



Dynamic occupant density models of commercial buildings for urban energy simulation

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ABSTRACT

The number of occupants and its changing pattern over time are key information for building and urban energy simulation. However, the commonly used assumption and simplification of a fixed occupancy schedule does not reflect the complicated reality, leading to significant errors in energy simulation. Therefore, dynamic occupant density models which describe the real-world situation more accurately should be developed. This paper presents a methodology to develop such a model for commercial buildings and expand it from the building level to urban level. First, a total of 2275 commercial buildings in Nanjing, a major city in China, are identified and classified into three sub-categories using Points of Interest and logistic regression. Then field measurement is conducted to obtain the hourly occupant density for 12 sample commercial buildings. The building-level dynamic occupant density model is developed by fitting normal distribution functions into the measured data. Finally, transportation accessibility and population level, two urban parameters, are defined and used to expand the building-level occupant density model to the urban-level one. The dynamic urban-level occupant density model is verified for all three sub-categories of commercial buildings and the overall results are acceptable.

1. Introduction

Facing the current global energy shortage and environmental deterioration, countries around the world have developed long-term targets for energy conservation and greenhouse gas (GHG) emission reduction. The United States of America (USA) has set targets of reducing GHG emission by 17% by 2020 and 26–28% by 2025, compared with the 2005 emission level [1]. The European Union (EU) has set the goal of reducing GHG emission by 40% by 2030 from the 1990 level [2]. China also sets the target of reducing carbon dioxide emission per unit of GDP by 40–45% by 2020, compared with 2005 emission level [3]. Since urban energy consumption accounts for a significant portion of the total energy consumption, planning, designing, building and managing energy-efficient and low-carbon cities becomes crucial to achieving these goals.

To make energy-efficient and low-carbon cities a reality, Urban Building Energy Models (UBEMs) have been developed to calculate building energy demands at urban scale [4]. UBEMs are bottom-up, physical simulation models of heat and mass flows in and around groups of buildings to predict energy consumption as well as indoor and outdoor environmental conditions [5]. Similar to Building Energy

Models (BEMs), the generation of an UBEM requires numerous data inputs, including geometric data and non-geometric data [6]. The accuracy of the UBEM depends on the completeness and accuracy of the data inputs [7]. Thus, inaccurate data inputs could lead to unreliable UBEMs, which may have a negative impact on planning, designing, building and managing energy-efficient and low-carbon cities.

Occupant density, as one of the most fundamental data inputs for BEMs and UBEMs, has a great impact on building energy consumption and thus is one of the basic information required by energy simulation programs such as EnergyPlus and DeST [8]. D'Oca [9] and Monteiro [10] argued that a deep understanding of the relationship between occupant density and building energy consumption is one of the most effective ways to bridge the gap between predicted and actual energy consumption of buildings. Menezes [11] and Kwok [12] reported that the energy performance can be correctly predicted by using credible dynamic occupant information. Reliable occupant information is important for energy simulation because of many reasons [13], including the generation of heat gains within the building [14], the interaction with HVAC systems, lighting and hot water supplies [15–17], and the adjustment of windows [18–20].

Occupant density in almost all buildings is dynamic and continuous

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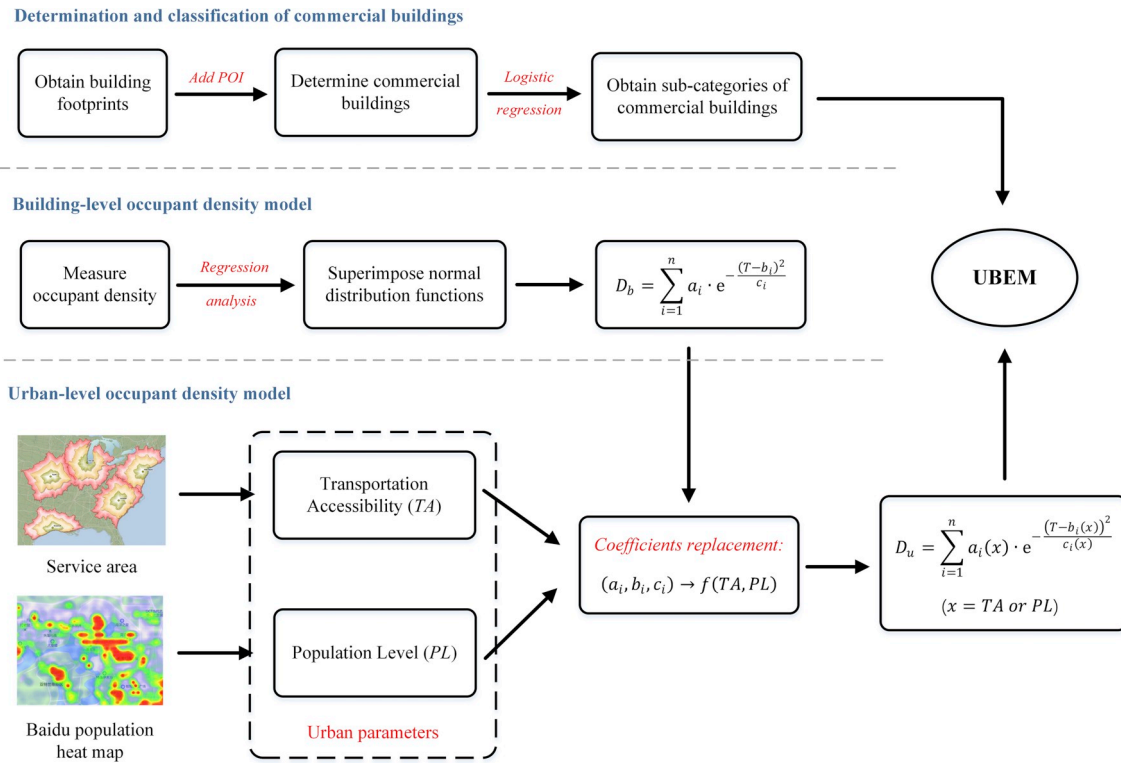


Fig. 1. Flowchart of the research.



Fig. 2. The geographic location of Nanjing.

[21], i.e., it is not a constant number and changes with time. However, occupant density is usually assumed to follow a fixed schedule which describes when the building space is occupied and how many occupants are in the space [22]. A fixed occupant schedule is simple and easy to be incorporated into building energy simulation. However, it could differ up to 40% from the actual occupancy situation [23] and lead to significant simulation errors [24,25]. Thus, a dynamic occupant density model which can better reflect the changing state of building occupants

is needed. Some research works have attempted to address this issue by investigating the number of occupants [26,27] and occupant presence [28,29] in buildings. Although they shed some light on the dynamic nature of occupant density in buildings, the problem of determining occupant information for UBEMs still remains because it requires the occupant information of hundreds of or even thousands of buildings with different occupancy characteristics. Thus, an innovative approach which can be applied to numerous urban buildings is needed.

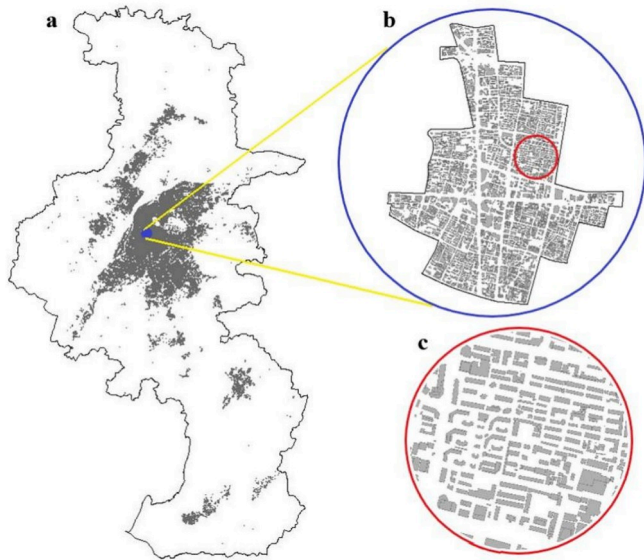


Fig. 3. Building footprints of Nanjing (a: administrative area of Nanjing; b: central business district of Nanjing; c: a representative neighborhood of Nanjing).

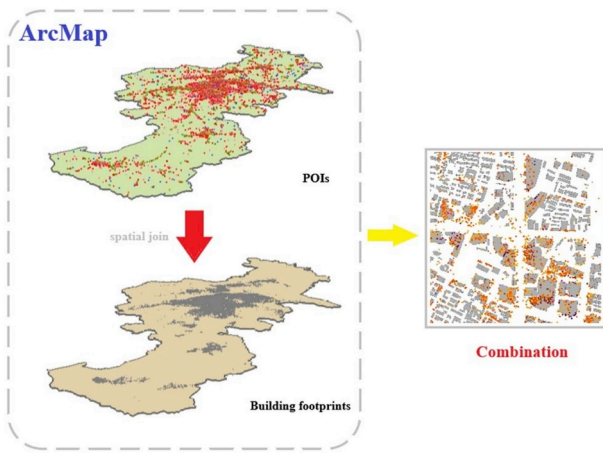


Fig. 4. The combination of POIs and building footprints.

Table 1
The number of eight categories of commercial POIs for 6 representative buildings.

Building Name	LR	SR	SM	S	BM	EA	LF	SF
Deji Plaza	33	47	2	1	3	10	1	2
Wanda Plaza	110	103	2	2	10	14	3	7
Wal-Mart	1	10	0	1	1	1	0	1
Metro	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Home Mall	0	1	0	0	177	9	78	99
Gome	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0

POI: LR-Large Restaurant, SR-Small Restaurant, SM-Shopping Mall, S-Supermarket, BM-Building Material, EA-Electric Appliance, LF-Large Furniture, SF-Small Furniture.

Urban buildings can be categorized into multiple types, among which commercial buildings are an important one because of their high numbers, large area, and significant energy consumption. The definition of commercial buildings may not be exactly the same in different countries. In China, they are defined as a broad range of buildings such as shopping malls, supermarkets and specialty stores (the stores which

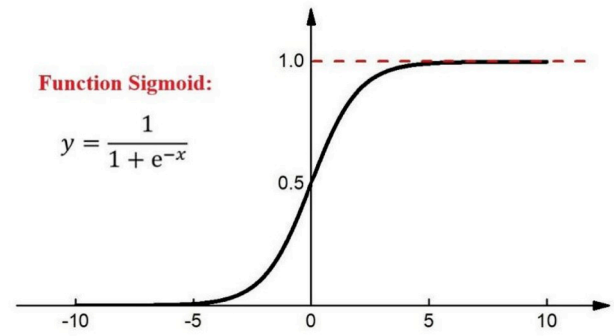


Fig. 5. The graph of Sigmoid.

are specialized in selling one category of commodities), according to Code for design of store buildings JGJ48-2014 [30]. While in the USA and EU, hotels and offices may be considered as commercial buildings [31, 32]. The occupancy pattern of commercial buildings is generally more complex than that of other types of buildings such as offices and residential buildings. To be more specific, the number of occupants in a commercial building tends to fluctuate significantly over time. In addition, the dynamic nature of this fluctuation is more difficult to predict. Such a clear pattern cannot be easily identified for most, if not all, commercial buildings due to their business nature. Therefore, the dynamic occupant density model of commercial buildings is worth investigating. The understanding and knowledge gained can benefit UBEMs, BEMs, and other relevant research subjects. The methodology developed can be applied to other types of buildings as well.

Despite the importance and complexity of commercial buildings, the research work on their occupancy information is inadequate. It is revealed that the superposition of normal distribution functions, also called Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM), can well fit the occupancy profile in office buildings [21,29]. However, nearly no research has discussed whether the GMM can be applied into commercial buildings. Only a few of studies discussed the maximum occupant density of commercial buildings in the field of building fire protection. These researches offer methods in establishing the relationships between maximum occupant density and some parameters. Feng [33] treated business style, business periods and city economic level as the key parameters to describe maximum occupant density in commercial buildings, using general linear regression model. To be extended, the coefficient in occupant density models for urban commercial buildings could also be linked with some parameters, especially urban parameters. It is widely accepted that population density and transportation are two main urban parameters [34–36]. Besides, the type of commercial buildings may also have great effects on occupant density models. However, the classification of thousands of commercial buildings at urban level is quite hard and time-consuming. One method in dealing with this issue is to use Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise (DBSCAN). Niu [37] used multi-source data, such as WeChat users' real-time location records, taxi GPS trajectories data and Points of Interest (POIs) data, and applies DBSCAN to infer the functions of urban buildings. It is undeniable that DBSCAN is an efficient attempt to determine the functions of buildings due to its simple structure and high computational efficiency. However, the data needed are complicated and hard to obtain, e.g. taxi GPS trajectories data is not free in China [38]. Thus, a method of classification based on open data source is more urgently needed, as it could be transplanted to other projects.

This paper presents an innovative method to develop dynamic occupant density models for commercial buildings in the context of UBEMs. It is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the basic information needed for the research; Section 3 describes the methodology for the determination and classification of urban commercial buildings, which is based on the POI and logistic regression; Section 4 explains the

Table 2
The weights of POIs in each classifier.

	θ_0	θ_1	θ_2	θ_3	θ_4	θ_5	θ_6	θ_7	θ_8
y_1	-2.9482	0.5637	-0.0509	2.3524	-1.3836	-0.3860	-0.1901	0.2182	0.3958
y_2	0.2684	-0.3846	0.1161	-1.9095	3.0519	-0.9217	-0.6649	0.2101	-0.1317
y_3	1.1464	-0.0957	-0.4202	-0.4690	-3.1597	-0.1398	0.3083	0.6483	0.2119

$y_1 \sim y_3$: The classifiers used to judge shopping malls, supermarkets and specialty stores respectively.

θ_0 : Constant term; $\theta_1 \sim \theta_8$: The weights of POIs which represent large restaurant, small restaurant, shopping mall, supermarket, building material, electric appliance, small furniture, and large furniture respectively.

Table 3
Predicted and actual sub-categories of 20 commercial buildings.

ID	y_1	y_2	y_3	Predicted	Actual
1	1.0000	0	0.5294	SM	SM
2	0.9998	0	0	SM	SM
3	1.0000	0	0	SM	SM
4	0.3758	0.0407	0.0001	SM	SM
5	0.9956	0.0032	0	SM	SM
6	0.9999	0	0	SM	SM
7	0.9981	0.0003	0.0001	SM	SM
8	1.0000	0	0	SM	SM
9	0.0350	0.6177	0.0158	S	S
10	0.0187	0.9064	0.1418	S	S
11	0.0204	0.9596	0.0498	S	S
12	0.0550	0.9328	0.0183	S	S
13	0.0321	0.9533	0.0201	S	S
14	0.0032	0	1.0000	SS	SS
15	0.0051	0	1.0000	SS	SS
16	0.0100	0	0.9984	SS	SS
17	0	0	1.0000	SS	SS
18	0.0361	0.2396	0.8969	SS	SS
19	0.1827	0.1924	0.6786	SS	SS
20	0.0675	0.3396	0.7188	SS	SS

SM: Shopping Mall, S: Supermarket, SS: Specialty Store.

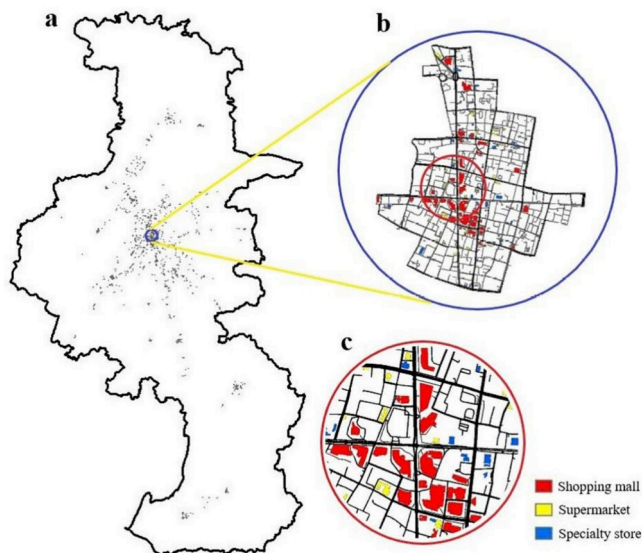


Fig. 6. Final classification of Nanjing commercial buildings (a: administrative area of Nanjing; b: central business district of Nanjing; c: a representative neighborhood of Nanjing).

development of the building-level dynamic occupant density model. The building-level model is obtained based on measured data and regression analysis, and can be described as the superposition of normal distribution functions; Section 5 presents the urban-level dynamic occupant density model which is expanded from the building-level model by establishing the relationship between the model coefficients and the key

urban parameters; Section 6 offers further discussions on the subject; and finally, Section 7 summarizes the main conclusions. Fig. 1 illustrates the structure of the paper.

2. Basic information

2.1. Case city

Nanjing is selected as the case city to demonstrate the methodology developed in this study. It is a major city in China with more than 8 million people, located in the Yangtze River Delta region. The administrative area of Nanjing is 6587 km² and the urban built-up area is 1399 km² in 2017 compared with 513 km² in 2005 [39], suggesting its rapid urbanization. The climatic condition of Nanjing is categorized as “hot summer and cold winter” in accordance with *Code for thermal design of civil building* GB 50176–2016 [40]. Fig. 2 illustrates the geographic location of Nanjing.

2.2. Building footprints

Geometric information of urban buildings is essential for UBEMs. Three-dimensional (3D) geometric urban models include the information of building footprints and building heights. Compared with the information of building heights, the information of building footprints is more critical to the determination and classification of commercial buildings. In addition, the quality of 3D urban models relies heavily on the quality of building footprints [41]. To obtain building footprints, various data sources can be used, such as the existing 2D GIS (Geographic Information System) datasets [42], the remote sensing imagery [43], the air photogrammetric surveys [44], and OpenStreetMap [45].

In China, Baidu is one of the most successful Internet companies. It announced in 2010 that the APIs (Application Programming Interface) of Baidu Map would be open to the public for free. It soon became one of the most commonly used open source map for research in China [46,47]. The building footprints of Nanjing, as shown in Fig. 3, were obtained by extracting data through Baidu Map APIs. Note that these building footprints are in PNG (Portable Network Graphics) format, and should be transformed into vector data so that they can be further processed.

2.3. Point of interest

In accordance with the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) [48], POIs (Points of Interest) are defined as those physical features, especially the facilities closely related to people’s lives, which can be abstracted as points and applied to electronic maps. A POI has its specific influence area and concerned groups. In addition, a POI usually contains some useful attributive information which can be used to classify urban buildings. The POIs of Nanjing were extracted from Baidu Map through the corresponding API. The keywords assigned are *shopping mall*, *supermarket*, *electrical appliance*, *building material*, *large furniture*, and *small furniture*, representing the most common business types in commercial buildings, namely shopping malls, supermarkets and specialty stores. In addition, since a large number of commercial buildings have rented spaces for dining, two more keywords, namely *large*

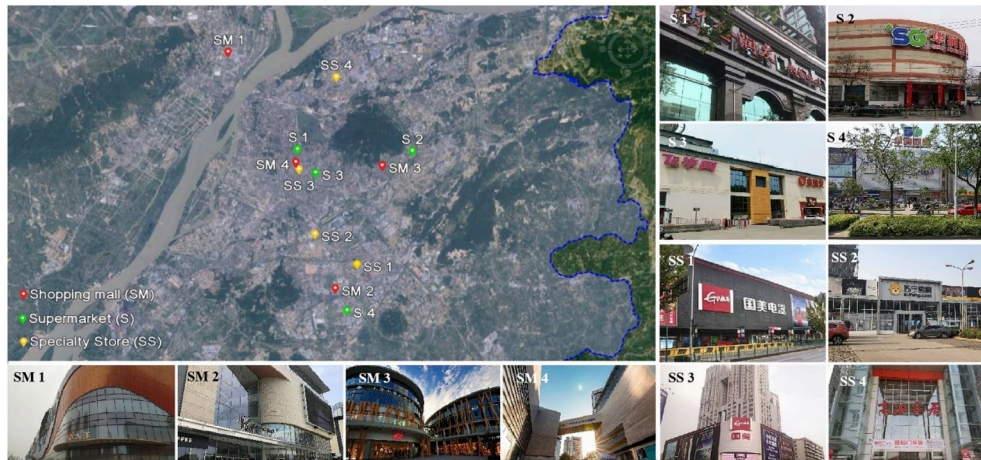


Fig. 7. The location and representative pictures of the 12 sample commercial buildings.

Table 4
The floor area and open hours of the 12 sample commercial buildings.

Notation	Floor area (m ²)	Open hours		Type
		(Workday)	(Weekend)	
SM1	48792	10:00–22:00	10:00–22:00	Shopping mall
SM2	94144	10:00–22:00	10:00–22:00	
SM3	39129	10:00–22:00	10:00–22:00	
SM4	181739	10:00–22:00	10:00–22:00	
S1	4428	08:00–22:00	08:00–22:00	Supermarket
S2	15166	08:00–22:00	08:00–22:00	
S3	11806	08:00–22:00	08:00–22:00	
S4	27408	08:00–22:00	08:00–22:00	
SS1	8212	10:00–21:00	10:00–21:00	Specialty store
SS2	7855	09:00–21:00	09:00–21:00	
SS3	19652	09:00–21:00	09:00–21:00	
SS4	111184	10:00–18:00	10:00–18:00	

restaurant and small restaurant, were added. At last, a total of 161,172 POIs have been obtained.

3. Determination and classification of urban commercial buildings

3.1. Determination of urban commercial buildings

3.1.1. Assignment of POIs to building footprints

The 161,172 POIs obtained need to be assigned to the building footprints to determine urban commercial buildings. The assignment is conducted in ArcMap, a GIS program, via the “Spatial Join” function. As demonstrated in Fig. 4, all POIs were combined with the whole building footprints of Nanjing in ArcMap, through the function of “spatial join”.

The number of each kind of POIs on the building footprints is recorded. The results of six buildings are shown in Table 1 as an example. In total, 5303 buildings contain at least one POI that falls into the six categories (shopping mall, supermarket, electrical appliance, building

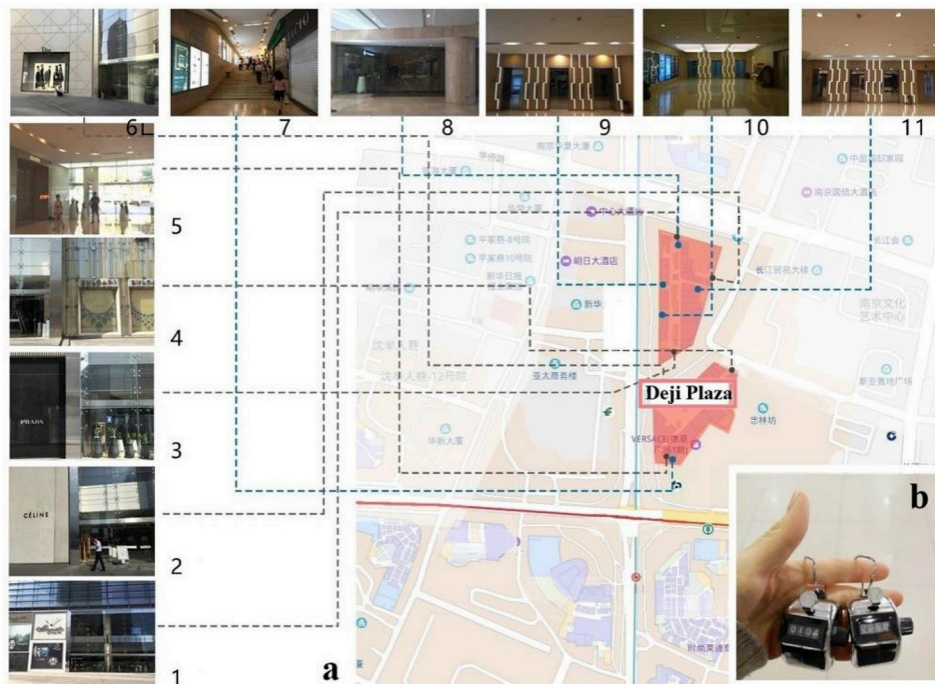


Fig. 8. The sample building: Deji Plaza (a: the 11 entrances of the building; b: the picture of hand-held counters).

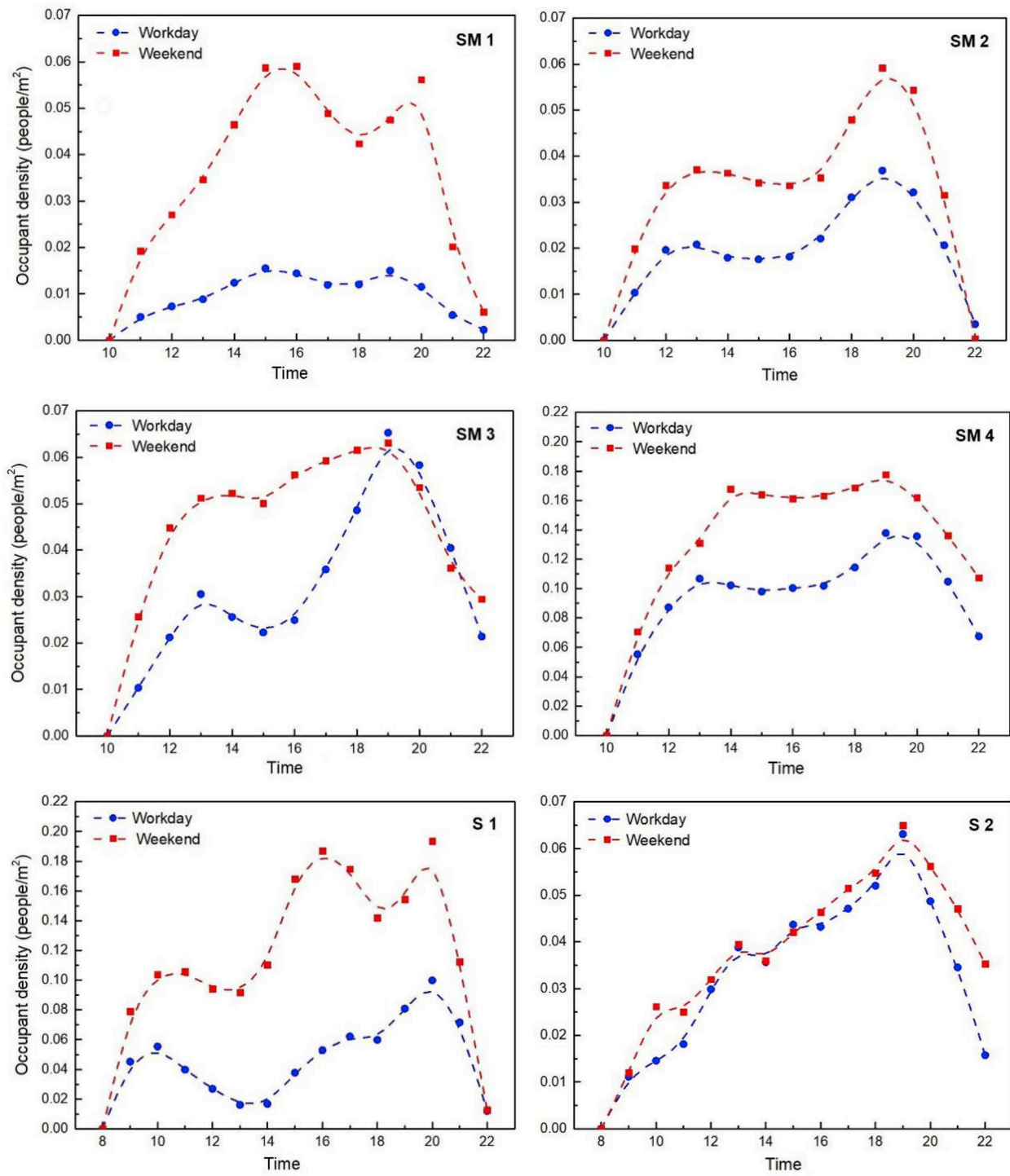


Fig. 9. Hourly occupant density of the 12 sample commercial buildings.

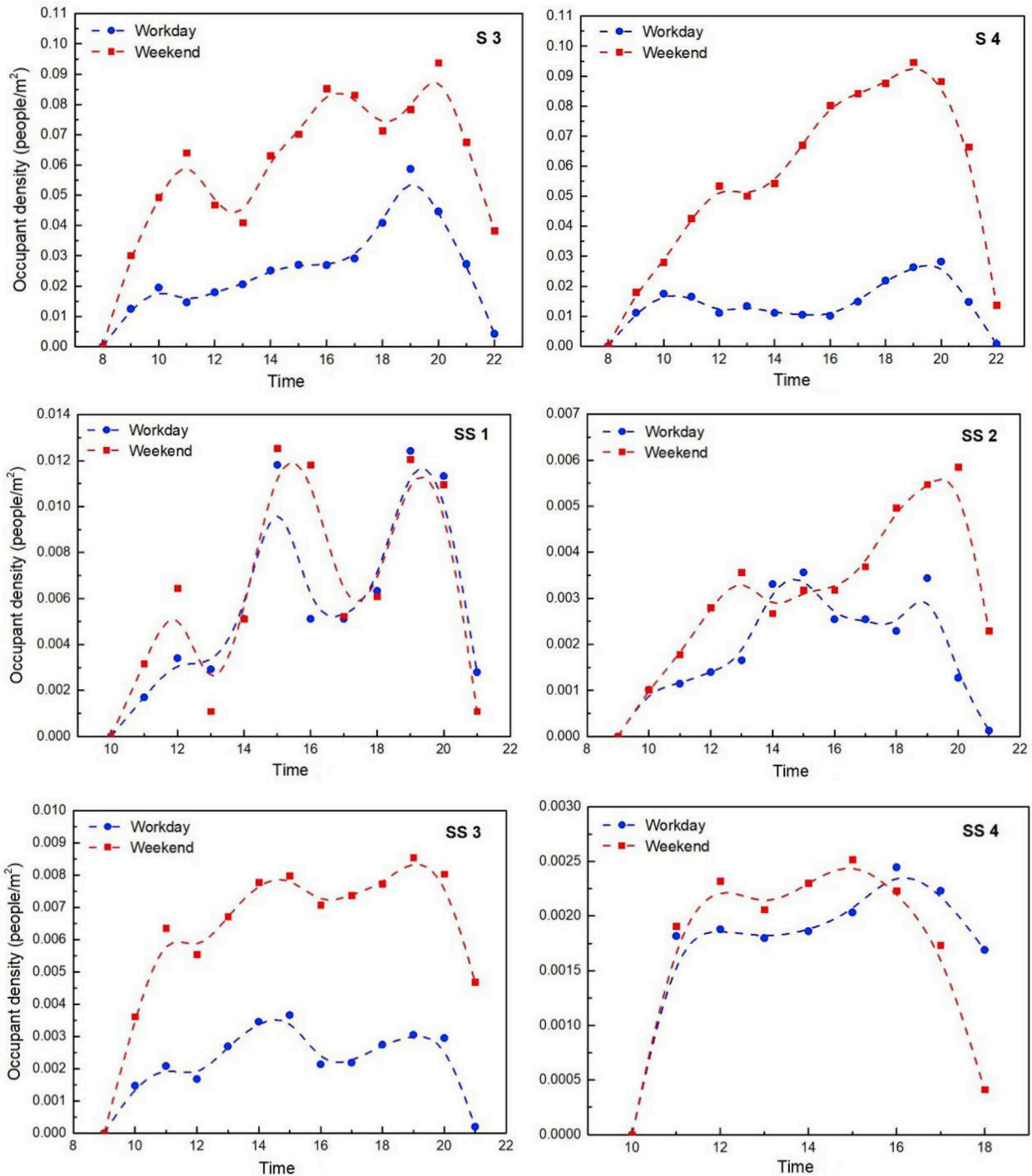


Fig. 9. (continued).

material, large furniture, and small furniture) and thus, are potential candidates for being determined to be commercial buildings.

3.1.2. Screening of urban commercial building candidates

Among the 5303 buildings considered to be potential candidates for commercial buildings, further screening was conducted according to two criteria. First, the footprint of the building needs to be larger than 500 m². Second, the building cannot be located within enclosed residential areas. The first criterion eliminates those small buildings such as convenient stores. The second criterion excludes those buildings with commercial POIs whose locations are within enclosed residential areas. The screening by the first criterion eliminated 1716 buildings and the

second criterion 1312 buildings. In the end, 2275 buildings passed screenings and were determined to be urban commercial buildings.

3.2. Classification of urban commercial buildings

After the determination of urban commercial buildings, the next step is to classify these buildings into three sub-categories, namely shopping malls, supermarkets, and specialty stores.

3.2.1. Classifier and the weights of POIs

The logistic regression, which is based on function Sigmoid, was used to conduct classification. The value in function Sigmoid is always

Table 5
The coefficients of the occupant density model.

Notation	a_1	b_1	c_1	a_2	b_2	c_2	a_3	b_3	c_3	R^2
SM1	0.0147	15.24	12.80	0.0105	19.50	2.51	/	/	/	0.966
SM1*	0.0581	15.63	15.19	0.0403	19.86	1.06	/	/	/	0.976
SM2	0.0215	13.00	5.63	0.0366	18.85	6.89	/	/	/	0.941
SM2*	0.0399	13.92	10.42	0.0591	19.24	4.05	/	/	/	0.933
SM3	0.0291	13.30	4.95	0.0632	19.20	7.46	/	/	/	0.959
SM3*	0.0429	13.00	5.05	0.0638	18.29	15.59	/	/	/	0.989
SM4	0.1039	13.33	6.66	0.1363	19.24	11.69	/	/	/	0.963
SM4*	0.1149	13.40	6.72	0.1733	18.84	20.46	/	/	/	0.995
S1	0.0564	10.14	2.99	0.0609	17.09	8.72	0.0815	20.19	1.85	0.964
S1*	0.1085	10.47	3.79	0.1880	16.17	9.66	0.1555	20.10	1.53	0.977
S2	0.0033	10.42	4.92	0.0406	14.59	15.94	0.0484	19.36	5.75	0.977
S2*	0.0173	10.89	5.16	0.0361	15.00	14.41	0.0522	19.81	10.18	0.972
S3	0.0144	9.76	1.11	0.0268	14.82	15.84	0.0490	19.35	3.29	0.985
S3*	0.0567	10.59	2.90	0.0839	16.09	11.12	0.0712	20.36	3.29	0.975
S4	0.0142	10.10	1.91	0.0121	13.91	14.37	0.0279	19.34	3.87	0.945
S4*	0.0457	11.72	6.17	0.0842	16.85	9.13	0.0646	20.07	2.67	0.986
SS1	0.0036	12.15	1.61	0.0114	15.03	1.29	0.0128	19.22	2.79	0.943
SS1*	0.0050	11.88	1.96	0.0137	15.47	1.97	0.0128	19.30	2.02	0.947
SS2	0.0010	10.45	0.88	0.0034	15.00	8.14	0.0029	18.98	1.11	0.957
SS2*	0.0026	12.22	3.71	0.0031	16.00	7.78	0.0054	19.45	3.24	0.962
SS3	0.0021	10.53	0.54	0.0036	14.36	6.78	0.0033	19.06	2.65	0.927
SS3*	0.0054	11.33	3.52	0.0077	14.83	5.21	0.0086	19.23	5.76	0.949
SS4	0.0018	11.38	6.16	0.0024	16.33	8.46	/	/	/	0.965
SS4*	0.0022	11.84	5.89	0.0023	15.63	4.17	/	/	/	0.957

Without *: Occupant density models on workday; With *: Occupant density models at weekend.

between 0 and 1, and the graph is shown in Fig. 5.

With the setting of threshold value k , a step function could be established:

$$T_{type} = \begin{cases} 1, & y \geq k \\ 0, & y < k \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Generally, k is set at 0.5 and the events can be categorized into two types: type 1 ($y \geq 0.5$, Type $\rightarrow 1$) and type 2 ($y < 0.5$, Type $\rightarrow 0$). However, if the determination of type 1 needs be stricter, k can be set at a larger value. A threshold value of 0.8 is chosen in this study.

To apply logistic regression into the classification of commercial buildings, those POIs, which are linked with building footprints, were used to establish the prediction function $h_\theta(x)$:

$$h_\theta(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}} \quad (2)$$

$$\theta^T x = \sum_{i=0}^8 \theta_i x_i = \theta_0 x_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_8 x_8 \quad (3)$$

where x_i is the number of each kind of POI ($x_0 = 1$), θ_i is the weight of POI x_i ($\theta_0 = \text{constant term}$).

If $h_\theta(x) \geq 0.8$, the target commercial building would be classified into type 1, otherwise, type 2. As three kinds of commercial buildings need to be classified, type 2 would be explained as the building that does not belong to type 1. For example, prediction function $h_\theta(x)$ is used to judge shopping malls. If $h_\theta(x) \geq 0.8$, the target building would be considered as the shopping mall. Otherwise, it does not belong to shopping malls. To be noted here, only when $h_\theta(x) \geq 0.8$, could the target building be judged as the named type. On this occasion, 3 types of prediction functions should be established in order to judge shopping malls, supermarkets and specialty stores respectively. We define each prediction function as a "classifier".

To obtain the weight of each kind of POIs, 80 training samples, including 26 shopping malls, 22 supermarkets and 32 specialty stores, were used to conduct machine learning. The results are summarized in Table 2.

3.2.2. Validation of the classification approach

Among 3 classifiers, the one with the largest value determines the

building type. The success rate of training samples is 79 out of 80 (98.75%). In order to further validate the proposed classification approach, 20 commercial buildings with their actual sub-categories known were selected as the predicting samples. Their calculated values and predicted sub-categories are summarized in Table 3. As shown in the table, the proposed classification approach successfully predicts all the samples. The success rate is 100%, which is considered adequate to be used to classify the 2275 commercial buildings identified previously.

3.2.3. Classification results

By applying the approach presented above, the classifiers of the 2275 commercial buildings were calculated in ArcMap. The results are 219 shopping malls, 341 supermarkets, and 1715 specialty stores. Their distribution in the city of Nanjing is shown in Fig. 6.

4. Building-level occupant density model

4.1. Sample commercial buildings

A total of 12 sample commercial buildings were selected, 4 in each sub-category. They are located in 6 different districts of Nanjing and thus geographically diversified (Fig. 7). Shopping malls usually open from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m. and supermarkets from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m., on both workdays and weekends. The open hours for specialty stores are not consistent. Table 4 summarizes the floor areas, the open hours on workdays and weekends for the 12 sample commercial buildings.

4.2. Occupant density measurement

In recent years, numerous sensing techniques have been proposed for occupancy detection, i.e., using Passive Infrared Detection (PIR) sensor, camera, CO₂ sensor and Wi-Fi [49]. However, nearly no studies discussed their application in commercial buildings, perhaps because of the difficulties in obtaining building occupancy data. In fact, given some commercial buildings are large and complex with many entrances, as well as their privacy, it is hard to use automated methods. Instead, the manual measurement is chosen in this paper.

The number of occupants in each of the 12 sample commercial buildings was measured by recording the number of people in and out of

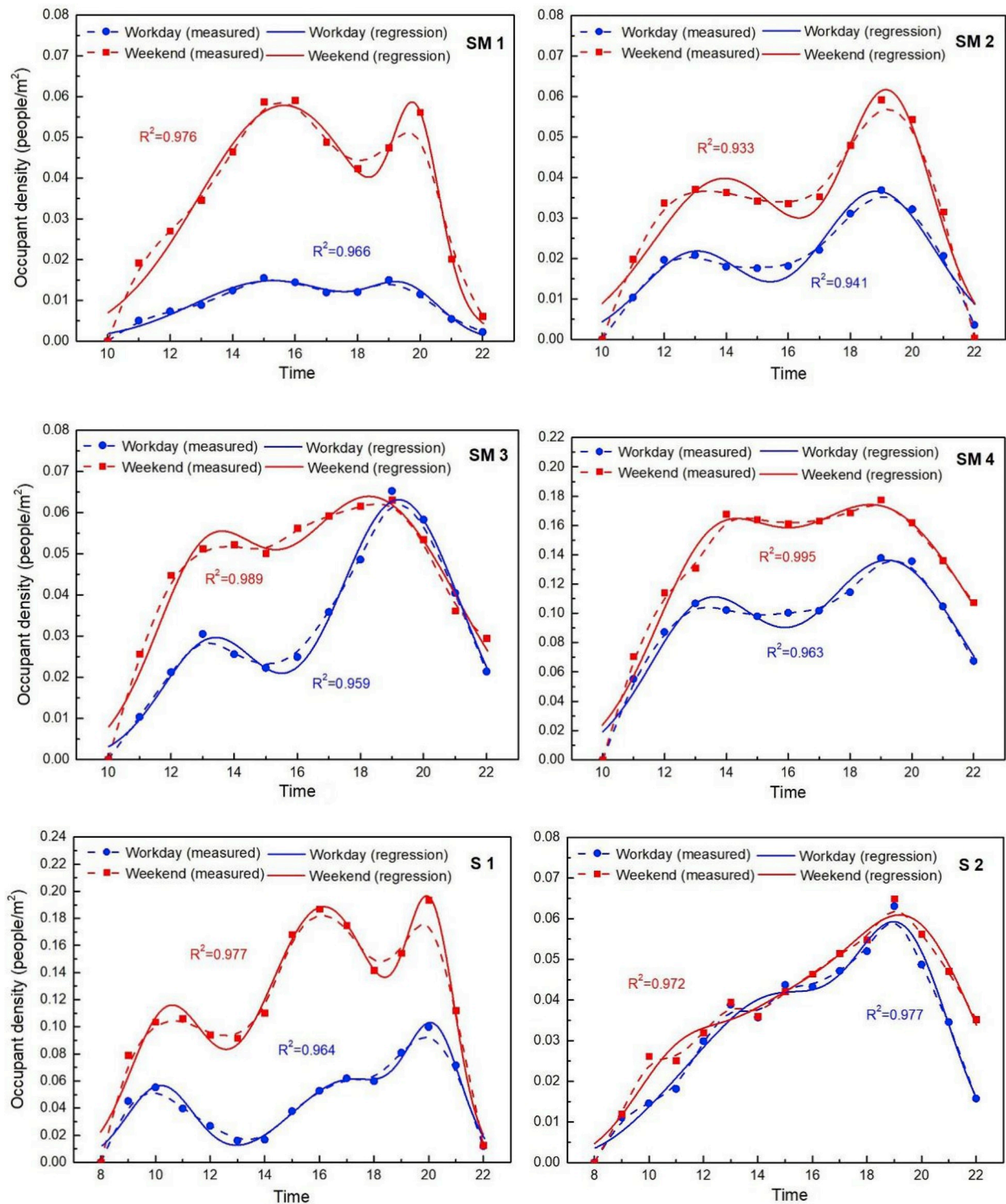


Fig. 10. The measured occupant density and their fitting models.

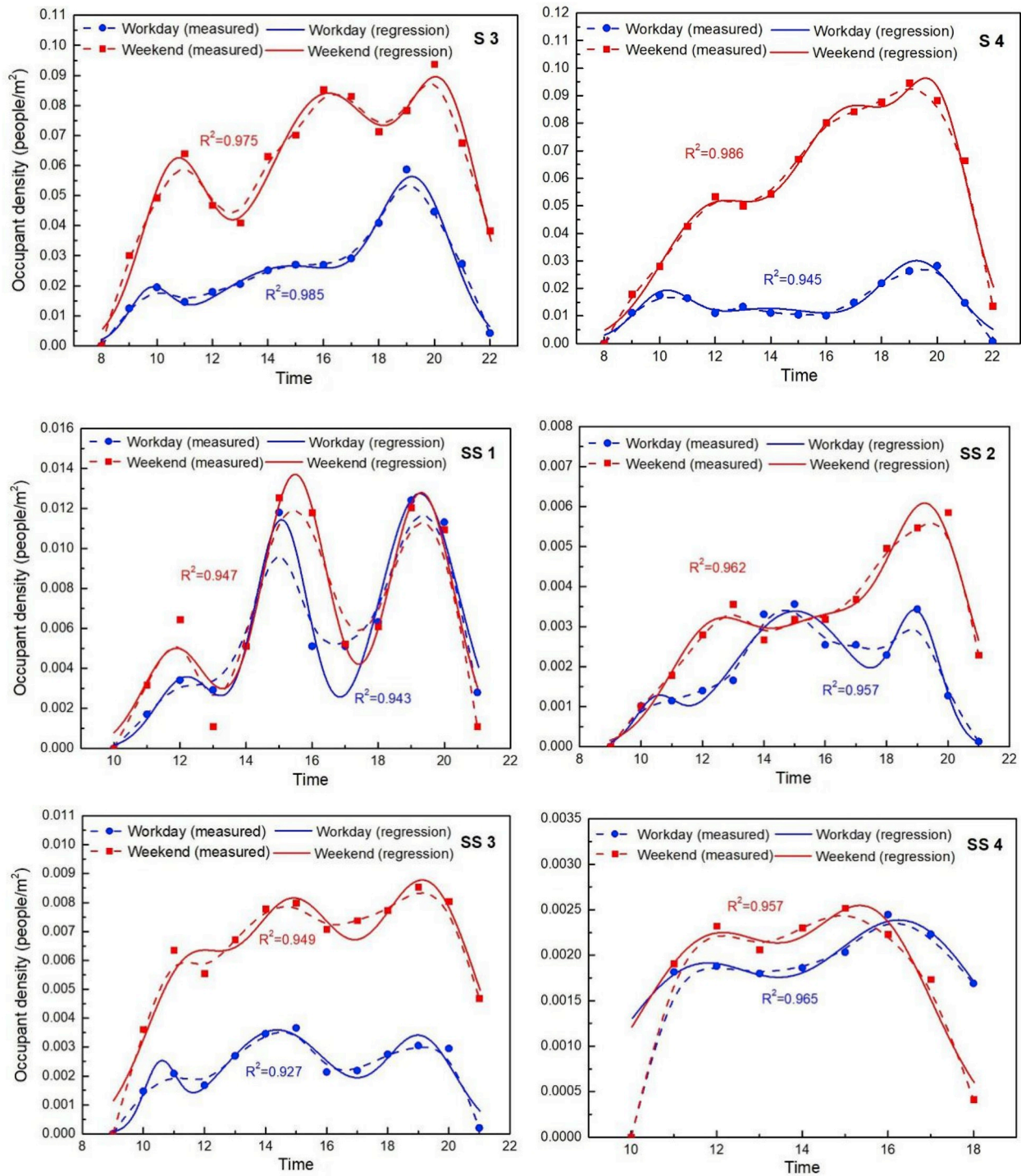


Fig. 10. (continued).

the building and calculated using Eq. (4).

$$c_i = c_{i-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k (m_{ij} - n_{ij}) \quad (4)$$

where c_i is the number of occupants at i o'clock; m_{ij} is the number of people entering the building between $i-1$ o'clock and i o'clock at the j -th entrance; n_{ij} is the number of people leaving the building between $i-1$ o'clock and i o'clock at the j -th entrance; k is the number of entrances of the building.

All of the 12 sample buildings have more than one entrance. One

person (if complicated, two people) was assigned to record the number of people entering and leaving the building in its entrances. Hand-held counters were used to facilitate the number recording. The measurement for each sample commercial building was conducted twice, one on a weekday and the other on a weekend. The occupant density was obtained by dividing the number of occupants by the total floor area. Fig. 8 illustrates one of the sample buildings, its 11 entrances, and the hand-held counters.

The measurement of the 12 sample commercial buildings was completed within 3 months. Their hourly occupant density patterns are illustrated in Fig. 9.

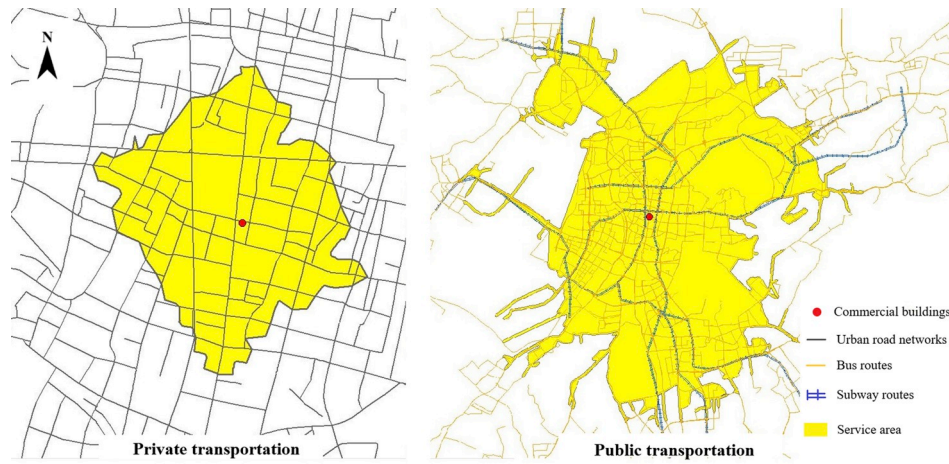


Fig. 11. The example of the 30-min service area.

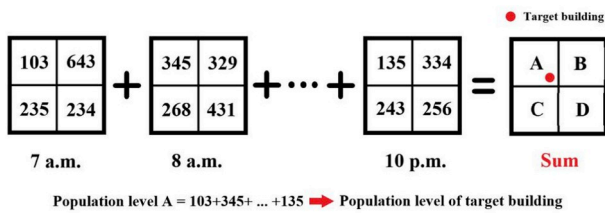


Fig. 12. The superposition of BHPMs.

Table 6
The urban parameters of the 12 sample commercial buildings.

Notation	Transportation accessibility (m ²)	Population level (Workday)	Population level (Weekend)	Type
SM1	659151120.76	826	861	Shopping mall
SM2	786484627.11	780	780	
SM3	309047866.15	855	923	
SM4	782976049.28	1699	1915	
S1	776146560.61	1675	1712	Supermarket
S2	317473092.70	780	780	
S3	769477432.54	1150	1058	
S4	746248429.67	809	853	
SS1	1088875428.14	790	798	Specialty store
SS2	624136111.51	870	891	
SS3	778201163.34	1352	1335	
SS4	649739151.71	789	780	

4.3. Occupant density model development

An examination of Fig. 9 indicates that the pattern of hourly occupant density for commercial buildings is multi-model and multi-peak. Therefore, it is plausible that the curves shown in Fig. 9 might be fitted by superimposing multiple normal distribution functions.

The occupant density model of shopping malls (SM 1–4 in Fig. 9) can be fitted by superimposing two normal distribution functions. And the occupant density model of supermarkets (S 1–4 in Fig. 9) is the superposition of 3 normal distribution functions. Their occupant density models can be established as Eq. (5) and Eq. (6) respectively.

$$D_b = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}} \quad (5)$$

$$D_b = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}} + a_3 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_3)^2}{c_3}} \quad (6)$$

where D_b is the building-level occupant density; T is the time; a_1, a_2, a_3 is

the first, second, third peak occupant density; b_1, b_2, b_3 is the time, in hours and counted from the opening time, required to reach the first, second, third peak occupant density; c_1, c_2, c_3 is a coefficient which represents the speed to reach peak occupant density; The smaller c_1, c_2, c_3 is, the larger the speed will be.

The occupant density model of specialty stores (SS 1–4 in Fig. 9) is more complicated. If the specialty store closes before 7 p.m., the model is the superposition of 2 normal distribution functions. Otherwise, the model is the superposition of 3 normal distribution functions. Therefore, the coefficient p is used, and the relationship between occupant density D_b and the time T is:

$$D_b = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}} + p \cdot a_3 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_3)^2}{c_3}} \quad (7)$$

$$p = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{store closes before 7 pm} \\ 1, & \text{store closes after 7 pm} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

The curve fitting process is conducted in SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) using restricted non-linear regression. The model coefficients in Eqs. (5)–(7) are summarized in Table 5. The coefficient of determination, R^2 , in each case, is larger than 0.9, suggesting generally good curve fit. The measured occupant density and the fitting model are illustrated in Fig. 10. It is evident that they match each other fairly well.

5. Urban-level occupant density model

In Section 4, the building-level occupant density models for the 12 sample commercial buildings were developed using measured occupancy data and regression analysis. This approach clearly cannot be expanded to all of the 2275 commercial buildings in the city of Nanjing because the time and effort required is simply too much to bear. This section presents an urban-level occupant density model, in which the coefficients defining the building-level occupant density models in Eqs. (5)–(7) are linked to the key urban parameters of the commercial buildings. These key urban parameters can be obtained using big data technology, enabling a fast calculation of all the coefficients for the 2275 commercial buildings.

5.1. Key urban parameters

The selection of key urban parameters needs to meet two criteria: (1) these parameters significantly affect the building-level occupant density model, (2) these parameters can be obtained for most, if not all, commercial buildings. Two urban parameters are selected, namely transportation accessibility TA and population level PL .

Table 7
The results of correlation analysis between coefficients and urban parameters.

Type	Coefficient	TA		PL		TA*		PL*	
		C	S	C	S	C	S	C	S
SM	a_1	0.343	0.328	0.992**	0.004	0.451	0.274	0.974**	0.013
	b_1	0.011	0.495	-0.235	0.382	0.340	0.330	-0.365	0.318
	c_1	0.227	0.773	-0.154	0.846	0.434	0.566	-0.433	0.567
	a_2	0.151	0.425	0.926**	0.037	0.368	0.316	0.982**	0.009
	b_2	-0.211	0.395	0.154	0.423	0.593	0.204	-0.278	0.361
S	c_2	0.165	0.835	0.805	0.195	-0.224	0.776	0.782	0.218
	a_1	-0.083	0.458	0.920**	0.040	0.726	0.137	0.970**	0.015
	b_1	-0.783	0.108	-0.287	0.357	-0.020	0.490	-0.626	0.187
	c_1	-0.874	0.126	-0.190	0.810	-0.351	0.649	-0.537	0.463
	a_2	-0.128	0.436	0.946**	0.027	0.673	0.164	0.967**	0.016
	b_2	0.293	0.354	0.750	0.215	0.870	0.065	0.218	0.391
	c_2	-0.461	0.539	-0.862	0.138	-0.922	0.078	-0.482	0.518
	a_3	0.150	0.425	0.902**	0.049	0.512	0.244	0.989**	0.005
	b_3	0.350	0.325	0.813	0.073	0.826	0.087	0.317	0.342
SS	c_3	-0.876	0.124	-0.886	0.114	-0.885	0.075	-0.630	0.370
	a_1	0.972**	0.014	-0.105	0.448	0.940**	0.013	0.596	0.202
	b_1	0.761	0.120	-0.599	0.201	-0.199	0.400	-0.708	0.108
	c_1	-0.294	0.706	-0.521	0.479	-0.798	0.202	-0.141	0.859
	a_2	0.961**	0.020	-0.305	0.347	0.983**	0.009	0.067	0.467
	b_2	-0.313	0.343	-0.712	0.144	-0.323	0.339	-0.800	0.100
	c_2	-0.891	0.059	0.185	0.815	-0.814	0.186	0.275	0.725
	a_3	0.955**	0.046	-0.585	0.301	0.993**	0.036	-0.238	0.423
	b_3	-0.714	0.133	-0.313	0.399	-0.520	0.326	-0.620	0.287
	c_3	0.800	0.410	0.315	0.796	-0.495	0.670	0.987	0.104

SM: Shopping Mall, S: Supermarket, SS: Specialty Store; Without *: Analysis on workday, With *: Analysis at weekend; C: Correlation, S: Significance; With **: The correlation is significant, as the significance is no more than 0.05.

Table 8
The correlation of the relationships between coefficient c and a under 5 models.

Type	Relationship	R ²				
		L	QC	CC	LC	EC
SM	c_1, a_1	0.079	0.835	0.835	0.041	0.041
	c_2, a_2	0.912	0.956	0.956	0.746	0.746
SM*	c_1, a_1	0.048	0.601	0.632	0.033	0.033
	c_2, a_2	0.662	0.815	0.815	0.508	0.508
S	c_1, a_1	0.278	0.953	0.953	0.388	0.388
	c_2, a_2	0.494	0.983	0.983	0.537	0.537
	c_3, a_3	0.362	0.615	0.613	0.532	0.532
S*	c_1, a_1	0.240	0.263	0.275	0.214	0.214
	c_2, a_2	0.455	0.885	0.885	0.441	0.441
	c_3, a_3	0.383	0.898	0.898	0.599	0.599
SS	c_1, a_1	0.009	0.128	0.105	0.003	0.003
	c_2, a_2	0.978	0.979	0.979	0.992	0.992
	c_3, a_3	0.343	1.000	1.000	0.321	0.321
SS*	c_1, a_1	0.577	0.990	0.990	0.540	0.540
	c_2, a_2	0.521	0.649	0.630	0.644	0.644
	c_3, a_3	0.154	1.000	1.000	0.269	0.269

SM: Shopping Mall, S: Supermarket, SS: Specialty Store; Without *: Analysis on workday, With *: Analysis at weekend; L: Linear, QC: Quadratic Curve, CC: Cubic Curve, LC: Logarithmic Curve, EC: Exponential Curve.

5.1.1. Transportation accessibility

It is widely agreed that transportation accessibility has a significant impact on the occupant density of buildings. To access a commercial building, two transportation modes are available, namely private transportation (private cars) and public transportation (buses and subways).

To evaluate the transportation accessibility, the “service area” was used. The service area is defined as a region that can be reached from one point through all accessible routes within certain time. For instance, the 5-min service area for a point includes all the routes that can be reached within 5 min from that point. Thus, the service area of one commercial building can be determined by two parts: (1) the service area based on urban road networks, which is used for private transportation, and (2) the service area based on bus routes and subway routes. In addition, the driving time and the speed of the vehicles should

Table 9
Urban-level occupant density models of shopping mall.

Function	Workday		Weekend	
	a_1	b_1	a_1	b_1
Diagram	$D_u = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}}$			
a_1	$-0.05 + 9.34 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$		$-7.36 \times 10^{-3} + 6.37 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$	
b_1	13.72		13.99	
c_1	$22.69 - 838.30 \cdot a_1 + 6583.23 \cdot a_1^2$		$-24.28 + 1070.57 \cdot a_1 - 6964.35 \cdot a_1^2$	
a_2	$-0.06 + 1.14 \times 10^{-4} \cdot PL$		$-0.04 + 1.11 \times 10^{-4} \cdot PL$	
b_2	19.20		19.06	
c_2	$1.61 + 130.48 \cdot a_2 - 419.05 \cdot a_2^2$		$-26.29 + 773.34 \cdot a_2 - 2905.22 \cdot a_2^2$	

be determined before calculating the service area. In this paper, the speed of private cars and buses is both defined as 500 m/min [50], and the speed of subways is based on Nanjing metro schedule. The driving time is defined as 30 min, which means that the 30-min service area is calculated here.

The information of urban road networks, bus routes and subway routes was obtained from A map, a product of Alibaba Group, by APIs. All the information was integrated in the software ArcMap, using the function of “service area analysis” to calculate the service area under private transportation and public transportation respectively. The example of the results is demonstrated in Fig. 11.

Finally, assuming the willingness for travel by private transportation is equal to public transportation, the transportation accessibility of each sample TA can be calculated as:

$$TA = 0.5 \cdot S_{pri} + 0.5 \cdot S_{pub} \tag{9}$$

where S_{pri} , S_{pub} is the service area by private and public transportation respectively ($t = 30$ min).

Table 10
Urban-level occupant density models of supermarket.

	Workday	Weekend
Function	$D_u = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}} + a_3 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_3)^2}{c_3}}$	
Diagram		
a_1	$-8.65 \times 10^{-3} + 3.46 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$	$-0.04 + 8.71 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$
b_1	10.11	10.92
c_1	$-4.00 + 474.34 \cdot a_1 - 6209.39 \cdot a_1^2$	$6.19 - 44.58 \cdot a_1 + 198.53 \cdot a_1^2$
a_2	$-5.88 \times 10^{-3} + 3.71 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$	$-0.06 + 1.46 \times 10^{-4} \cdot PL$
b_2	15.10	16.03
c_2	$9.88 + 447.69 \cdot a_2 - 7637.82 \cdot a_2^2$	$19.33 - 156.39 \cdot a_2 + 558.23 \cdot a_2^2$
a_3	$-1.30 \times 10^{-3} + 4.80 \times 10^{-5} \cdot PL$	$-0.03 + 1.10 \times 10^{-4} \cdot PL$
b_3	19.56	20.09
c_3	$0.21 + 189.96 \cdot a_3 - 2085.63 \cdot a_3^2$	$44.60 - 868.12 \cdot a_3 + 3802.66 \cdot a_3^2$

Table 11
Urban-level occupant density models of specialty store.

	Workday	Weekend
Function	$D_u = a_1 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_1)^2}{c_1}} + a_2 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_2)^2}{c_2}} + p \cdot a_3 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-b_3)^2}{c_3}}$	
Diagram		
p	$p = 0$, store closes before 7 p.m.; $p = 1$, store close after 7 p.m.	
a_1	$-1.73 \times 10^{-3} + 4.89 \times 10^{-12} \cdot TA$	$-6.64 \times 10^{-4} + 5.68 \times 10^{-12} \cdot TA$
b_1	11.13	11.64
c_1	$-44.67 + 66339.25 \cdot a_1 - 21280348.73 \cdot a_1^2$	$26.45 - 12960.47 \cdot a_1 + 1614899.50 \cdot a_1^2$
a_2	$-9.60 \times 10^{-3} + 1.88 \times 10^{-11} \cdot TA$	$-0.01 + 2.42 \times 10^{-11} \cdot TA$
b_2	15.18	15.48
c_2	$11.03 - 1108.73 \cdot a_2 + 22330.31 \cdot a_2^2$	$4.65 + 570.01 \cdot a_2 - 56227.61 \cdot a_2^2$
a_3	$-0.01 + 2.26 \times 10^{-11} \cdot TA$	$-4.14 \times 10^{-3} + 1.57 \times 10^{-11} \cdot TA$
b_3	19.09	19.33
c_3	$-16.27 + 7258.91 \cdot a_3 - 451422.27 \cdot a_3^2$	$-11.16 + 3877.47 \cdot a_3 - 222118.65 \cdot a_3^2$

5.1.2. Population level

The population in the vicinity of a commercial building is positively correlated with its occupant density and therefore, is selected as the second urban parameter. The population census data of Nanjing is available. However, it only covers the population number of the city and the city districts. Therefore, it is not precise enough to provide the population data in the vicinity of commercial buildings. Other data sources need to be considered, one of such being Baidu Population Heat Map (BPHM).

BPHM is developed using the mobile phone location technique. It provides grid data of the population level. For the city of Nanjing, the grid size is 1.34×1.34 km and there are a total of 1461 grids in the city. It should be noted that the BPHM grid data is not the actual number of population in the grid. It is rather an indicator of the population level in the grid, which is positively correlated with the actual number of population. In addition to being fine grid data, the BPHM has another important advantage, that is, it is updated hourly, which makes it a suitable data source for developing dynamic occupant density models for commercial buildings. Another advantage of the BPHM data worth mentioning is that it covers most of the major cities in China.

As the population level in each grid changes hourly and their difference may be huge during a day, it is unreasonable to regard any of them as the population level of the grid. The sum of the population level during open hours was used to represent the population level of the grid. Considering the open hour of commercial buildings is mainly between 7 a.m. and 10 p.m., 16 BHPMs have been superimposed, in order to calculate the sum of population level in each grid. As each of the 2275 commercial buildings is located in a BPHM grid, the population level of a commercial building will follow the sum of population level in its sub-ordinated grid.

All the BHPMs were obtained through Baidu APIs, and the superposition of BHPMs was conducted in the ArcMap, via the function of “raster calculator”. The superposition of BHPMs is demonstrated in Fig. 12, and this process has been conducted twice in order to generate two kinds of population level, one for workday and the other for weekend.

5.1.3. Urban parameters of sample commercial buildings

After data acquisition, cleaning and processing, the urban parameters of the 12 sample commercial buildings are summarized in Table 6.

5.2. Urban-level occupant density model development

To establish urban-level occupant density D_{ub} , urban parameters TA , PL were used to replace the coefficients $a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2, a_3, b_3, c_3$. This process can be described as:

$$D_b \sim f(T, a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2, a_3, b_3, c_3) \rightarrow D_u \sim f(T, TA, PL) \quad (10)$$

The correlation analysis was conducted firstly in the software SPSS, and the results are summarized in Table 7.

It is found that the coefficients a_1, a_2, a_3 , which represent peak occupant density, have strong correlations with the urban parameter TA or PL , while the coefficients b_1, b_2, b_3 and c_1, c_2, c_3 have no significant correlation with the urban parameters TA and PL . Thus, the linear relationship between a_1, a_2, a_3 and TA, PL could be established. The mean value b_1, b_2, b_3 were calculated to represent the coefficients b_1, b_2, b_3 in occupant density models. As the coefficients c_1, c_2, c_3 , which represent the speed to reach peak occupant density, only have mathematical meaning, the relationships between c_1 and a_1, c_2 and a_2, c_3 and a_3 were attempted to establish, based on linear model, quadratic curve model, cubic curve model, logarithmic curve model and exponential curve model. The results are shown in Table 8.

It is found that the quadratic curve model and cubic curve model best describe the relationships between c_1 and a_1, c_2 and a_2, c_3 and a_3 . Considering the simple structure of models between coefficient c and a , the quadratic curve model was selected to describe their relationship.

The results of the final urban-level occupant density models of shopping mall, supermarket and specialty store are summarized in Tables 9–11.

5.3. Validation of the urban-level occupant density model

5.3.1. Evaluation of model regression

Fig. 13 and Table 12 present the urban-level occupant density models of the 12 sample commercial buildings shown in Table 6 and their statistical parameters for curve fitting. As shown in Table 12, the mean R^2 values for the three sub-categories are 0.66, 0.5335, and 0.5829, respectively. The overall mean R^2 value for all 12 sample buildings is 0.5921 and in 75% cases R^2 is larger than 0.5, which indicates relatively good curve fit. If the threshold of R^2 is increased to 0.75 indicating a very good curve fit, there are still 42.7% of sample buildings exceeding it.

5.3.2. The test of prediction

Extra two shopping malls, one supermarket (tested for 2 days) and two specialty stores were selected to further verify the urban-level occupant density model. Their key information is summarized in

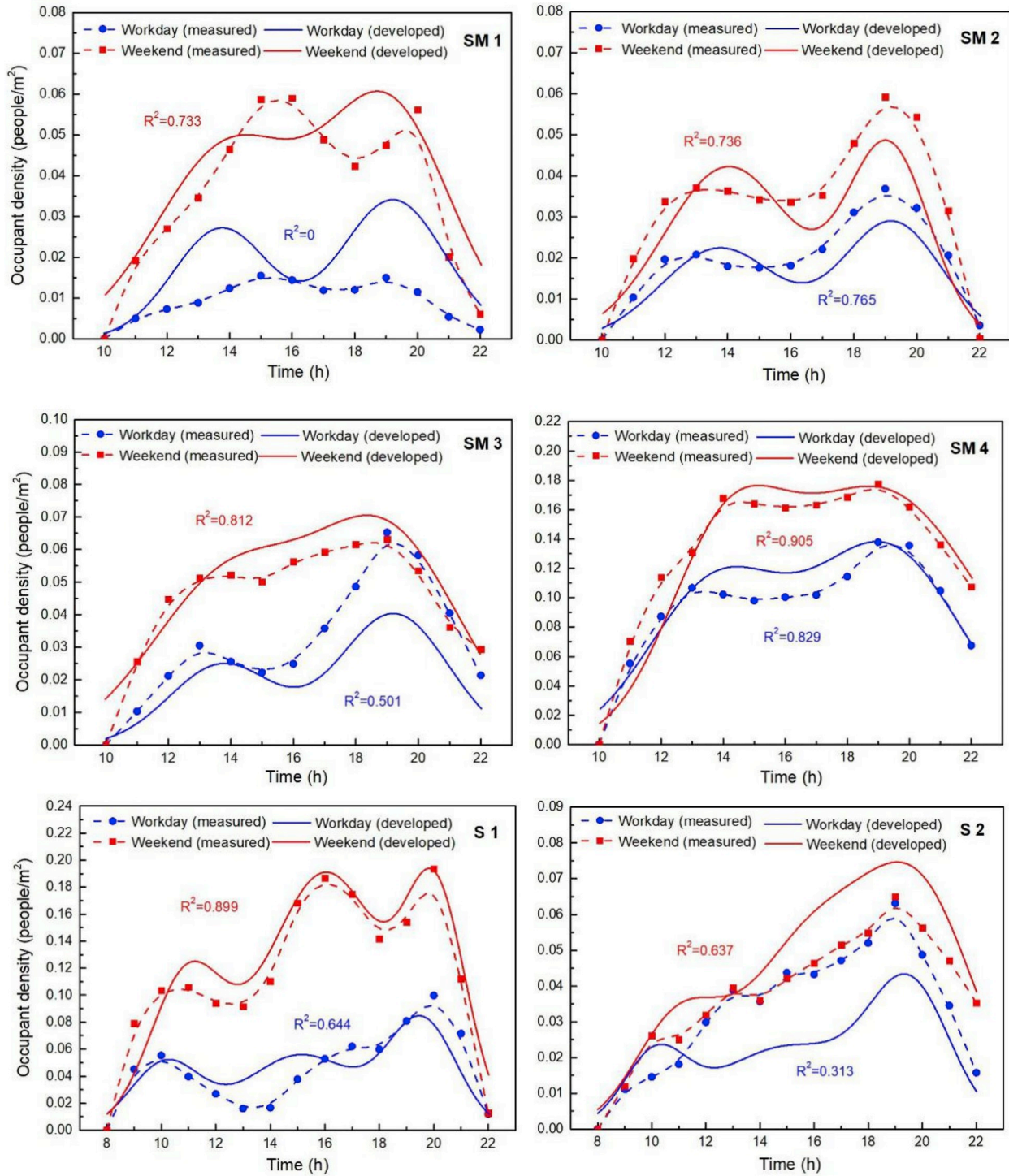


Fig. 13. The developed and measured occupant density models of 12 sample commercial buildings.

Table 13.

Using the method developed previously, their occupant density models are predicted as follows:

$$ID1 : D_u = 0.0248 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-13.72)^2}{3.93}} + 0.0403 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-19.20)^2}{6.19}} \quad (11)$$

$$ID2 : D_u = 0.0556 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-13.99)^2}{13.71}} + 0.0695 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-19.06)^2}{13.44}} \quad (12)$$

$$ID3 : D_u = 0.0196 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-10.11)^2}{2.91}} + 0.0244 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-15.10)^2}{16.26}} + 0.0378 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-19.56)^2}{4.41}} \quad (13)$$

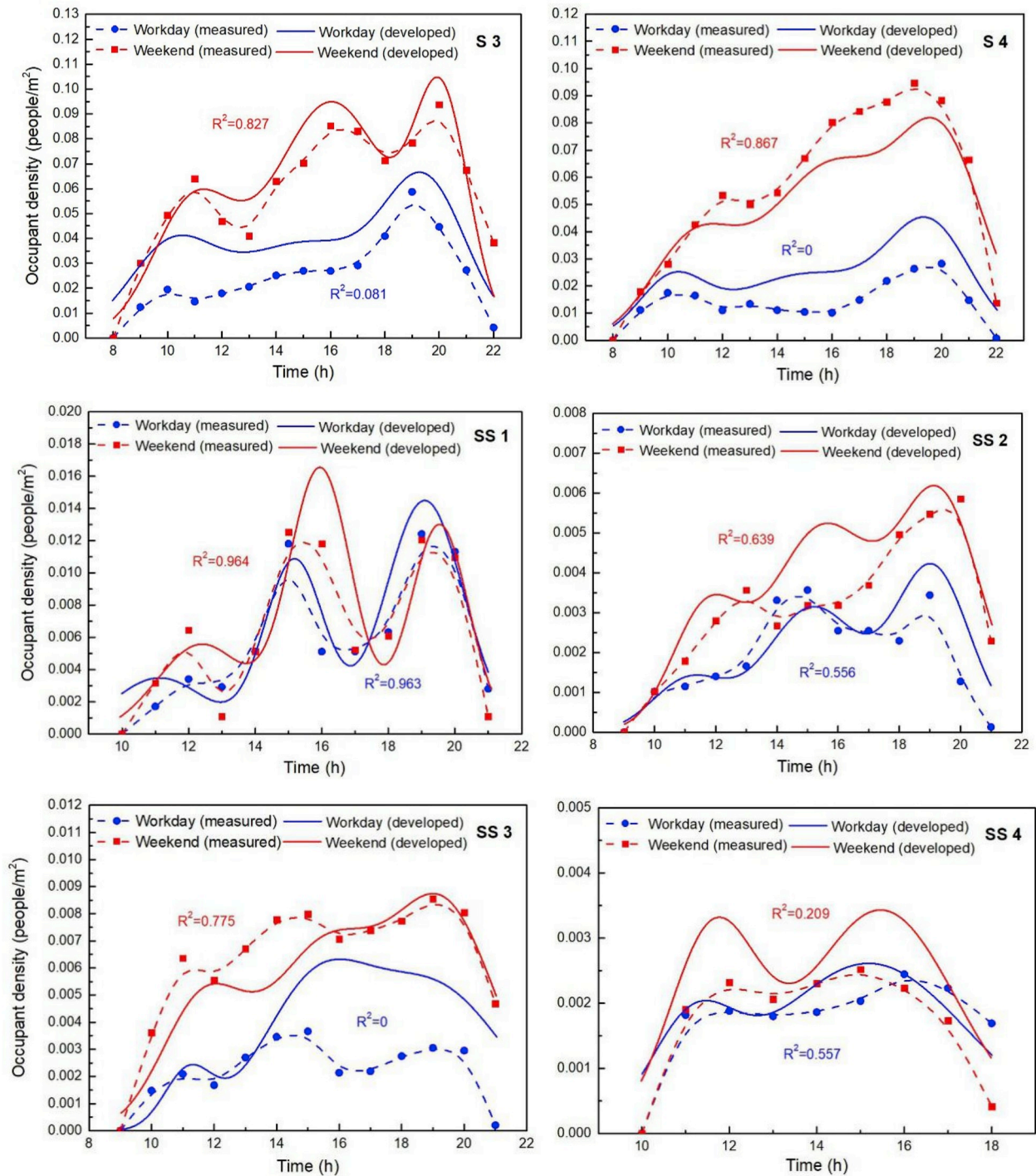


Fig. 13. (continued).

Table 12
Statistical parameters of the model regression for the sample commercial buildings.

	MAE	RMSE	R ² (mean)	R ² > 0.5 (%)	R ² > 0.75 (%)
Shopping mall	0.0086	0.0110	0.6600	87.5%	50%
Supermarket	0.0111	0.0132	0.5335	62.5%	37.5%
Specialty Store	0.0010	0.0010	0.5829	75%	37.5%
Overall	0.0073	0.0103	0.5921	75%	42.7%

MAE: Mean Absolute Error, RMSE: Root Mean Squared Error.

$$ID4 : D_u = 0.0345 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-10.92)^2}{4.88}} + 0.0601 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-16.03)^2}{11.95}} + 0.0576 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-20.09)^2}{7.19}} \quad (14)$$

$$ID5 : D_u = 0.0019 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-11.13)^2}{3.80}} + 0.0045 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-15.18)^2}{6.46}} + 0.0045 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-19.09)^2}{7.35}} \quad (15)$$

$$ID6 : D_u = 0.0056 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-11.64)^2}{4.51}} + 0.0144 \cdot e^{-\frac{(T-15.48)^2}{1.19}} \quad (16)$$

The comparison between the measured occupant density models and the predicted ones is illustrated in Fig. 14, and their coefficients $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3$ are summarized in Table 14.

Shown in Fig. 14, the results are acceptable, as R² of 4 models (ID = 1, 2, 4, 5) are above 0.5. To be more specific, the absolute error and

Table 13

The information of the verification samples.

ID	Floor area (m ²)	Transportation accessibility (m ²)	Population level	Type	Measurement day
1	114327	693213373.32	853	Shopping mall	Workday
2	28320	673599415.03	988	Shopping mall	Weekend
3	6268	681566248.41	815	Supermarket	Workday
4	6268	681566248.41	842	Supermarket	Weekend
5	9424	750656742.91	1033	Specialty store	Workday
6	156235	1103222203.26	856	Specialty store	Weekend

relative error were used to describe the accuracy of prediction. These indicators were calculated in Eq. (17)–(19), and the results are shown in Table 15.

$$\Delta a_i = a_i' - a_i \quad (17)$$

$$\delta a_i = |\Delta a_i| / a_i \quad (18)$$

$$\Delta b_i = b_i' - b_i \quad (19)$$

where Δa_i is the differences between the measured peak densities and the predicted ones; δa_i is the relative error between the measured peak densities and the predicted ones; a_i is the measured peak densities; a_i' is the predicted peak densities; Δb_i is the differences between their occurring time; b_i is the measured occurring time; b_i' is the predicted occurring time.

It is clear that the relative error between the measured peak occupant density and the predicted one is small in shopping malls but larger in supermarkets and specialty stores. The curves of the measured and predicted models are basically consistent. The difference between the occurring time of peak occupant density is generally less than 1 h. Given the randomness of the verification samples, this result could be considered reasonable.

6. Discussion

6.1. Big data technique

In this paper, the acquisition of big data, such as building footprints and POIs for the classification, and urban parameters – transportation accessibility and population level for the establishment of occupant density models, is through APIs. The application for the keys of API is free, which gives the chance to apply the means in this paper into other projects. The websites of the application for keys are listed here: (1) Baidu map: <http://lbsyun.baidu.com/>; (2) A map: <https://lbs.amap.com/>.

However, the data acquisition still needs the programming techniques, and data processing challenges the skills of ArcMap use. Thus, to well reproduce the methods, it requires high professional skills of the researchers.

6.2. Improvements in the classification of building types

Logistic regression is used to classify urban commercial buildings. Although the method is able to quickly process a number of buildings, it has some room for further improvement. One difficulty is to handle the buildings with mixed functions such as commercial buildings with some office spaces. Since these buildings contain a large number of commercial POIs, they are categorized as commercial buildings. However, adding office POIs may alter the results and create new categories such as office-supermarket and office-shopping mall. In fact, these mixed-use

buildings can be described by “shoebosher” models [51]. The occupant density model developed in this paper would be linked with their commercial part while the non-commercial parts rely on other occupancy models.

6.3. Applicability to other building types

Although commercial buildings are the target of this study, the general methodology and framework, shown in Fig. 1, are applicable to other building types. For example, it is reported that the building-level occupant density model of office buildings can also be described by superimposing normal distribution functions [21,29]. It is important to realize that when the building-level model is extended to the urban-level, the proper urban parameters must be carefully selected. Transportation Accessibility and Population Level, two urban parameters sufficient for commercial buildings, may have to be modified or changed for other building types. The key is to find proper urban parameters to reflect the inner correlation between the building-level occupant model and the building’s urban context.

7. Conclusions

The occupant information is critical for building and urban energy simulation. The dynamic nature of occupant density makes it challenging to be accurately predicted. In the context of UBEM, the occupant density of hundreds and even thousands of buildings need to be obtained. To address these problems, an innovative method is proposed to develop the urban-level dynamic occupant density models for commercial buildings.

The methodology starts from the determination and classification of commercial buildings. The POIs are used to determine which ones are commercial buildings. The sub-categories of commercial buildings are determined using logistic regression. The end results are 219 shopping malls, 341 supermarkets, and 1715 specialty stores in the city of Nanjing.

The hourly occupant densities of 12 sample buildings, including 4 shopping malls, 4 supermarkets, and 4 specialty stores, were measured. Through regression analysis, it is found that the superposition of normal distribution functions can accurately describe the measured occupancy profile, as demonstrated by an overall R^2 value above 0.9. This established building-level dynamic occupant density model serves as the foundation upon which the urban-level model is further developed.

The key step of expanding the building-level dynamic occupant density model to the urban-level is establishing the relationship between urban parameters of the commercial building and its occupancy pattern. Transportation accessibility and population level, two selected urban parameters, were obtained using big data. The coefficients defining the building-level dynamic occupant density models were correlated with these two urban parameters. So far, a complete urban-level dynamic occupant density model for commercial buildings has been established. The model was tested on 6 samples. According to the R^2 value, the overall goodness of model prediction is acceptable.

In addition to predicting the urban-level dynamic occupant density pattern of commercial buildings, the method and framework developed in this paper can be applied to other types of buildings as well. However, for non-commercial buildings transportation accessibility and population level may not be proper urban parameters. One has to modify them or select other urban parameters to expand the building-level model to the urban-level.

Declaration of competing interest

None.

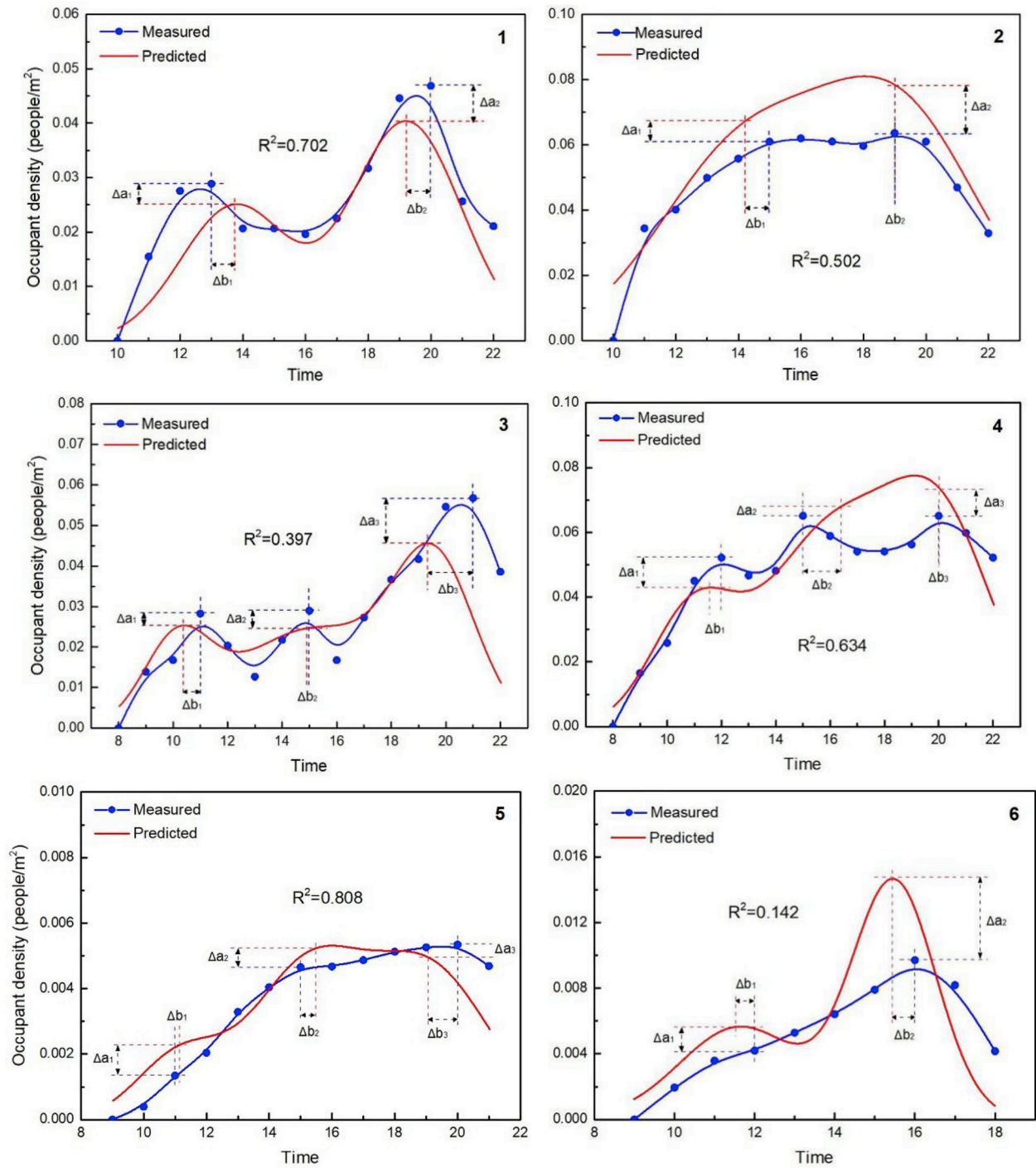


Fig. 14. The comparison between measured and predicted occupant density models.

Table 14

The key coefficients of measured and predicted models.

ID	Measured models						Predicted models					
	a_1	a_2	a_3	b_1	b_2	b_3	a_1'	a_2'	a_3'	b_1'	b_2'	b_3'
1	0.0289	0.0468	/	13	20	/	0.0248	0.0403	/	13.72	19.20	/
2	0.0610	0.0637	/	15	19	/	0.0556	0.0695	/	13.99	19.06	/
3	0.0282	0.0290	0.0567	11	15	21	0.0196	0.0244	0.0378	10.11	15.10	19.56
4	0.0522	0.0651	0.0651	12	15	20	0.0345	0.0601	0.0576	10.92	16.03	20.09
5	0.0013	0.0047	0.0053	11	15	20	0.0019	0.0045	0.0045	11.13	15.18	19.09
6	0.0042	0.0097	/	12	16	/	0.0056	0.0144	/	11.64	15.48	/

Table 15

The differences between the key coefficients.

ID	Δa_1	Δa_2	Δa_3	δa_1	δa_2	δa_3	Δb_1	Δb_2	Δb_3
1	-0.0041	-0.0065	/	14.18%	13.89%	/	43min	-48min	/
2	-0.0054	0.0058	/	8.85%	9.11%	/	-60min	4min	/
3	-0.0086	-0.0046	-0.0189	30.50%	15.86%	33.33%	-53min	6min	-86min
4	-0.0177	-0.0050	-0.0075	33.91%	7.68%	11.52%	-65min	62min	5min
5	0.0006	-0.0002	-0.0008	46.15%	42.55%	15.09%	8min	11min	-55min
6	0.0014	0.0047	/	33.33%	48.45%	/	-22min	-31min	/

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