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To dig or not to dig?

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Place and perception in subsurface housing

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0 **Abstract**

1 Cities of the future are envisioned to be fully optimized, due to technological
2 advancements, distributed sensor networks and automation. With the proliferation
3 of new data sources, opportunities also exist for better understanding how people
4 act and make decisions, as well as discerning the conditions in which they wish to
5 live and what they expect from their surrounding environment. Following the
6 recently proposed *normative strand* in urban planning, this study uses *distributed*
7 *personal underground development* as a case study for extracting the values behind
8 this controversial self-build movement, alongside observers' opinions obtained
9 from associated web-based data.

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1 **Keywords:** information technology, town and city planning, tunnels and tunneling

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6 **1. Introduction**

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8 **1.1 Underground development in light of normative rationality**

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0 Modern cities are facing numerous challenges. There is a growing need to
1 accommodate their increasing populations, ensuring comfortable, prosperous and
2 sustainable co-existence of inhabitants, whilst at the same time minimizing the
3 effects of both anthropogenic and natural stresses to safeguard population security.
4 Simultaneously, city planning methods are undergoing gradual transformations
5 under the influence of the proliferation of newly available data sources and tools,
6 which enable its processing, visualization and interpretation. Increasing data
7 volumes and diversity, commonly referred to as 'big data', open new avenues of
8 urban understanding, promising to make cities more livable, with precisely
9 executed functions, resulting in 'smarter' urban habitats. New data and new ways of
0 working with this data therefore suggest more creative planning methods, capable
1 of equally incorporating readings from distributed sensor networks and
2 interpreting various social participatory undertakings within urban fabrics
3 (Townsend, 2013). However, the search for custom-made ways of working, which
4 incorporate underlying values of urban populations, is still regarded as a weak
5 component within a predominantly process-oriented rational tradition (Flyvbjerg,
6 1998). This poses several risks, notably of ignoring constructive bottom-up trends
7 and of overlooking negative experiences within so-called technically optimal
8 systems; other criticisms are well documented. One example which highlights these

9 shortcomings is in *distributed underground development*, often regarded as a
0 hobbyist niche (Garrett, 2012; Lackman, 2012) and not considered as a constitutive
1 element in wider city planning (Bridge et al., 2005).

2 Underground development in urban planning is often referred to as an
3 alternative solution where (i) there are significant space constraints/demand over
4 ground, (ii) where development is limited due to land conservation purposes or (iii)
5 where cost savings can be made, for example with regard to storage (ITA, 1990;
6 Marker, 2009; Rogers, 2009). Most often, underground space is used to fulfill major
7 city functions, including transportation and waste management, as well as
8 containing major public utilities such as mains water, natural gas, electricity
9 distribution and communications infrastructure (Yang et al., 2015); it is rarely
0 considered as a potential space for living. This may be due to the fact that modern
1 understanding of underground space lies predominantly in the context of ever-
2 growing urban infrastructure, for example, the requirement for additional parking,
3 road tunnels and rapid transportation systems. Nevertheless, there is wide variety
4 of civic uses of the subsurface (Goel et al., 2012; Rogers, 2009), which also include
5 its use for residential purposes; this function most commonly comprises utilizing
6 underground space to support living (e.g., servant's quarters) or leisure activities
7 (e.g. subterranean gyms and swimming pools).

8 Therefore, a degree of living underground is not a novel concept. Indeed,
9 subterranean living has grown increasingly popular over the last thirty years as an
0 important sector in the green building movement. According to various 'grey'

1 literature (Gray, 2015; Yoneda, 2014), thousands of people in Europe and America
2 live in underground homes and countries including Japan, China and Singapore,
3 where development space is at a premium, are particularly keen to build
4 underground living spaces.

5 At this time, there are two main obstacles that deter more widespread
6 development of underground living spaces: poor adaptation of the legal framework
7 (ITA, 2000) and public perception (Gray, 2015).

8 In most countries, the legal framework is seen as the major obstacle (De Mulder
9 et al., 2012; ITA, 2000). Increasing demands for underground solutions emphasize
0 the need for better coordination of the utilization of underground space. However, a
1 large number of different authorities and overlapping legislative documents must
2 be consulted before a building permit can be obtained (Rönkä et al, 1998). At the
3 same time, the lack of clear rules, methods and standards for underground
4 construction also delay legal procedures, which are far more coherent for above-
5 surface solutions (RAIB, 2014). For landowners, the right to use underground space
6 is also often restricted in some way, either through land-use plans or legal praxis –
7 moreover, they do not necessarily have the right to oppose activities of others under
8 the surface (ITA, 1990, 2000).

9 The primary reason for the limited uptake of underground development is public
0 perception (Garrett, 2012). There is a common prejudice against such spaces, often
1 described as lifeless, dark dungeons, providing little access to what we all enjoy:
2 light and connection to the surrounding environment. The importance of including

3 people's values in underground development was introduced by Dobinson and
4 Bowens (1997), who stated that such controversial projects were likely to generate
5 opposing opinions and that underground development is therefore "not an end in
6 itself": Rather, it must be viewed as a means of achieving strategic objectives of the
7 entire community (Dobinson & Bowens, 1997).

8 Nevertheless, personal underground development projects are taking place in
9 several countries around the world (Gray, 2015). Predominantly captured by
0 various media sources, they are commonly positioned in the discourse of eco-
1 lifestyle and organic post-modern architectural trends, due to the unconventional
2 lifestyle of the owners or the extraordinary design of the dwelling (e.g., Gary
3 Neville's eco-house in Bolton, UK) (Pham, 2010). From a planning perspective, in
4 light of the normative rationality, individual underground development, which
5 manifests itself primarily via self-build projects (e.g., Chiswick and Holland Park
6 residences in London, UK) (McCloud, 2012) or crowd funding of underground
7 public spaces (e.g., New York's Lowline Park, US) (Leaver, 2014), can be considered
8 as a valid demonstration of need to include local values into planning (Buunk & van
9 der Weide, 2015). This movement, nevertheless, has received very little attention in
0 academic literature. Its controversial nature also means that this topic is a good
1 candidate with which to demonstrate the underlying values of urban living, their
2 prioritization and modes of implementation.

3 The need for a better understanding of the underlying values involved in decision
4 making is not unique to the 'urbanist niche movements': thus, Flyvbjerg (1998) has

5 specified this necessity for planning in general if it is to fulfill its social function of
6 reflexivity and arrangement (Flyvbjerg, 1998; Buunk et al, 2015). Values can take
7 different forms; they can be expressed by means of motive, incentive, desire or ideal
8 for spatial development (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Also, they can be approached
9 from several perspectives: first, by uncovering the reasons why the project took
0 place in the first instance (that is, 'simple observation') and second, by revealing the
1 reactions of others to such a development (that is, 'observing the observer') (Lovink,
2 2011).

3 Similar to the political and social sciences' concepts of power and meanings,
4 values can only materialize by means of social interaction (Ardvisson, 2011; Bardi &
5 Schwartz, 2003). Linguistic methods, therefore, have been widely adopted in
6 planning research, where discourse analysis helped to provide insight into the
7 frames and storylines by which actors create their views of spatial development
8 issues (Silva, 2012). Specific phrases or sentences that are likely to characterize the
9 personal motive or ideal behind a storyline are often used to identify values in these
0 contexts. The most recent proliferation of new data sources has also opened
1 opportunities towards understanding the values of the audience, which can be
2 found encrypted, for example, behind the politics of information arrangement (e.g.,
3 Google's PageRank) (Brin & Page, 1997; Curme et al., 2014), amount of 'likes' and
4 'shares' (Bodle, 2011; Gerlitz & Helmond, 2013) or sentiments of the commenting
5 lexicon (Feldman, 2013) around a particular city planning or development project.
6 There is, therefore, scope to test these new media data sources and methods,

7 alongside more widely adopted discourse analysis techniques, in order to gain
8 insight into the controversial yet important topic of distributed personal
9 underground development.

0

1 **1.2 Research aims and questions**

2

3 The main purpose of this study is to understand attitudes towards individual
4 underground development as a social phenomenon of choice (e.g., aesthetics of eco-
5 living, attractiveness of organic design) or necessity (e.g., noise reduction,
6 protection against weather cataclysms). Conceptual mapping of this subject aims to
7 demonstrate which locations may hold the potential for underground development
8 as an alternative or parallel planning direction, based on the degree of social
9 approval for this type of accommodation. The proposed method may serve as a
0 powerful screening tool for public perception, which may precede more immersive
1 types of engagement (e.g., forums or focus group approaches) with urban residents
2 or local authorities (Silva, 2012).

3 In order to be able to appropriately position the dilemma 'to dig or not to dig' in a
4 planning discourse, it was therefore important for our study to focus on two main
5 aspects: (a) *urban locations*, which have or currently are implementing
6 underground housing projects, and (b) *perceptions*, provoked by the mediated
7 representation of the underground mode of living and degree of readers'
8 engagement with this urban development topic.

0 **1.3 Methodology**

1

2 Two main sets of methods – linguistic and digital – have been employed in this
3 study. Whilst the first group has already found its niche in the normative tradition of
4 urban planning discipline (Buunk & van der Weide, 2015), the full potential of the
5 second method for planning purposes is yet to be explored (Silva, 2012). When
6 reference is made to digital methods, what is most commonly assumed is the
7 automated processing of structured information, which is not necessarily a
8 complete definition of this approach. Specialists divide techniques into ‘natively
9 digital’ and ‘simply digital’, according to the nature of the data sources they are
0 capable of processing (Rogers, 2013b). The ‘simply digital’ group of methods is
1 usually applicable to datasets which have originated in the analog world (e.g.,
2 interviews, reports, old photos) and have been digitized, whilst ‘natively digital’
3 methods deal with data which is produced, stored and disseminated in the digital
4 (or cyber-) sphere exclusively. The main dataset used in our analysis was
5 unstructured and hybrid (both ‘natively digital’ and ‘digitized’) information
6 contained on the web.

7 The extraction of both data sources was facilitated by the construction of queries
8 for the Google web navigation engine, the results of which provided links to mixed
9 media sources (blogs, news, individual sites and social media platforms), ordered by
0 Google’s PageRank according to the source reputation or item’s popularity

1 (Weltevrede & Helmond, 2012; Rogers, 2013a). The intensity of the social interest
2 and engagement around the research topic of underground development has been
3 tested against two other popular search terms, evolving around the controversial
4 dilemma of self-building in urban settings: ~'buy a house' and ~'build a house'
5 (Figure 1).

6 The Google search engine was repurposed into a research tool (Rogers, 2013a) by
7 switching to the 'no country redirect' mode and using single queries in the English
8 language only. The query yielded around 500 web sources comprising mixed media
9 (blogs, news links to social media platforms etc.) from which, for the sake of data
0 consistency and the adaptation of digital methods for information extraction, media
1 platforms (e.g., Pinterest and TripAdvisor) were filtered out from the inventory,
2 (see Figure 2).

3 The initial step in our analysis consisted of gathering information concerning
4 urban underground development projects, including their description and location
5 (city/town and country). To extract descriptive information, the *SentenceRipper*
6 (DMI, 2012b) research tool from the Digital Methods Initiative was used to strip the
7 text content from the list of collected URLs and incorporate these into a database
8 consisting of single sentences as elementary unit entries (Bruns, 2007). Each unit
9 was mined for keywords (DMI, 2012a) and location (DMI, 2014b) to extract
0 semantic information required for our analysis.

1 To collect data regarding social reaction to projects, the DMI (2014c) research
2 tool was used to detect the most frequently used 'social buttons' on each website,

3 which was subsequently followed by an application of the DMI (2013), which
4 retrieved the number of 'likes' on Facebook as an indication of the most commonly
5 occurring web 'fingerprint' within the list of returned websites (Geiger, 2015). For
6 each URL entered, the script queried the Facebook Query Language (FQL) API and
7 retrieved the number of 'likes', 'shares', 'comments' and 'clicks'. This information
8 was combined and used in the analysis to illustrate the degree of social engagement
9 with particular underground development projects, as described in the news media,
0 on blogs or on individual websites.

1 For opinion mining, the *Discus Comment Scraper* (DMI, 2014a) tool was used to
2 extract comments from the list of input URLs and to structure them into an
3 individual database. In a similar approach to the text content analysis, each
4 comment was mined for geolocation (city/town and country) and provided as input
5 for the sentiment analysis routine. We used a naïve opinion mining approach and
6 estimated comments' sentiments by counting the number of occurrences of
7 "positive" and "negative" words (Liu, 2012). To assign a numeric score to each
8 message, we subtracted the number of occurrences of negative words from the
9 number of occurrences of positive words. Larger negative scores subsequently
0 corresponded to more negative expressions of sentiment, neutral (or balanced)
1 expressions were net to zero, and very positive comments scored larger positive
2 numbers. Hu and Liu's 'opinion lexicon' was used as a categorization source,
3 containing valuation for approximately 7,000 words and having been successfully
4 validated for English language texts in previous studies (Liu, 2012). Some of the

5 most useful properties of this lexicon include misspellings, morphological variants
6 and slang processing. The body of the sentiment scores has been normalized to a
7 scale 1-100.

8 Manual quality checks of the results of the digital tools were performed at each
9 stage of the data processing lifecycle, which was made possible by the reasonable
0 volume of collected information.

1

2 **2. Visualizing personal underground developments in urban settings**

3

4 We visualize the values of the development projects, both from the perspective of
5 their owners, and also from the perspective of the virtual audiences, which engaged
6 with the online projects' demonstration. Both sets of results are aggregated at the
7 level of a projects' country of origin and are presented in individual subsections
8 below.

9

0 **2.1 Defining rationales behind underground development projects: 1 typologies**

2

3 To discover the rationale behind individual underground developments we
4 primarily looked into two types of new knowledge: firstly, we aimed to understand
5 what types of individual projects of this nature existed and how self-builders
6 interact with their properties (e.g., the primary aim of construction and/or how

7 much time they spend there); second, to gain insight into the reasons and purposes
8 of why the dwellings have been constructed. Both classifications were derived from
9 the manual data observation and automated keyword extraction from the text
0 bodies of the websites.

1

2 **2.1.1 Classification by the types of residence**

3

4 According to the data, personal underground houses are used for permanent
5 living as a main residence (the majority of the underground housing projects) or as
6 a vacation residence, often situated either in suburbs (e.g., Queens, New York, US) or
7 in coastal cities or towns (e.g., Atlantic Beach City, Florida, US) (Figure 3). The
8 results of data mining demonstrated a substantially higher proportion of projects
9 undertaken for personal development, as opposed to those aimed at contributing to
0 the development of an underground public sphere, examples of which could include
1 crowd-funding of underground public green spaces (e.g., Newline Underground
2 Park in New York, US) or the private conversion of abandoned mines into hotels and
3 tourist landmarks (Hobbiton Caves in Matamata town, New Zealand).

4 The reason for this may be the high costs associated with such projects (seen, for
5 example, in underground housing projects in the UK, Sweden and the Netherlands),
6 as well as interest in lower energy costs associated with the maintenance of the
7 dwelling (examples of which can be found in Iran, Paraguay and Portugal).
8 Secondary residence projects are mainly those situated in suburbs or in green city

9 islands, where the price of land is affordable and often used for mixed residential
0 and tourist business purposes (examples in the USA, Spain, Poland and Australia).

1 The civil public sphere of underground development projects are mainly
2 concentrated in countries with rich underground development histories in ancient
3 or medieval times (e.g., Tunisia, Turkey, Peru) or those with forward-looking
4 intentions for development of modern tourist infrastructure (e.g., Shimao
5 Wonderland in Shanghai, China or the Earthscraper in Mexico) (Figure 4).

6

7 **2.1.2 Classification by the underlying causes for development**

8

9 Keyword analysis also enabled us to gain insight into the underlying causes for
0 distributed urban underground development projects (Figure 5).

1 According to the data, the main underlying reason for exploring underground
2 habitat is increased or uncertain energy costs (e.g., Greece, Paraguay, Spain), or
3 personal choice, for example, eco-living with minimal impact on the surrounding
4 environment (e.g., Sweden, Netherlands, France, Canada). Very often, the desire for
5 eco-living is confirmed by combination with sustainable architecture requirements
6 (France, Switzerland, Netherlands, UK), designed in response to the specific climate
7 of the country and often with in-built passive low-energy features, including solar
8 shading (Las Vegas, US), natural ventilation (The Book House, Portugal) and lighting
9 (Holland Park, London, UK): “The horizontal roofline will introduce between 30%

0 and 50% more light than the equivalent-sized window because of the fact it is
1 horizontal” (Chiswick, London, UK)(McCloud, 2012).

2 Location is also one of the top reasons to consider building underground in prime
3 urban areas: ‘Holland Park is one of London’s most desirable areas: we like it
4 because it is quite *villagey*, even though you are in central London; it is also very
5 close to the London parks.’ (Holland Park, London, UK) (McCloud, 2012).

6 The need for space is also one of the most defining factors of the modern living
7 experience. The data analysis revealed that this need is particularly pressing for
8 capitals and mega-cities (e.g., Helsinki, London, Mexico, New York), where growing
9 infrastructure and restrictions to build over ground lead to consideration of
0 alternative spaces for development.

1 Many personal underground undertakings take place in already pre-developed
2 underground spaces. Abandoned mines and quarries, old bunkers or neglected
3 ancient caves can be successfully repurposed for living conditions (e.g., Coober Pedy
4 in Australia, Matmata in Tunisia or Zhengzhou in China).

5 Natural cataclysms (such as storms and wildfires) were highlighted primarily in
6 the countries of North America (US and Canada). Very few projects mentioned noise
7 as a reason for digging underground (e.g., town of East Hampton, New York).

8

9 **2.2 Virtual engagement and sentiments of urban audiences**

0

1 Virtual engagement and sentiment of urban audiences as quantitative and
2 qualitative traditions in opinion mining are summarized in Figure 6. For the
3 quantitative engagement, the number of Facebook 'likes', 'shares' and 'clicks' have
4 been summarized into a single indicator and aggregated for each country across the
5 whole inventory of comments. The relative sentiment has been averaged across
6 comments and for each country, respectively.

7 Figure 6 demonstrates that the overall sentiment towards this architectural trend
8 is positive across all countries in this study. It is also the case that no correlation
9 was identified between the engagement activity and the average sentiment score:
0 countries such as France, United Kingdom, Netherlands and the United States
1 demonstrate very high levels of social engagement, coupled with a relatively modest
2 sentiment expression, while Tunisia, Oman and Morocco have more positive
3 attitudes, but an insignificant degree of activity on social media and thus a low
4 expectation of message spread within their urban communities. This finding can, in
5 part, be explained by the differences in cultures of engagement with digital media
6 between these two groups of countries (GWI, 2015).

7 The highest sentiment scores among countries where urban underground
8 development projects took place were for Tunisia, Italy and Switzerland; however,
9 none of these countries demonstrated particularly active dissemination of the
0 information on social media. As previously discussed, this can partly be explained
1 by the culture of digital engagement; non-English commentary is also likely, but was
2 outside of the scope of the analysis in this study.

3 Scandinavian countries such as Finland and Norway demonstrate the lowest
4 positive engagement with the prospects for personal underground living. This could
5 be caused by several factors, one of which is linguistic, the manner Nordic people
6 express themselves is less emotional (Warner-Søderholm, 2012), but also
7 geographical, as having long dark seasons already limits citizens' exposure to
8 natural light.

9 Manual analysis of comments has revealed arguments which can often be
0 overlooked in sentiment analysis, as well as some common misconceptions
1 concerning the underground lifestyle. For example, some personal beliefs (e.g., 'I do
2 not think I could live down that hole') might demonstrate deeply rooted opinions,
3 which are unlikely to change under any type of argument. Some retrospective
4 misconceptions indicate the need for better communication of the design of
5 underground homes (e.g., 'The last thing you want is to use daylight fluorescent
6 tubes. So I specifically light things so you get great shafts of light that give you that
7 contrast between light and shadow'). It is desirable, therefore, to expand the study
8 in due course toward a more detailed analysis of the comments. We plan, therefore,
9 to collect and interpret more personal drivers behind underground development
0 initiatives as part of the self-build movement, which can be of cultural, educational
1 or personal origin.

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5 **3. Conclusion**

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7 This study provides the first web-analytic-based insight into drivers behind
8 distributed self-build underground projects in urban locations worldwide.
9 Exploiting the principles of information propagation within the web sphere, the
0 study provides preliminary insights into *values* and *opinions* of both *developers* and
1 *observers* in urban environments. Conceptual mapping of this subject explored
2 which locations might hold the potential for underground development as an
3 alternative/parallel planning direction, based on ongoing development in those
4 cities or degrees of social approval for this type of accommodation. We believe that
5 the proposed web-analytic approach is a potentially powerful screening tool for
6 canvassing public opinion on urban planning matters, which can be employed
7 before more immersive types of engagement (e.g., forums or focus groups) with
8 urban residents or local authorities are commissioned.

9

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1

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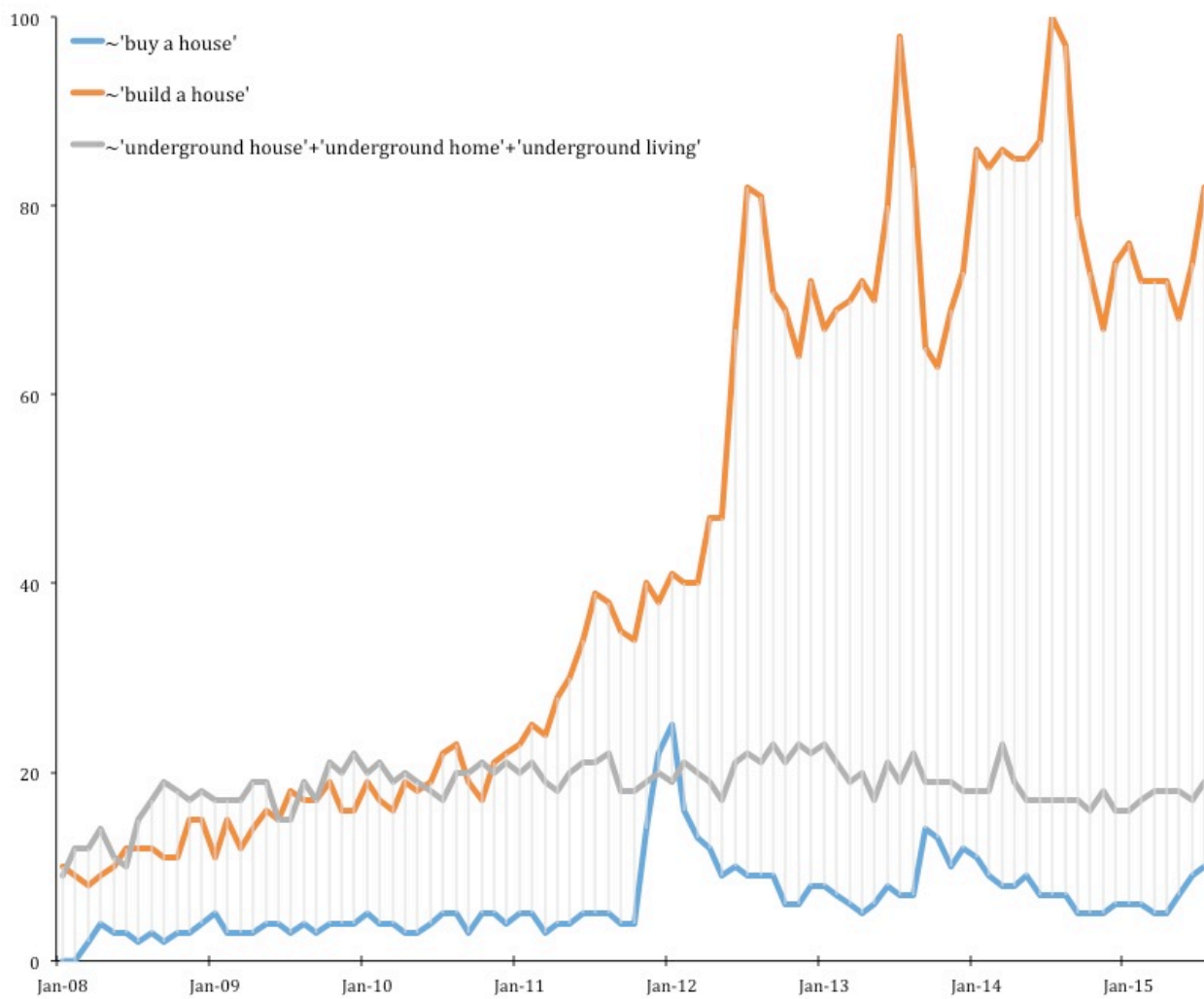
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7 **List of figures**



8

9 **Figure 1.** Relative proportion of the search terms to the total volume of queries.

0 Data source: Google Trends

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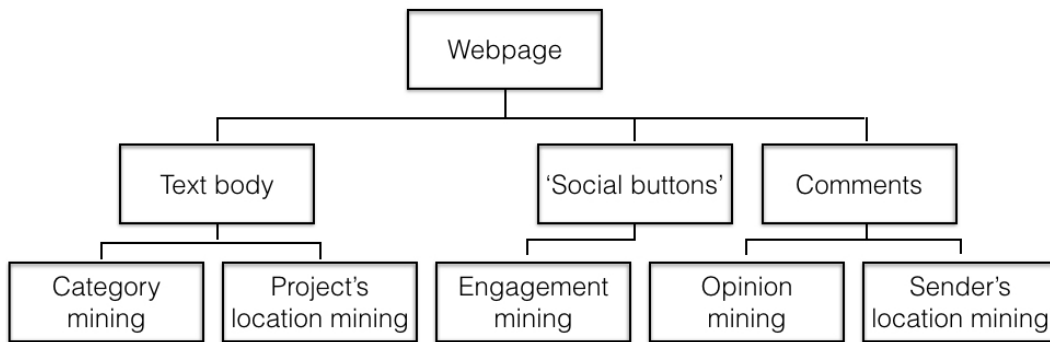
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1 **Figure 2.** Workflow model

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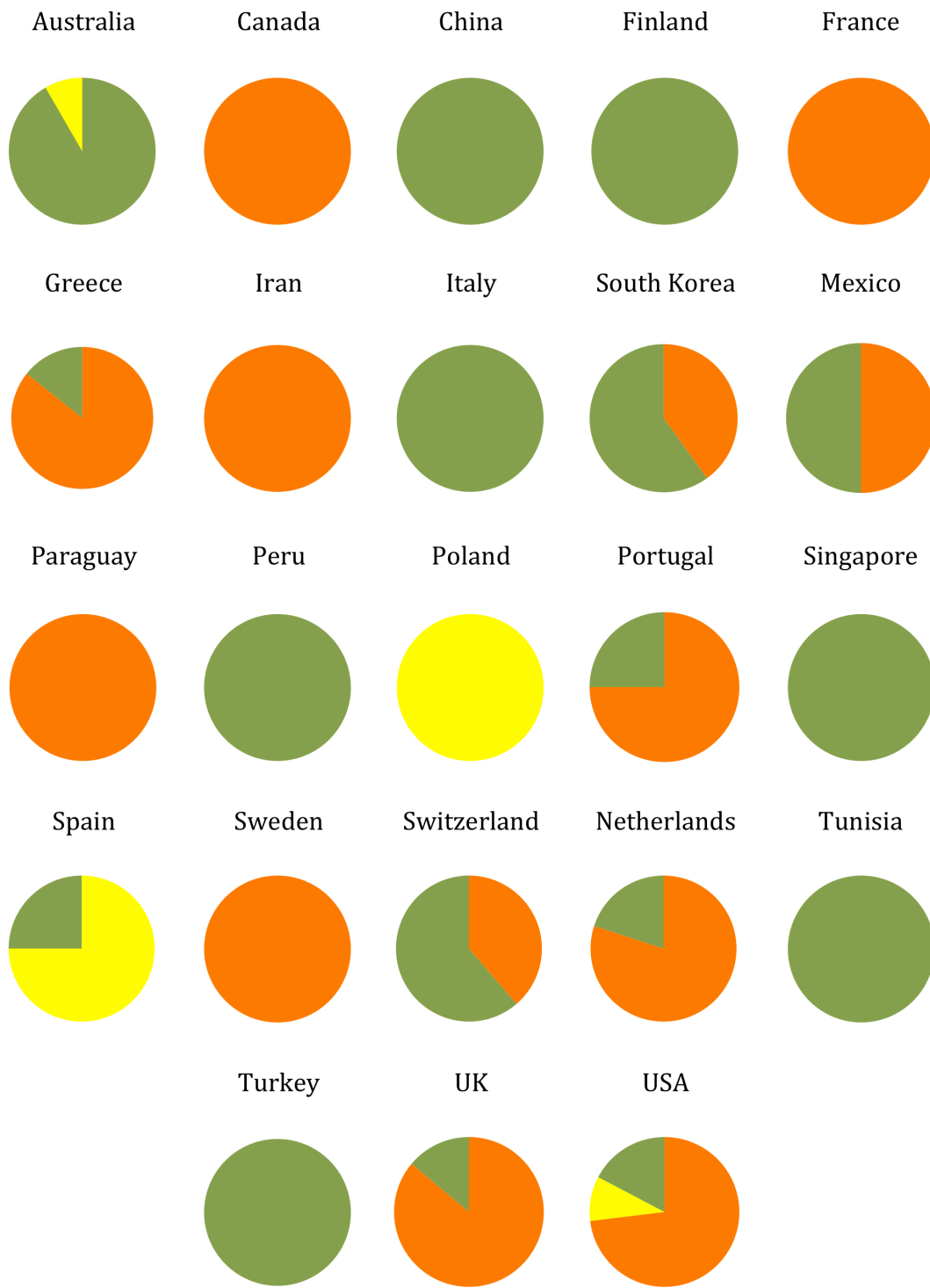
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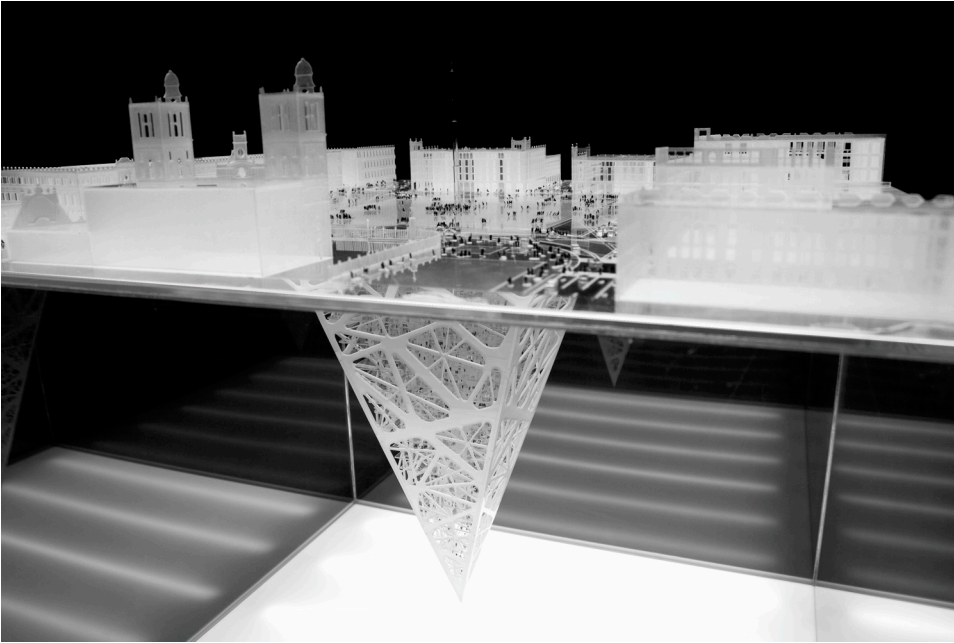


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3 **Figure 3.** Classification by the residence types



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5 **Figure 4.** Prototype model for Earthscraper underground development project,
6 Mexico City, Mexico (“BNKP Arquitectura – The Earthscraper model 03.jpg” by
7 ForgeMind ArchiMedia – CC : BY)

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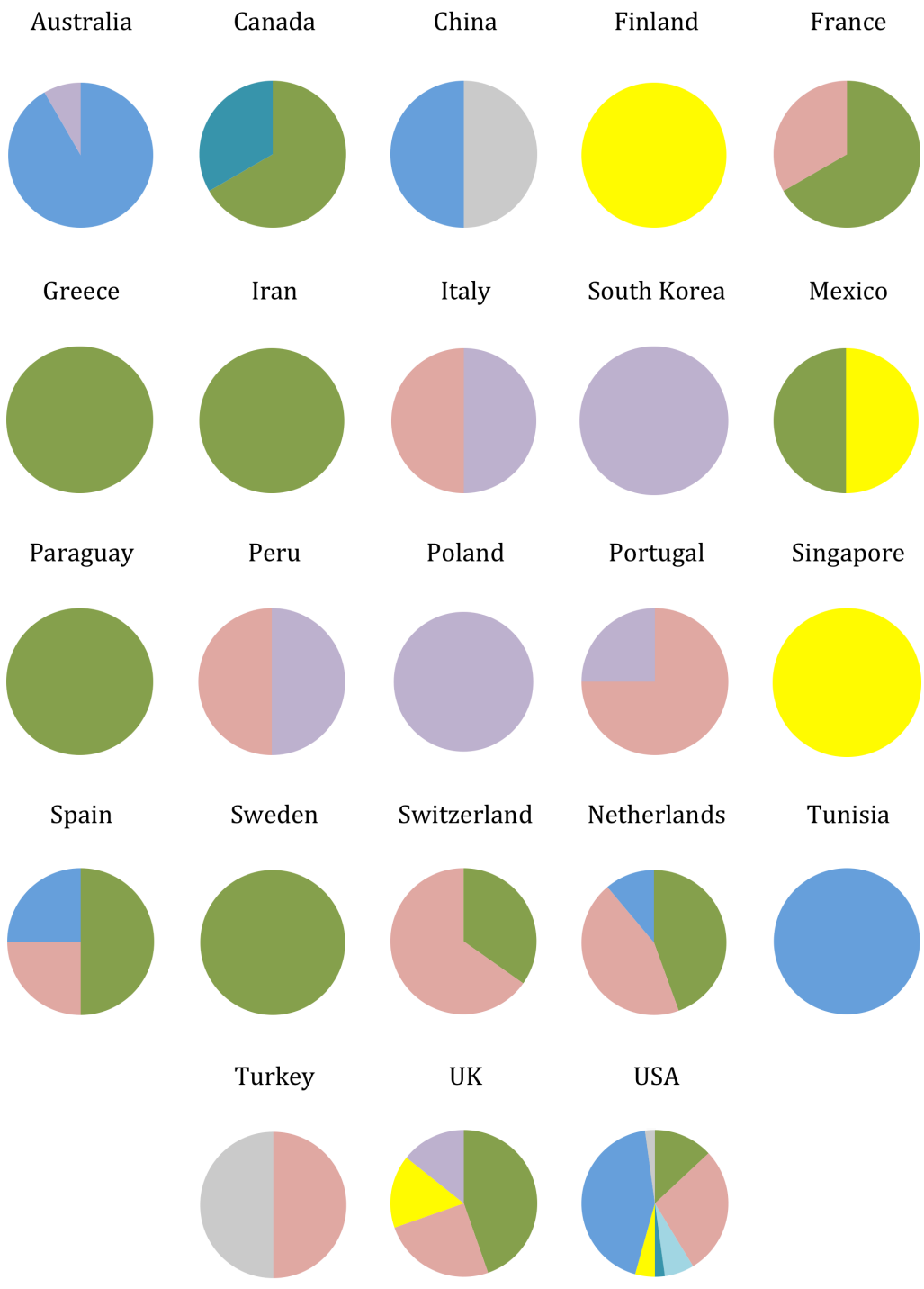
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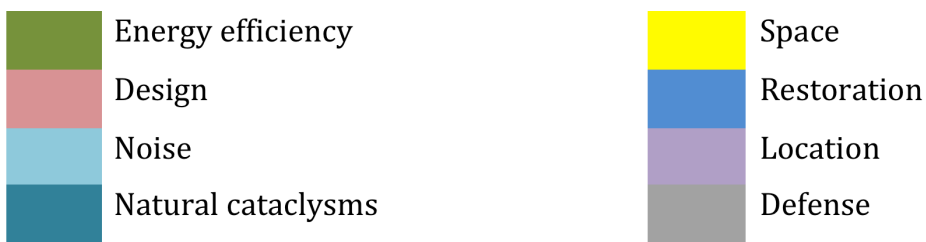
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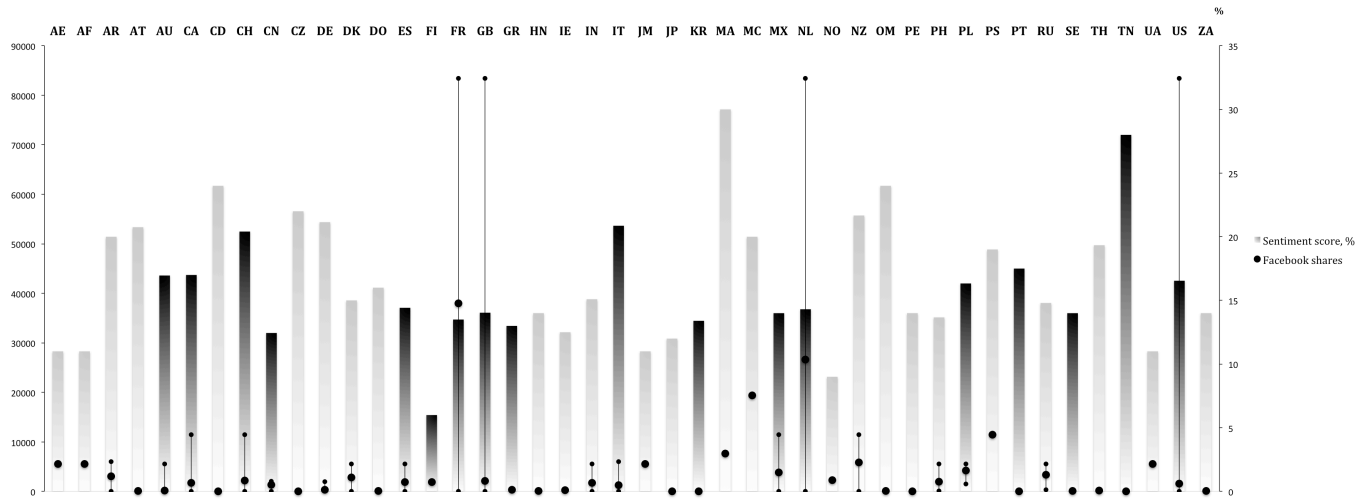


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1 **Figure 5.** Classification by the underlying development causes



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3 **Figure 6.** Combined quantitative and qualitative indicators of public engagement
 4 with underground development projects on the web (darker bars represent
 5 countries where projects took place)