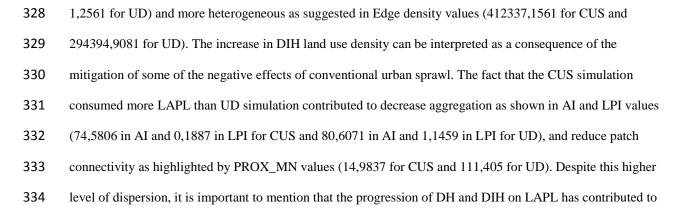


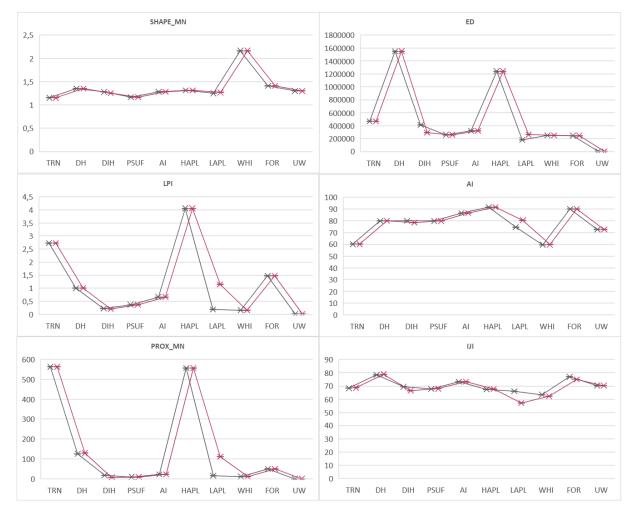
297 Fig 3. CUS Scenario. Location of new Dense Individual Housing (DIH) cells according to CUS simulation.

298 Each scenario generates different impacts. The results obtained within the UD simulation revel the limited 299 capacity of Algiers to meet the housing shortage in the long term. This is due to the low land supply close to 300 facilities and infrastructures coupled with the scarcity of LAPL compared to HAPL in dense areas. Thus, CUS 301 scenario appears to be a relevant alternative to meet housing needs in a sustainable manner. As it allows the 302 identification of suitable locations for residential developments, improving both accessibility to public transport 303 and urban facilities, while avoiding the fragmentation of natural and agricultural areas. Moreover, current 304 Algerian housing policies do not include the different social demands. Therefore, the proposed model enables to 305 overcome this deficiency, as it meets the specific preferences of each category of population. This opens up 306 realistic prospects to shift towards sustainable and inclusive housing policies in Algiers.

307 3.2.Landscape patterns analysis

308 Figure.4 shows the results for the calculated class-level landscape metrics for each scenario. Classes that present 309 significant variations in metric values are: Dense Housing (DH), Dense Individual Housing (DIH) and Low 310 Agricultural Potential Lands (LAPL). The other classes remain stable for both scenarios, except for IJI where all 311 classes show variations in values. DH land use shows more aggregative patterns in UD scenario than in CUS 312 scenario due to the increase in number of patches resulted from UD simulation (+202 Ha). However, the 313 difference remains very slight (79.97 in AI for UD and 79.84 in CUS). This result is confirmed with LPI values 314 (1.0054 for UD and 0.9987 for CUS) as new DH patches cluster together with the existing patches in their 315 neighborhood to form patches of bigger size. It is accompanied with higher value in PROX_MN for UD 316 compared to CUS (128.78 and 125.44 respectively) which is reflected in a more contiguous distribution of DH 317 patches. So far, these results indicate that the growth is driven by an aggregative process. In contrast, higher 318 values in ED and SHAPE_MN (1552475,086 for UD, 1551128,39 for CUS, and 1,3512 for UD and 1,3501 for 319 CUS respectively) for UD are indicative of a growth in dispersion, as the class is more patchy with more 320 complex patch shapes. This can be interpreted as the appearance of new, more elongated DH patches in addition 321 to the contiguous ones as the simulation was not only concerned with spatial densification, but mainly with the 322 identification of the best locations that correspond to the preferences related to dense surroundings with the best 323 living conditions. DIH land use presents the same patterns in CUS scenario as for DH land use in UD scenario, 324 due also to the appearance of new patches resulted from CUS simulation (+2411,25 Ha). Its growth is reflected 325 in more aggregated patches with less isolation (79,9571 in AI, 0,218 in LPI and 17,0735 in PROX_MN for CUS 326 and 78,4254 in AI, 0,2055 in LPI and 6,761 in PROX_MN for UD). Some of these patches come with irregular 327 shapes which make them less compact as reflected in the higher value of mean shape index (1,2801 for CUS and





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Fig 4. Results of the calculated Landscape metrics at the class level for each scenario.

CUS Scenario

339 smooth the edges of the remain patches, leading to more rounded shapes as evidenced by lower values in

UD Scenario

340 SHAPE_MN (1,2505 for CUS and 1,2703 for UD) and in edge density (180988,9004 for CUS and 262782,9834

for UD). IJI metric gives information about the degree of mixing present between LULC categories. IJI value for

342 DH land use is higher in UD scenario than in CUS scenario (78.92 and 78.44 respectively) and for DIH land use 343 in CUS scenario than in UD scenario (69.33 and 66.49 respectively). This suggests that these classes are better distributed and highly intermingled with the other LULC categories after simulations. The higher IJI values for 344 345 TRN and PSUF in UD scenario (68.65 and 68 respectively) suggest that they were important components in the 346 simulation as they are more evenly distributed than in CUS scenario (68.29 and 67.76 respectively). This result 347 indicates an urban densification towards homogeneity as defined by the transition rules in the calibration phase. 348 Similar effects are observed with CUS scenario, as suggested by the higher IJI values for the natural classes 349 (66.02 for LAPL, 63.41 for WHI and 76.95 for FOR), indicating that they are more adjacent and connected to all 350 other classes compared to UD scenario (57.06 for LAPL, 62.30 for WHI and 75.60 for FOR) since the CUS 351 simulation favours preferences for peri-urban and rural areas. Overall, the use of class-level landscape metrics helped identifying pattern changes in the simulated scenarios. The results demonstrate a combination of 352 353 aggregated and leapfrogging patterns growth for both scenarios. This indicates that the proposed model favours 354 efficient land use for residential developments given the simultaneous increase in aggregation and dispersion 355 metrics values of residential land uses. It also optimises the preservation of natural and agricultural areas given 356 their stable landscape metrics values. As they are so far undergoing continuous fragmentation due to the massive 357 construction of housing projects to meet the growing needs.

358 This underlines the effectiveness of landscape metrics in assessing spatial and environmental consequences of359 spatial-decision behaviour in the planification of affordable housing projects.

360 3.3. CA performance

361 Standard deviation and regression analysis allow assessing the accuracy of CA simulation and the evaluation of 362 pattern changes in the simulated scenarios. As can be seen in Table.3 and .4, the variability between the 363 scenarios and the real landscape is low given the low standard deviation values for most all class level landscape 364 metrics (>7.29) except for LAPL land use in CUS scenario with the PROX_MN as CUS simulation consumed 365 49.87% of the total LAPL. This led to an increase in dispersion which is reflected in the elevated standard 366 deviation value (75,02). As for ED metric, the elevated standard deviation for DH and LAPL land uses in UD 367 scenario and for DIH and LAPL land uses in CUS scenario can be explained as ED increases without limit 368 (Table 2.), and thus the values are not significant.

As can be seen from the high values of adjusted r^2 , the real landscape has not been much affected by the two simulations. In UD scenario, we found that the patterns were stable (adjusted $r^2 \ge 0.99$ for all the metrics). In

371 contrast there are slight pronounced changes in CUS (adjusted $r^2 \ge 0.93$) for all the metrics except for IJI with an 372 adjusted r^2 value of 0.79. In this study IJI is the metric measuring intermixing of land use categories and this low 373 adjusted r^2 value indicates that there are differences in the adjacency of land use categories due to the spatial 374 redistribution of the patches in the landscape after simulation. Overall, the low sensibility of the real landscape 375 patterns to the simulations indicates the good performance of CA in predicting future residential developments, 376 including satisfactory results regarding the objectives associated with the sustainable land use management of 377 Algiers.

378 Table 3.

Standard deviation between landscape metrics values from real landscape and												
UD scenario												
Landscape Metrics	TRN	DH	DIH	PSUF	AI	HAPL	LAPL	WHI	FOR	UW	Adjusted r ²	P value
SHAPE_MN	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1	< 0,001
ED	0.00	1102,61	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4535,75	0.00	0.00	0.00	1	< 0,001
LPI	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,99	< 0,001
AI	0.00	0,09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,23	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,99	< 0,001
PROX_MN	0.00	2,46	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	6,84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,99	< 0,001
IJI	0,06	0,04	0,13	0,12	0.00	0,06	0,52	0,18	0,05	0.00	0,99	< 0,001

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380 Table 4.

	Standard deviation between landscape metrics values from real landscape and											
	CUS scenario											
Landscape											Adjusted	
Metrics	TRN	DH	DIH	PSUF	AI	HAPL	LAPL	WHI	FOR	UW	r^2	P value
SHAPE_MN	0.00	0.00	0,01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,99	< 0,001
ED	0.00	150,35	83397,76	0.00	0.00	0.00	62372,9	25,05	0.00	0.00	0,98	< 0,001
LPI	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,71	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,93	< 0,001
AI	0.00	0.00	1,08	0.00	0.00	0.00	4,49	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,95	< 0,001
PROX_MN	0.00	0,09	7,29	0.00	0.00	0.00	75,02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,97	< 0,001
IJI	0,31	0,29	1,87	0,29	0.00	0,25	5,80	0,59	1,27	0.00	0,79	< 0,001

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382Table 3. and 4. Standard deviation and Regression analysis between landscape metrics values from real383landscape and UD and CUS scenarios. All calculated Adjusted r^2 are significant (P < 0,001), and all values</td>

of their Prob (F) = < 0.001.

385 4. Conclusion

386 The present work proposes a methodology for decision-making to address the lack of sustainability frameworks 387 to guide the planification of affordable housing programmes in Algiers. The proposed CA-based model has 388 proven its effectiveness in identifying suitable locations of future housing programs by focusing on the spatial 389 decision-behaviour process. The model shows how this process can be affected by measures related to residential 390 preferences (Dense Urban landscapes or Rural and Natural landscapes), human well-being (proximity to 391 transportation, everyday facilities and services and green spaces) and sustainable spatial development 392 (preservation of natural and agricultural areas). We simulated two scenarios, each corresponding to particular 393 residential preferences. They have both demonstrated aggregative and dispersed growth patterns simultaneously 394 meeting tradeoffs among the advantages and the challenges of urban densification and urban sprawl. Thus, 395 effectively promoting sustainable residential developments, since accessibility to everyday amenities is 396 enhanced, and natural areas remain contiguous, as evidenced by the results. 397 However, the limited number of cells identified by both simulations highlights the fact that Algiers is unlikely to 398 meet housing needs in a sustainable manner in a long-term perspective. In contrast, the construction of new 399 infrastructures (transportation and public amenities) as a part of the improvement of the living environment of 400 citizens in the surrounding areas, may provide new land opportunities for new housing projects. 401 Overall, the model is an effective tool to support the transition towards sustainable housing policies in Algiers. It 402 is flexible, and can be modified according to the available LULC categories. It can also be adjusted according to 403 local social and environmental demands. Furthermore, the model can be improved by embedding an agent-based 404 model and households individual housing choices input data. This will allow local authorities to regulate

405 residential dynamics in order to control the forms of land use changes and promote quality of life.

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