



Does block size matter? The impact of urban design on economic vitality for Chinese cities

Environment and Planning B: Urban
Analytics and City Science
0(0) 1–17

© The Author(s) 2017

Reprints and permissions:
sagepub.co.uk/journalsPermissions.nav

DOI: 10.1177/2399808317715640

journals.sagepub.com/home/epb



Ying Long

School of Architecture and Hang Lung Center for Real Estate, Tsinghua University, China

CC Huang

Energy Innovation, USA

Abstract

The influence of urban design on economic vitality has been analyzed by a number of researchers and is also a key focus of many planning/design theories. However, most quantitative studies are based on just one city or a small set of cities, rather than a large number of cities that are representative of an entire country. With the increasing availability of new data, we aim to alleviate this gap by examining the impact of urban design upon economic vitality for the 286 largest cities in China by looking at a grid of geographical units that are 1 km by 1 km. We use these units and a set of new data (emerging big data and new data that reflecting urban developments and human mobility) to look at the impact of urban form indicators, such as intersection density (urban design), level of mixed use, and access to amenities and transportation, on economic vitality represented by activities using social media data. Our results show that these urban design indicators have a significant and positive relationship with levels of economic vitality for cities at every administrative level. The results contribute to a holistic understanding of how to improve economic vitality in cities across China at a detailed level, particularly at a time when China's economic growth will depend largely on growth of the service sector in urban areas. We think these results can help decision makers, developers, and planners/designers to improve economic vitality in cities across China.

Keywords

Consumption vitality, intersection density, block size, big/open data, China

Introduction

The contribution of urban design principles to vibrant and prosperous cities, particularly its impact on urban vitality,¹ has become common belief. Pioneering urbanists like Jacobs

Corresponding author:

Ying Long, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China.

Email: ylong@tsinghua.edu.cn

(1961) and Lefebvre (1995) were among the first to specify the features of good urban design (e.g. small blocks) and how it cultivates community, sociocultural vibrancy, and healthy neighborhoods. Other influential urbanists such as Gehl (1971), Lynch (1981), Montgomery (1998), and Whyte (1980) also established new ground on ways to understand urban vibrancy. Urbanists like Jacobs and Gehl, along with the New Urbanists, broadly promoted pedestrian-friendly, compact, walkability, and mixed-use neighborhoods (Katz et al., 1994). Since the advent of these urbanists, there has been extensive and qualitative discussion on how good urban design promotes the formation of lively city and urban vitality. The variables that we quantitatively analyze in this paper—intersection density, level of mixed use, access to amenities and transportation—are aimed at using data to confirm the beliefs of these great urban thinkers.

This paper aims to quantitatively explore the relationship of urban design by looking at the impact of variables such as intersection density, level of mixed use, and access to amenities and transportation, with economic vitality. We are particularly interested in exploring the answers to the following two questions: (1) Do urban design principles positively associate with vibrant cities in terms of economy? How much is a variable such as intersection density correlating with economic vitality compared to other factors? (2) Does this relationship vary across cities of different administrative levels? It should be noted that it is not easy to derive any causal relationship between the variables and economic vitality due to data source limitation in this paper. We believe the correlation analysis in this paper is a first step toward this final destination.

This paper aims to fill a gap in existing studies by using granular data to analyze 286 of the largest cities in China. Of all the countries in the world, China's urbanization rate is among the highest and its urban population is also among the largest. We use ordinary least squares (OLS) to look at the comparative impact of each urban design variable on economic vitality. We use social media comments, sign-ins, and housing price data as proxies for economic vitality. Our analysis includes spatial variables such as intersection density, level of mixed use, access to amenities, and access to transportation. Our results show that intersection density has a significant and unique impact on economic vitality, even when controlling for variables such as point of interest (POI) density and population density. We also find that other spatial variables such as level of mixed use, access to amenities, and access to transportation also have a significant effect on economic vitality.

This paper is organized as follows. The next section provides a review of the literature on this topic, looking at relevant literature while also demonstrating the emerging consensus around the results of our analysis. "Data" section describes our dataset in detail and "Results" section presents our regression results. The final section concludes with suggestions for future research.

Literature review

The widespread use of new data sources, including mobile phone traces, public transportation smartcard records, social media data, and geo-tagged data, has created the possibility to understand how urban design impacts economic vitality (Zhou and Long, 2016). These data sources allow researchers to have a more granular and human-scale understanding of how people experience cities with increased accuracy, consistency, and detail (Dunkel, 2015). Our literature review shows that while urban form indicators have been widely analyzed, there have only been a handful of studies that look at the impact of urban design on urban or economic vitality² through quantitative analysis. More detailed reviews are as follows.

We find several specific studies that connect urban design with urban (especially economic) vitality. One study (De Nadai et al., 2016) targets six cities in Italy and aims to confirm four of Jane Jacob's principles for urban vitality using mobile phone data. Two of the principles overlap with our indicators (mixed use and intersection density) and the study finds that both of these characteristics have a significant effect on economic vitality. Jane Jacobs's principles are also examined by Sung et al. (2015), using the conventional household travel survey, by examining their role on pedestrian activity and evidence that they have a positive impact are found in Seoul, Korea. Similar studies supported by urban GIS and emerging new data have been conducted in individual Chinese cities, like Beijing by Long and Zhou (2016) using mobile phone data, Wu et al. (2016) using mobile phone positioning records, and Zheng et al. (2016) using catering establishment data, Shenzhen by Yue et al. (2017) using mobile phone data, and Shanghai by Shen and Karimi (2017) using housing price records. Most of the aforementioned publications in this paragraph are for a single city or a limited number of cities. For example, De Nadai et al. (2016) looked at six cities, rather than having an aggregate view of all the cities in a country. These aforementioned studies are all addressing the role of urban form on population density represented social vitality, with Shen and Karimi (2017) and Zheng et al. (2016) as two exceptions, rather economic vitality which is the focus of this paper. Furthermore, we also notice that extensive studies using space syntax, focusing on a single city as well, are discussing the relationship between street pattern indicators like integration/depth/choice and urban vitality like Van Nes and Shi (2009).

There are also a number of studies that show there is a positive impact of indicators related to urban design, such as walkability, on property values and other economic indicators. While data such as property values can provide some insight into the role that urban design can influence a city's economy, social media data provide more granularity and more information on resident's direct *participation* in the economy. Li et al. (2015) and Loehr (2013) show that walkability can positively impact the property values of a neighborhood, while other researchers have shown that proximity to highways has a negative impact on property values (Madison and Kovari, 2013; Tajima, 2003).

While quantitative analysis that looks at the correlation between urban design and economic vitality (especially for numerous cities rather a single city) is relatively new,³ studies that look at the relationship between the urban built environment and intensity of travel behavior are relatively mature. For example, there is research that shows street design parameters such as block size have a positive impact on pedestrian volume (Hess et al., 1999). In addition to the extensive studies on urban form and travel from Ewing and Cervero (2010), there are a number of studies that show that pedestrian activity increases with mixed use, access to amenities, POI density, and intersection density (Krizek, 2003; Sung et al., 2015; Sunga et al., 2015). This paper goes a step further to integrate pedestrian activity with participation in commercial or economic activity, which is our view of "economic vitality."

Data

For this analysis, we have used a number of data sources, including social media data, geo-tagged data, property value data, and government-released economic data for control variables. In this section, we will review each dataset. Table 1 offers more information on the data we use in this paper. In Table 1, WEIBO represents Sina Weibo, a social media platform that has check-in data, showing where users tag their location on the platform. Sina Weibo, the Chinese version of Twitter combined with Foursquare, is the leading online

Table 1. List of variables and data sources used in analysis.

Main type	Name	Description	Data source
Vitality	DIANPING	Dianping comments for each square kilometer grid in 2014 (#/ha)	http://www.dianping.com , and used by Long (2016)
	WEIBO	Weibo count of each square kilometer grid in 2014 (#/ha)	http://www.weibo.com
	HOUSING_PRICE	Average housing price for each square kilometer grid in 2014 (CNY)	http://www.Soufun.com
Design	INTERSECTION	Number of intersections for each square kilometer grid in 2014 (#/ha)	Long (2016)
Density	POI_DENSITY	Point of interest (POI) count of each square kilometer grid in 2014 (#/km ²)	Long (2016)
	POP_DENSITY	Population count of each grid derived from the township level population density of China in 2010 (#/km)	Mao et al. (2016)
Diversity	MIXED-USE	Mixed-use level determined per grid from data in 2014	Long (2016) using the method in Liu and Long (2016)
Amenities	AMENITIES	The total number of bus stops, education and research facilities, governmental facilities, and convenient stores in each square kilometer grid in 2014 (#/km ²)	Derived from POIs in 2014, see Long (2016)
Access to Transit	ACCESSIBILITY	The average air distance to the closest city center, subcenter, green space, shopping center, hospital, and subway and HSR station in 2014 (km)	Derived from POIs in 2014 using Spatial Analyst of ArcGIS, see Long (2016)
City level control variables	GDP	GDP per capita of the city in 2014 (CNY)	MOHURD (2015)
	TERTIARY	Percentage of GDP that the tertiary sector accounted for in 2014	
	INCOME	Average income of each person in the city in 2014	
	CITY_LEVEL	The administrative level of the city in 2014 (five for the metropolitan cities and two for the prefectural cities)	See details in “Geographic data” section

microblogging platform in China, which allows users to publish, share, and discuss short postings on their website (<http://www.weibo.com>).⁴ DIANPING represents Dazhong Dianping, an aggregated social media tool used to rate restaurant and other service industry companies in China (Liu, 2014).⁵

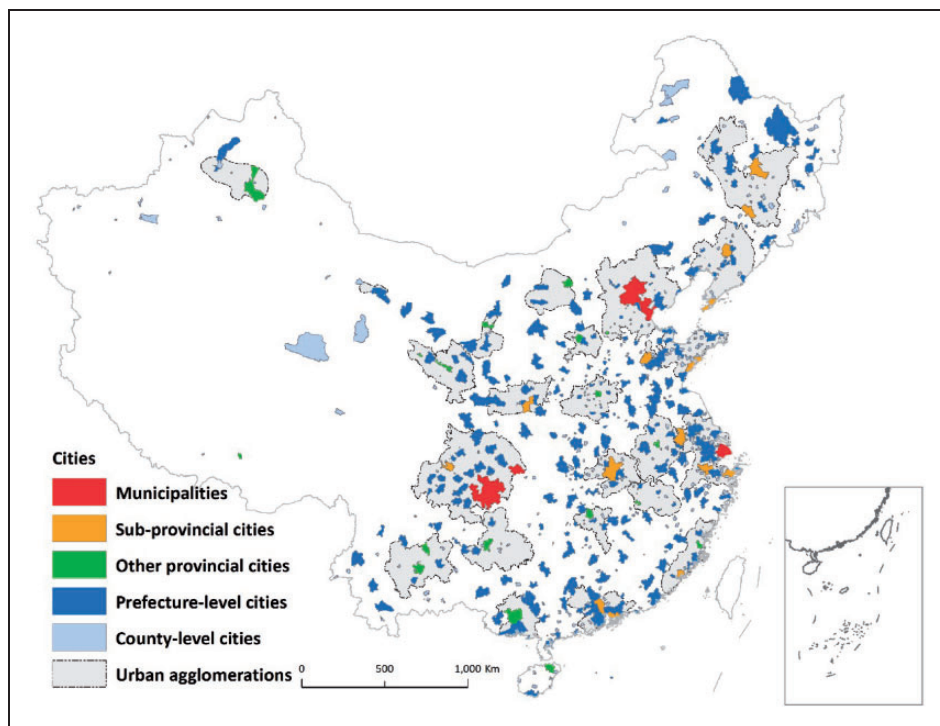


Figure 1. Chinese cities demarcated by administrative area (the polygon in color stands for the administrative area of each city).

Source: Long (2016).

Geographic data

In this paper, our data come from all the major cities in China and we exclude data outside government-defined urban limits. The Chinese central government has specific boundaries and labels that demarcate and categorize Chinese cities and the data from the government's statistical yearbooks are based on this system. The government defines five main administrative levels of cities, including four municipalities (MD, considered Tier 1), 15 subprovincial cities (SPC, Tier 2), 17 other provincial cities (OPCC, Tier 3), 250 prefecture-level cities (PLC, Tier 4), and 367 county-level cities (CLC, Tier 5). As of 2014, there were a total of 653 Chinese cities from all these administrative levels⁶ (Figure 1). Tier 1 cities are generally the largest and have the most mature economies. Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Chongqing are the four Tier 1 cities. Tier 2 cities are cities such as Chengdu and Wuhan, while Tier 3 cities include cities such as Hefei and Changsha. In general, Tier 1 and Tier 2 cities are larger and have more developed economies compared to Tier 3 and Tier 4 cities, with Tier 4 cities having the smallest economies. The administrative boundaries shown in Figure 1 were divided into 782,263 one square kilometer units to represent the main units of analysis used in this paper.⁷

Since not all of the one square kilometer areas located in the official administrative areas shown in Figure 1 are urbanized, we use data from Landsat TM images in the year 2010 by Liu et al. (2014) to identify the urbanized areas. In China, there were a total of 63,425 km² of

urban areas in 2010, as indicated by the data. We categorize any area that has more than 0.5 km² of urban land areas as an urbanized area.⁸ As a result, we determine that there are 43,646 geographic units of urbanized land in total within administrative areas of Chinese cities.

Economic vitality data

To evaluate the economic vitality of each area, we collect data from Dianping. For this analysis, the main data we use as a dependent variable are the quantity of comments on Dianping from the users per geographic unit and we interpret this as a proxy for economic vitality.⁹ The diversified comments range from the evaluation on the meal, the restaurant environment, and even the feelings with the friends dining together. We aim to use Dianping comments to proxy consuming vitality, one of the main components of economic vitality. Rather for all activities, Dianping is dominated by restaurants and shops. While keeping in mind the limitation of the dataset, there are major advantages to using Dianping in this study. First, there is data on all of the Tier 1–4 cities that are used in our analysis. Second, there are no major competitors to Dianping, making it the most comprehensive and representative data source for both foot traffic in addition to actual engagement with commercial establishments within the geographic unit. In total, we were able to collect data from 13 million POIs from Dianping, and there are 1.9 million POIs that have at least one user comment. There are a total of 47 million comments for all POIs on Dianping. In this study, each establishment in Dianping is assigned to an urban geographic unit, and then each unit is linked with anywhere from a few to hundreds of establishments. We found that the Dianping data are not representative for county-level cities since the smallest cities do not always have enough Dianping users, hence we do not analyze Tier 5 cities in this study. Moreover, we only include geographic units that contain at least one user comment, and we remove the top 1% of geographic units that contain the most comments to avoid outliers.

To complete the dataset, we aggregate the comment totals within each geographic unit as a representation of the economic vitality of that unit. After this process of improving data quality, of all of the geographic units we aggregated (as described in “Geographic data” section), there were 24,512 urban geographical units¹⁰ in Tier 1, Tier 2, Tier 3, and Tier 4 cities that met the requirements outlined above. These 24,512 geographic units are the final units used in this analysis (Figure 2).

Urban data

According to three Ds (density, diversity, and design) proposed by Bernick and Cervero (1996) and five Ds (density, diversity, design, distance to transit, and destination accessibility) proposed by Belzer and Autler (2002), we also gather other data (mainly for measuring urban form) as predictive variables for economic vitality for all urban grids.

For the spatial variables, we use six distinct independent variables. This includes intersection density (as a proxy of urban design), POI and population density, access to amenities, and access to transit data for each city. Table 1 shows detailed explanations and data sources for each data type. The first five types of variables are calculated for each geographic unit, similar to the Dianping data. This means that these variables are heterogeneous based on the geographic unit. For all of 24,512 urban geographic units used as samples in this paper, we calculate these five types of data per geographic unit.

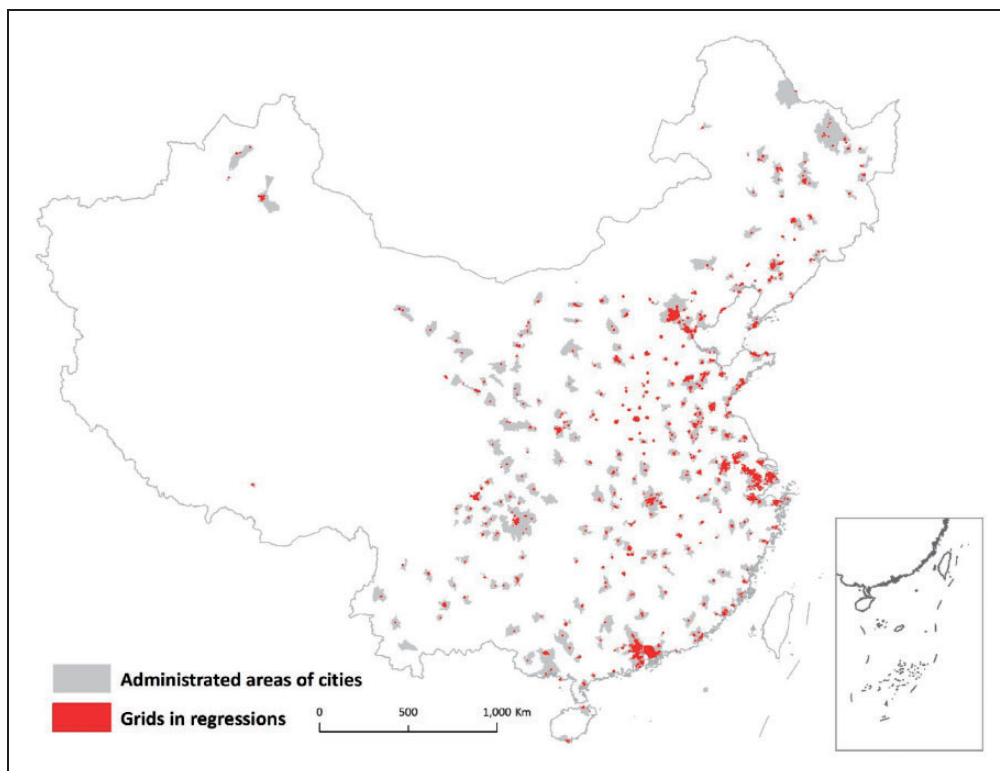


Figure 2. Geographic units used (urban grids).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics.

No.	Name	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. deviation
1	DIANPING	1	30,632	900	2993
2	INTERSECTION	0	462	83	58
3	POI_DENSITY	0	2914	200	254
4	POP_DENSITY	0	195,947	9,270	8324
5	MIXTURE	0	1.94	1.38	0.57
6	AMENITIES	0	113.3	11.2	11.7
7	ACCESSIBILITY	0	336.4	18.0	28.2
8	GDP	6222	249,040	65,170	27,928
9	TERTIARY	9.8	78.7	48.9	13.0
10	INCOME	13,818	71,923	43,052	12,165
11	CITY_LEVEL	2	5	3.0	1.2
N = 24,512					

Results

Explorative data analysis

For further insight on the variables in this analysis, this section will conduct explorative data analysis. Table 2 shows all the variables used in our main regression. The dependent variable

DIANPING, representing total number of comments accrued per geographical unit ranges from 1 to 30,632 per km² and exhibits a long-tailed distribution, shows that there are more units with a very high number of comments than units with a very low number. To balance this, we take the natural log of DIANPING for the regressions. AMENITIES and ACCESSIBILITY are long-tailed distributed as well. In contrast, INTERSECTION, ranging from 0 to 462 intersections per square kilometer, exhibits a left-skewed normal distribution. MIXTURE is right skewed and normally distributed.

Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of DIANPING and INTERSECTION for several representative cities. Both variables exhibit a monocentric spatial structure with the highest

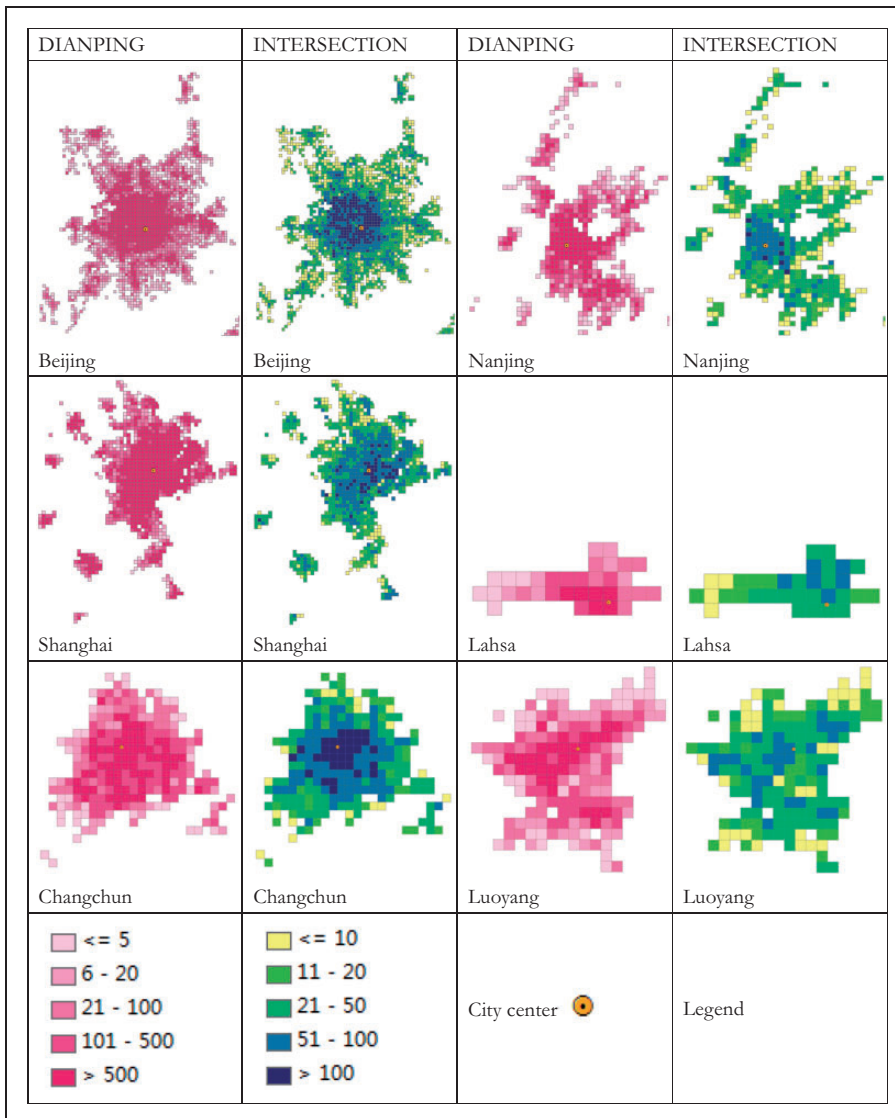


Figure 3. Showing economic vitality (DIANPING) and intersection density (INTERSECTION) for typical Chinese cities.

values concentrating at the center of a city. DIANPING and INTERSECTION in each city are similar in pattern, suggesting a strong correlation may exist between two variables. This is then examined in the following regression models.

Regression results

To understand the effect of spatial variables on economic vitality, we use the regression equation in equation (1). The natural log of the total comments of each grid $\text{Ln}(\text{DIANPING})$ is used as the dependent variable to represent economic vitality. We use OLS as the regression method to understand the effect of various spatial variables on economic vitality.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ln}(\text{DIANPING}) = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{INTERSECTION} \\ & + \beta_2 * \text{POI_DENSITY} + \beta_3 * \text{POP_DENSITY} \\ & + \beta_4 * \text{MIXTURE} + \beta_5 * \text{AMENITIES} \\ & + \beta_6 * \text{ACCESSIBILITY} + \beta_7 * \text{GDP} + \beta_8 * \text{TERTIARY} \\ & + \beta_9 * \text{INCOME} + \beta_{10} * \text{CITY_LEVEL} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Before conducting regression analysis, we examine the possibility of multicollinearity (or collinearity), whose perfect existence may lead a multiple regression model being overfitting or not reliable. Multicollinearity occurs when two or more of the variables in the model are highly correlated, which results in statistical bias and an unstable/unreliable model. One method to detect multicollinearity is to use the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients or Pearson's correlation. Generally speaking, if two variables have a Pearson's correlation above 0.8, there is a high degree of multicollinearity. We find that all 10 independent variables in equation (1) do not correlate with each other using the threshold of 0.8. Another test often used to evaluate the level of multicollinearity is looking at the variance inflation factor (VIF). If any variable has a VIF value greater than 7, it should also be dropped from the model.¹¹ After conducting both tests on all the variables in equation (1), we find that all variables pass correlation analysis and VIF examinations, showing that there is no multicollinearity.

We use several regression models to understand the effect of urban form on economic vitality. The regression results are listed in Table 3. Model 1 only uses one independent variable (INTERSECTION) to explain our dependent variable, $\text{Ln}(\text{DIANPING})$. The results of Model 1 indicate that INTERSECTION has a positive and significant contribution to economic vitality. This single variable can explain about 40% of economic vitality (R-squared of 0.391). Next, Model 2 and Model 3 include other independent variables and control variables to develop a more refined understanding of the effect on economic vitality. Model 2 further introduces other spatial variables at the unit level in addition to intersection density (the key variable for Model 1), and Model 3 includes city-level control variables in addition to these spatial variables. Both Model 2 and Model 3 again suggest that intersection density positively contributes to economic vitality and it is also the most important factor compared to all other variables used in the model.

For Model 1–3 use city-level fixed effects to control for any variability between cities. This means that our results show the average relative impact of intersection density within cities; we are not comparing cities like Beijing to Changsha. Rather, we are trying to understand, in a city like Beijing, how intersection density can explain the differences in economic vitality between different one square kilometer grids. Even after including POI_DENSITY and POP_DENSITY, intersection density still proves to be the most

Table 3. Regression results for all cities (N = 24,512).

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.
(Constant)		<0.001		<0.001		<0.001
INTERSECTION	0.625	<0.001	0.327	<0.001	0.266	<0.001
POI_DENSITY			0.011	0.210	0.052	<0.001
POP_DENSITY			0.116	0.000	0.110	<0.001
MIXTURE			0.095	<0.001	0.125	<0.001
AMENITIES			0.286	<0.001	0.290	<0.001
ACCESS TO TRANSIT			-0.111	<0.001	-0.054	<0.001
GDP					-0.026	<0.001
TERTIARY					-0.015	0.016
INCOME					0.149	<0.001
CITY_LEVEL					0.108	<0.001
City fixed effect	Yes					
Dependent variable	Ln(DIANPING)					
N	24,512					
R ²	0.391		0.487		0.528	

Notes: All coefficients have been standardized for cross comparison, and coefficients in bold indicate being significant at the 0.05 level. The constant value is null as we only list the standardized coefficient in the table. The significant level for constant we keep in the table is for the original constant value. The original constant value is not listed in the table. Sig. indicates the significant level. The notes also apply to the following tables as appropriate.

important factor that explains changes in economic vitality. This finding proves our first research question proposed in the “Introduction” section.

In addition to intersection density, our regression models show that other spatial variables also have a significant effect on economic vitality. Access to amenities (AMENITIES) is also a very important influencing variable, along with access to transit. The coefficient on access to transit shows that for each additional kilometer that particular grid is further away from a public transit station, Ln(DIANPING) decreases by -0.11 . As this variable is a continuous variable and the coefficient is the variation per kilometer, we can see that access to transit increases its effect on economic vitality the further away from transit a certain grid is. MIXTURE also has a significant effect on economic vitality.

In these regressions, there are also some inconsistent regression results. For instance, the effects of GDP and TERTIARY are negative, showing that a geographic unit in a city with a lower economic development levels and lower levels of industry tends to be associated with a greater economic vitality. The effects of these variables are much smaller than spatial variables. There are a few reasons this might be the case. First, the data available for GDP and TERTIARY are at the city level, which makes them much less granular than all of the urban design or social media indicators, which are calculated per geographic unit. Second, a significant portion of GDP growth in China is due to the growth of state-owned enterprises, which is a very distinct sector from the commercial and service establishments that the social media data represent. The negative coefficient on GDP might be due to the fact that overall GDP growth and activity in the service sector are not tightly correlated. This has become a major barrier for the Chinese government in continuing economic growth, as the service sector has been historically difficult to grow in a market economy

that is heavily influenced by the government. Finally, this might show problems with the quality of government economic data in China.

In addition, the positive coefficient of CITY_LEVEL shows that the administrative level of a city can influence its economic vitality, which answers our second research question. We leave more in-depth analysis in “Regression results for different city tiers” section.

Regression results for different city tiers

To further understand the impact of different spatial variables on economic vitality, we run the regression models for different municipal administrative levels. A CITY_LEVEL of 5 represents the highest tier cities (a metropolitan city that is directly governed by the state council) and a CITY_LEVEL of 2 represents the lowest tier cities (prefectural level in our samples). The regression results based on administrative level still show that intersection density and the other urban design indicators have a positive effect on economic vitality. Moreover, we find that the effect is larger for the highest tier cities. The regression model for Tier 1 cities can explain 62.4% of economic vitality. The results also show that access to amenities (AMENITIES), mixed use, and access to transit all have a positive and significant effect on economic vitality for the different tiered cities.¹²

Regression results using other dependent variables

As there could be potential biases in solely looking at Dianping comments to understand economic vitality, we also look at other variables that can explain economic vitality. For these, we look at the average residential housing price per one square kilometer unit and also Sina Weibo records. We use Dianping data for the main regressions is that these data are the largest and most comprehensive across all different types of cities, while housing price data and Weibo data are less comprehensive. We use a similar regression equation to equation (1) with no change in the independent variables (spatial variables) but we use housing price (HOUSING_PRICE) and Weibo records (WEIBO) as the dependent variables. Similar to the previous analysis, we exclude the lowest level administrative cities as the data quality is subpar for those cities (Table 4).

Residential housing price represents the performance of real estate projects. We collected all online housing price information from www.Soufun.com in 2014 and have obtained about 400,000 housing price records. All records are geocoded according to the specific addresses provided on the website, and then these data are laid on top of the square kilometer grids to calculate the average housing price of each grid. We then use this average housing price of each square kilometer grid as the dependent variable in the new model. The regression results shown in Table 5 suggest that intersection density has positive and significant effect on housing price, another indicator that can represent economic vitality. This means that, the smaller the blocks in a particular area, the higher the average housing price in that block. Access to transit also has a positive and significant effect on housing price—the closer the area is to transit, the higher the housing price.

However, it is interesting to note that the impact of the other spatial variables on housing prices varies from their impact on Dianping comments. We find that level of mixed use and access to amenities has a negative effect on housing price. This might be due to the fact that our housing price data are not as comprehensive as the Dianping comments data. It is also possible that level of mixed use in some Chinese cities is still associated with older neighborhoods, which means that the negative effect is due to the fact that older neighborhoods have a higher level of mixed use, and older apartments tend to be valued less.

Table 4. Regression results for each city tier.

Variable	Tier 1		Tier 2		Tier 3		Tier 4	
	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.
(Constant)		0.004		<0.001		0.015		0.844
INTERSECTION	0.357	<0.001	0.286	<0.001	0.177	<0.001	0.215	<0.001
POI_DENSITY	0.066	<0.001	0.038	0.020	0.140	<0.001	0.080	<0.001
POP_DENSITY	0.089	<0.001	0.124	<0.001	0.086	<0.001	0.076	0<0.001
MIXED-USE	0.170	<0.001	0.123	<0.001	0.188	<0.001	0.101	<0.001
AMENITIES	0.148	<0.001	0.317	<0.001	0.329	<0.001	0.322	<0.001
ACCESSIBILITY	-0.187	<0.001	-0.067	<0.001	-0.024	0.107	-0.064	<0.001
GDP	0.125	<0.001	-0.162	<0.001	0.155	<0.001	0.045	<0.001
TERTIARY	-0.149	<0.001	-0.018	0.110	0.005	0.728	0.040	<0.001
INCOME	0.108	<0.001	0.088	<0.001	-0.082	<0.001	0.035	<0.001
City fixed effect	Yes							
Dependent variable	Ln(DIANPING)							
N	4039		5467		2493		12,513	
R ²	0.624		0.569		0.583		0.416	

Table 5. Regression results for housing price and Weibo records.

Variable	Housing price		Weibo	
	Beta	Sig.	Beta	Sig.
(Constant)		<0.001		<0.001
INTERSECTION	0.159	<0.001	0.298	<0.001
POI_DENSITY	-0.026	0.009	-0.027	<0.001
POP_DENSITY	0.107	<0.001	0.105	<0.001
MIXTURE	-0.026	<0.001	0.286	<0.001
AMENITIES	-0.018	0.076	0.252	<0.001
ACCESSIBILITY	-0.070	<0.001	-0.046	<0.001
GDP	-0.052	<0.001	0.018	<0.001
TERTIARY	-0.211	<0.001	0.054	<0.001
INCOME	0.473	<0.001	-0.118	<0.001
CITY_LEVEL	0.053	<0.001	0.085	<0.001
City fixed effect	Yes			
Dependent variable	Ln(HousingPrice)		Ln(Weibo)	
N	17,997		31,823	
R ²	0.536		0.593	

Note: Not all our urbanized grids in the top four levels of cities have housing price information and Weibo records. Therefore, the samples used in the regressions for the both models vary with each other and with our previous models for Dianping as well.

As another indicator of economic vitality, we use data from Sina Weibo. We collected 30.3 million Weibo records that had geographical information (this represents about 1% of all Weibo¹³ posts, as about 1% of Weibos are geotagged) for July and October 2014 for the entirety of China. Like the housing price data, these Weibo data are laid on top of the geographic units so we have a count of how many Weibo records there are per unit. Model 2

of Table 5 shows the regression model with number of Weibo posts as the dependent variable. The model can explain about 60% of online activities, and INTERSECTION, MIXTURE, and AMENITIES all show a positive and significant effect on economic vitality as represented by Weibo. Again, like the Dianping and housing price regressions, we can see that intersection density is the most important factor impacting economic vitality.¹⁴

Similar to how the additional analysis we performed on the regressions using Dianping, we also looked at the regressions using housing price and Weibo records and divided the data by administrative level (CITY_LEVEL). In these regressions, intersection density continued to have a significant and positive impact on both housing price and Weibo records for every city level. This finding is consistent with our previous regression results using Dianping comments as the dependent variable.

Discussion

How urban design variables influences economic vitality continues to be analyzed by various stakeholders such as decision makers, developers, planners and designers, as well as academic researchers. Home buyers or business owners should also be interested in this question as this may impact how their investments on homes, offices, or businesses perform. This paper aimed to disentangle this important question by examining the relationship between urban design indicators and economic vitality while controlling for other variables. This analysis was made possible by the emerging stream of new data sources—social media data, economic data, and other forms of Internet data. We look at 24,512 one square kilometer grids in 286 of the largest cities in China, in contrast to other existing studies that just look at a small set of cities or a single city. For all our regression models, we have found a positive and significant effect of intersection density on economic vitality. And for most of our models, we have also found a positive and significant effect of other urban design indicators such as mixed use, access to amenities, and access to transit. We find that this effect holds for each administrative city level in China, showing that cities of all sizes must consider urban design principles to improve urban development. These findings on the important role of urban design are also shown by our two other proxy indicators for economic vitality—housing price and Weibo records.

We believe that this analysis has a few practical applications. First, the positive effect of intersection density on economic vitality should encourage real estate developers to propose urban planning schemes with smaller blocks. Second, our findings should also be considered by local governments and developers when creating long-term urban development plans. Finally, the database that we created for this analysis will be released in the public domain. We hope that the shared dataset can be used for other urban studies as well.

While we believe that the results of this paper are relatively robust and an important step forward in understanding how to study economic vitality in relation to urban design, we do think there are areas that this analysis could be improved. First, if possible, researchers should obtain data to create a more objective and comprehensive variable to signify economic vitality. Credit card transaction data would be one example of this sort of data. Even more granular data might allow researchers to break urban areas into even smaller geographical units, in contrast to our one square kilometer units, which would provide more accurate and pinpointed insights. Second, other indicators for measuring urban design at a finer level as proposed by Ewing and Clemente (2013), e.g. imageability, enclosure, human scale, transparency, and complexity, could also be included in the regression models to gain more in-depth information on the effect of urban design on economic vitality. Last, in

addition to the OLS-based regression models applied in this paper, researchers could also try spatial regression models or geographical weighted regression models to gain a better understanding.

In conclusion, this study has systematically examined the impact of urban form on economic vitality for the largest cities in China. Our findings contribute to the literature in using data to confirm the importance of urban design principles to further economic vitality. As China will continue to add 300 million people to cities by 2030, it has important implications for Chinese cities that are still developing greenfields and going through redevelopment of existing built-up areas. Empirical evidence continues to confirm the importance of designing cities that have small blocks, high levels of mixed use, and provide access to transit and amenities. We hope that researchers in other countries will continue to use data to make the increasingly compelling case that cities must be built for the human scale.

Acknowledgement

We are grateful to Shiyun (Lily) Qiu for her contribution in completing the literature review. The data used in this analysis are available on Beijing City Lab's website (www.BeijingCityLab.com).

Declaration of conflicting interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: This paper was financially supported by Energy Innovation.

Notes

1. Urban vitality has been widely regarded as an indicator of a continuous gradient of diverse socioeconomic performance (Lees, 2012). It is this feature that makes this concept widely used in sociology, architecture, urban planning and urban design, environmental psychology, to represent various kinds of understandings of vitality.
2. We assume economic vitality is a dimension of urban vitality in this paper, which focuses more on economic vitality rather than the broad urban vitality.
3. We also noticed D'Acci (2015) which related street design parameters with people's preferences and path choice, a dimension of social vitality.
4. Weibo is used by over 30% of Internet users in China, with a market penetration similar to Twitter. It was launched by SINA Corporation on 14 August 2009, and at the end of the fourth quarter of 2014, the number of monthly active users has reached 176 million, 80% of which come from mobile terminals.
5. Dianping can be understood to be the Chinese version of Yelp. That is, the function of www.dianping.com is similar with the website of Yelp which is popular in the USA.
6. Due to changes in the urban system, several inconsistent cities have been excluded.
7. These grids are the same with the grids used in our open data project SinoGrids, see Zhou and Long (2016) for details.
8. In this paper, we use the term urbanized grids to represent those grids within the administrative boundaries of Chinese cities, while they have half urban lands in each grid.

9. Considering it is not always easy to collect other proxy variables for grid-level economic vitality for all Chinese cities, we made a compromise when using the current variable. This strategy has been adopted by Zheng et al. (2016) using the same data source like our study and Shen and Karimi (2017) using housing price records (used as benchmarking data in our study) as well. In addition, the limitation has been indicated in “Discussion” section.
10. We use the term “urban grids” here to differentiate the term “urbanized grids” used in “Literature review” section. In the following context, we will use urban grids for representing our analysis samples.
11. We also conduct an additional experiment via setting the VIF threshold as 10 and find the results are the same with “7” in terms of variable selection.
12. We also take a more detailed look at the DIANPING data based on the administrative level of the city. We found that cities with a higher administrative level were generally associated with a greater average value of DIANPING comments.
13. The same way that a “tweet” is a short message a user would send on Twitter, a “Weibo” is a message that a user sends on Weibo.
14. The contradictory behavior of some variables in the regression analysis of Dianping and Weibo might be callused by the fact that Weibo is losing its users in the recent two years arisen form the competition from WeChat in China. In addition, Weibo is more fitful for representing social vitality, rather economic vitality. This is also why we have chosen Dianping Comments as the main proxy for economic vitality of Chinese cities in this study.

References

- Belzer D and Autler G (2002) *Transit Oriented Development: Moving from Rhetoric to Reality*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy.
- Bernick M and Cervero R (1996) *Transit Villages in the 21st Century*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- D’Acci L (2015) Mathematize urbes by humanizing them. Cities as isobenefit landscapes: Psycho-economical distances and personal isobenefit lines. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 139: 63–81.
- De Nadai M, Staiano J, Larcher R, et al. (2016) The death and life of great Italian cities: A mobile phone data perspective. In: *Proceedings of the 25th international conference on World Wide Web*. International World Wide Web Conferences Steering Committee, Montréal, Québec, Canada, 11–15 April 2016, pp.413–423.
- Dunkel A (2015) Visualizing the perceived environment using crowdsourced photo geodata. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 142: 173–186.
- Ewing R and Cervero R (2010) Travel and the built environment. *Journal of the American Planning Association* 7: 265–294.
- Ewing R and Clemente O (2013) *Measuring Urban Design: Metrics for Livable Places*. Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Gehl J (1971) *Life between Buildings: Using Public Space*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Hess P, Moudon A, Snyder M, et al. (1999) Site design and pedestrian travel. *Transportation Research Record* 1674: 9–19.
- Jacobs J (1961) *The Life and Death of Great American Cities*. New York: Random House.
- Katz P, Scully VJ and Bressi TW (1994) *The New Urbanism: Toward an Architecture of Community*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Krizek KJ (2003) Residential relocation and changes in urban travel: Does neighborhood-scale urban form matter? *Journal of the American Planning Association* 69: 265–281.
- Lees L (2012) Planning urban vitality? *Environment and Planning A* 42: 2302–2308.
- Lefebvre H (1995) *Introduction to Modernity: Twelve Preludes, September 1959–May 1961*. Verso.
- Li W, Joh K, Lee C, et al. (2015) Assessing benefits of neighborhood walkability to single-family property values a spatial hedonic study in Austin, Texas. *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 35: 471–488.
- Liu J, Kuang W, Zhang Z, et al. (2014) Visualizing urban gastronomy in China. *Environment and Planning A* 46: 1012–1013.

- Liu X and Long Y (2016) Automated identification and characterization of parcels with OpenStreetMap and points of interest. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design* 43: 341–360.
- Loehr S (2013) Mixed-use, mixed impact: Re-examining the relationship between non-residential land uses and residential property values. *Columbia University Academic Commons*. Available at: <http://hdl.handle.net/10022/AC:P:20736> (accessed 6 June 2017).
- Long Y (2016) Redefining Chinese city system with emerging new data. *Applied Geography* 75: 36–48.
- Long Y and Zhou Y (2016) Quantitative evaluation on street vibrancy and its impact factors: A case study of Chengdu. *New Architecture* 1: 52–57. (in Chinese with English abstract).
- Lynch K (1981) *Good City Form*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- Madison C and Kovari J (2013) *Impact of Green Infrastructure on Property Values Within the Milwaukee Metropolitan Sewerage District Planning Area: Case Studies*. The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Center for Economic Development, Milwaukee.
- Mao Q, Long Y and Wu K (2016) Spatio-temporal changes of population density and urbanization pattern in China (2000–2010). *China City Planning Review* 25: 8–14.
- MOHURD (2015) *Chinese City Construction Statistics Yearbook 2014*. Beijing: China Planning Press.
- Montgomery J (1998) Making a city: Urbanity, vitality and urban design. *Journal of Urban Design* 3: 93–116.
- Pan X and Chi W (2014) Spatiotemporal characteristics, patterns and causes of land use changes in China since the late 1980s. *Journal of Geographical Science* 69: 3–14.
- Shen Y and Karimi K (2017) The economic value of streets: Mix-scale spatio-functional interaction and housing price patterns. *Applied Geography* 79: 187–202.
- Sung H, Lee S and Cheon S (2015) Operationalizing Jane Jacobs's urban design theory: Empirical verification from the great city of Seoul, Korea. *Journal of Planning Education and Research* 35: 117–130.
- Sunga H, Gob D, Choi C, et al. (2015) Effects of street-level physical environment and zoning on walking activity in Seoul, Korea. *Land Use Policy* 49: 152–160.
- Tajima K (2003) New estimates of the demand for urban green space: Implications for valuing the environmental benefits of Boston's big dig project. *Journal of Urban Affairs* 25: 641–655.
- Van Nes A and Shi Z (2009) Network typology, junction typology and spatial configuration and their impacts on street vitality in Singapore. In: *Seventh international space syntax symposium*, Stockholm, 8–11 June 2009, pp.1–11.
- Whyte WH (1980) *The Social Life of Small Urban Spaces*. Washington, DC: The Conservation Foundation.
- Wu W, Wang J, Li C, et al. (2016) The geography of city liveliness and land use configurations: Evidence from location-based big data in Beijing. *SERC discussion paper*. Available at: <http://www.spatialeconomics.ac.uk/textonly/SERC/publications/download/sercdp0201.pdf> (accessed 6 June 2017).
- Yue Y, Zhuang Y, Yeh AGO, et al. (2017) Measurements of POI-based mixed use and their relationships with neighbourhood vibrancy. *International Journal of Geographical Information Science* 31: 658–675.
- Zheng S, Hu X, Wang J, et al. (2016) Subways near the subway: Rail transit and neighborhood catering businesses in Beijing. *Transport Policy* 51: 81–92.
- Zhou Y and Long Y (2016) SinoGrids: A practice for open urban data in China. *Cartography and Geographic Information Science* 43: 1–14.

Ying Long is now an associate professor in School of Architecture, Tsinghua University, China. His research focuses on urban planning, quantitative urban studies, and applied urban modeling. Before he joined Tsinghua University, he has been worked for Beijing Institute of City Planning as a senior planner for 11 years. Familiar with planning practices in China and versed in the international literature, Dr Long's academic studies

creatively integrates international methods and experiences with local planning practices. Dr Long is also the founder of Beijing City Lab (BCL, www.beijingcitylab.org), an open research network for quantitative urban studies. More information is available at <http://www.beijingcitylab.com/longy>.

CC Huang has worked extensively in sustainable development issues in the United States and China. Her work in establishing quantitative guidelines for urban design at Energy Innovation has been used in Mexico, China, and Sweden and she was the lead author in the Green and Smart Urban Development Guidelines for China Development Bank Capital. She has also worked with Energy Foundation China, Calthorpe Associates, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratories, and the Natural Resources Defense Council. Currently, she is working at Equilibrium to grow sustainable investment in agriculture, green cities, and renewable energy. Her work has been featured in *Science*, *Forbes*, *Fortune China*, among others. She received her MPA at Princeton University and her BA at George Washington University.