



A multi-scale study of the scale effect on the spatial mismatch in urban centres: A case study of Tianjin

Lingxin Meng¹, Zao Zhang^{1,*}, Xuan Wang¹, Lifeng Tan^{1,2}

¹ School of Architecture, Tianjin University, Tianjin, 300072, China

² School of Architecture, Tianjin Chengjian University, Tianjin, 300384, China

*Corresponding author's e-mail: zao.zhang@tju.edu.cn

Abstract. Currently, the urban job-housing problem is increasingly severe, and scale effects strongly influence the results of studies. To achieve a more comprehensive and accurate analysis and assessment of the job-housing relationship in urban centers, this study takes Tianjin as an example, and with the help of Baidu Map Insight spatial and temporal big data, adopts spatial analysis, regression analysis and other methods to establish a multi-scale job-housing relationship impact model with administrative districts, streets and TAZs (traffic analysis zones) as the research units, which provides a methodological reference for weakening the scaling effect. The study found that (1) in terms of research methodology, multi-scale composite studies can effectively weaken the impact of scale variation on research results; (2) in the correspondence between the influencing factors and the study level, with the gradual refinement of the study level, the type of influencing factors was transformed from the urban construction category to the personal attribute category, and the different influences have different primary action levels; (3) in terms of the mechanism of influence, some of the personal attribute factors have a strong regularity in the mechanism of influence, while those of the urban built factors are more complex, which suggests that the urban built factors have a high sensitivity to the scale effect.

Keywords: spatial mismatch; job-housing; scale effect; urban centre.

1 Introduction

As urbanization advances, the spatial separation problem in large and medium-sized cities has grown increasingly serious, with the average commuting distance and commuting time of urban residents growing, and the proportion of happy commuters within 5 kilometers of China's major cities declining year-on-year for three consecutive years[1]. In the study of job-housing issues, the research scale is the focus, mainly because of the following two points: (1) different scales can reflect different contents, and the complexity of the urban job-housing relationship makes it difficult to be explained clearly from a single scale; (2) changes in the research scale have a significant

impact on the results of the study, which is known as scale effect, and it was firstly put forward by Western scholars, Small[2].

In the measurement of job-housing relationship, when the job-housing ratio is 1, it means that the region has reached the state of job-housing balance. This leads to the fact that the larger the spatial analysis unit, the easier it is to achieve equilibrium[3]. Conversely, the smaller the study unit, the greater the more dramatic the change in the job-housing ratio[4,5]. The conclusions of a study based on a larger scale may differ considerably when implemented into one of the smaller scale research units; at the same time, the conclusions of a study based on a smaller scale are difficult to form the conclusions of a larger scale study by simple combination. Therefore, the findings of a single-scale study cannot fully represent the true job-housing situation.

Existing studies often measure job-housing relationships from scale analysis units such as administrative districts, streets, TAZs (traffic analysis zones), and buffer zones of different radiuses[6-9], which can be summarized into three types of scales: macro, meso, and micro. It was found that more in-depth and comprehensive analyses can be obtained when multiple levels of research are complementary to each other[10,11]. Macro and meso scales can effectively grasp the overall situation, but are not detailed enough; micro scales can make up for this shortcoming, but they do not well reflect regional phenomena, which can be supplemented by studies at meso and macro scales. Most of the current research on job-housing relationships specializes in a single scale and lacks multi-scale research.

In summary, this study will focus on the following questions: (1) Can the multilevel composite analysis comprehensively and in-depth conclusions of the study of job-housing relationships? (2) What are the characteristics in terms of the correspondence between the influencing factors and the study levels, and the influencing mechanisms?

2 Method

2.1 Subjects and study levels

This study takes the central city of Tianjin as the research object. The central city is the political, economic, and cultural center of Tianjin. For Tianjin, the spatial mismatch in the central city stems from the historical legacy on the one hand. On the other hand, it is due to the early start of its urban development and rapid urbanization that fails to take care of the balanced development needs of the city's occupational and residential relations. Many city centers in China and worldwide face similar situations, making Tianjin typical for the study.

In order to alleviate the constraints of scale effects in the study of job-housing relations, this study compounds three levels of study with the help of existing administrative divisions, including administrative districts, streets, and TAZ, as shown in Figure 1. The study area contains six administrative districts, 65 streets, and 435 TAZ. Similar traffic characteristics and strong traffic associations within the same TAZ can be used to simplify complex networks.

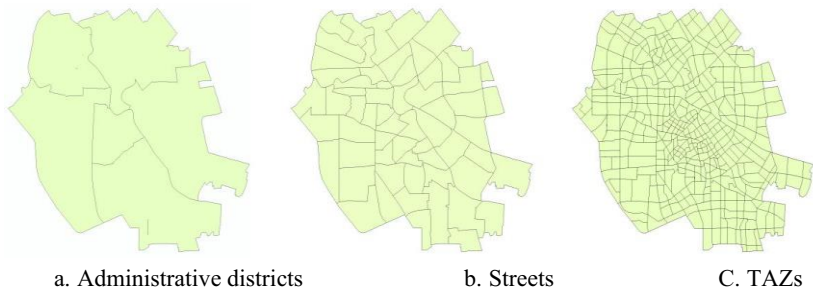


Fig. 1. Graphical representation of each study level

2.2 Research Methods

The study adopts a one-way regression method, with commuting distance as the dependent variable, and the research data mainly comes from Baidu Map Insight. One of the essential steps is the selection and hierarchical matching of influencing factors.

Preliminary screening was carried out by analyzing the reasons for the formation of the status quo of spatial separation, summarizing the relevant domestic and foreign literature, and then combining the frequency of various types of factors in the established high-level literature, the objective conditions of whether the factors can be quantified, and the actual situation of whether the data are publicly available. There are seven urban built environment factors, including city scales, compactness, Urban public transportation, land use mix, and urban functional arrangement[12-15]. Nine personal attributes and socio-economic factors, including gender, age, special life stages, educational background, income, availability of a private vehicle, commuting mode, and house price[16-21].

Further, based on the established research and logical deduction for research level matching and influencing factors detailing, a research schedule of influencing factors of job-housing relationship under the multi-scale perspective was derived, as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Research program on factors influencing the job-housing balance under a multi-scale perspective

Influencing Factors	Specific indicators and their acronyms	I	II	III
Scales	Area (A)	•	•	•
	Number of resident population (NR), workforce(NW)	•	•	•
Compactness	Density of resident population(DR), workforce(DW)	•	•	•
	Road network density (RND)	•		
Urban public transportation	Number of rail stations(N_{RS}), rail interchanges(N_{RI})	•	•	
	Density of rail stations(D_{RS}), rail interchanges(D_{RI})	•	•	

	Number and density of public transport stations(N_{PS} , D_{PS})	• • •
Mixed land use	Urban function mixing degree (UFMD)	• • •
Urban functional arrangement	Number of POIs in each category: residential (N_{RPOI}), medical (N_{MPOI}), education and training (N_{ETPOI}), exercise and fitness (N_{EFOI}), cultural and media (N_{CMPOI}), government agency (N_{GPOI}), corporate enterprise (N_{CEPOI}), financial (N_{FPOI}), shopping (N_{SPOI}), accommodation service (N_{ASPOI}), beauty (N_{BPOI}), catering (N_{CPOI}), tourist attractions (N_{TAPOI}), leisure and entertainment (N_{LEPOI})	• • •
	Density of POIs in each category: residential($DRPOI$), medical($DMPOI$), education and training($DETPOI$), exercise and fitness($DEFOI$), cultural and media($DCMPOI$), government agency($DGPOI$), corporate enterprise($DCEPOI$), financial($DFPOI$), shopping($DSPOI$), accommodation service($DASPOI$), beauty($DBPOI$), catering($DCPOI$), tourist attractions($DTAPOI$), leisure and entertainment($DLEPOI$)	• • •
gender	Percentage of resident population/ workforce whose sex is male(PSR_M , PSW_M), female(PSR_F , PSW_F)	• •
age	Percentage of resident population/ workforce aged 18 and under(PAR_{18-}), 18-24(PAR_{18-24} , PAW_{18-24}), 25-34(PAR_{25-34} , PAW_{25-34}), 35-44(PAR_{35-44} , PAW_{35-44}), 45-54(PAR_{45-54} , PAW_{45-54}), 55-64(PAR_{55-64} , PAW_{55-64}), 65 and above(PAR_{65+} , PAW_{65+})	• •
Special life stages	Percentage of resident population at junior high school(PR_{JH}), high school(PR_H), Percentage of resident population/ workforce attending university(PR_{BD} , PW_{BD}), in postgraduate studies(PR_{MD} , PW_{MD}), pregnant(PR_P , PW_P), with a 0-1-year-old child at home(PR_{0-1CH} , PW_{0-1CH}), with a 1-3-year-old child at home(PR_{1-3CH} , PW_{1-3CH}), with a 3-6-year-old child at home(PR_{3-6CH} , PW_{3-6CH}), with primary school children at home(PR_{PCH} , PW_{PCH}), with junior high school student at home(PR_{JHH} , PW_{JHH}), with high school student at home(PR_{HH} , PW_{HH}), with pregnant women at home(PR_{PH} , PW_{PH})	• •
Educational background	Percentage of resident population/ workforce with educational background of upper secondary and below($PEBR_H$, $PEBW_H$), Percentage of resident population with Associate degree($PEBR_A$, $PEBW_A$), Percentage of resident population with educational attainment of bachelor's degree and above($PEBR_B+$, $PEBW_B+$)	• •
Income	Disposable income per capita(DI)	•
	Percentage of resident population/ workforce with monthly income of 2,499CNY or less (PIR_{2499-} , PIW_{2499-}), 2500-3999CNY ($PIR_{2500-3999}$, $PIW_{2500-3999}$), 4000-7999CNY ($PIR_{4000-7999}$, $PIW_{4000-7999}$), 8000-19999CNY ($PIR_{8000-19999}$, $PIW_{8000-19999}$), 20000CNY and above (PIR_{20000+} , PIW_{20000+})	• •
Availability of a private vehicle	Percentage of resident population/workforce with a private car($PWCR_Y$, $PWCW_Y$), without a private car($PWCR_N$, $PWCW_N$)	• •
Commuting mode	Percentage of resident population/ workforce commuting by metro(PCR_M , PCW_M), by public transport(PCR_P , PCW_P), by bicycle(PCR_B , PCW_B), on foot(PCR_W , PCW_W), using car as a mode of commuting(PCR_C , PCW_C)	• • •
House price	House price(HP)	• •

*I is for large scale; II is for medium scale; III is for small scale.

3 Result

The quantified impact factors were fitted to the data with the one-way average commuting distances of residents ($AOCD_R$) and the workforce ($AOCD_W$) to obtain an impact model. The independent variables with significant effects are recorded in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of regression results

Independent variable	The dependent variable is AOCD _R			The dependent variable is AOCD _W			Independent variable	The dependent variable is AOCD _R			The dependent variable is AOCD _W		
	A	S	TAZ	A	S	TAZ		A	S	TAZ	A	S	TAZ
NR			↑			↓							
DR	↓					↓	DW				↑	↑	
N _{RS}				↑			D _{PS}				↓		
N _{RPOI}						↓	D _{RPOI}						↓
N _{MPOI}	↓						D _{CEPOI}	↓	↓				
N _{ETPOI}				↑			D _{SPOI}	↓					
N _{SPOI}	↑						D _{CPOI}	↓	↓				
N _{CPOI}	↓	↓					D _{ASPOI}	↓					
N _{BPOI}						↓	D _{LEPOI}	↓					
N _{ASPOI}	↓			↑			D _{GPOI}	↓					
N _{LEPOI}	↓					↓	D _{MPOI}	↓			△		
N _{MPOI}	↓					↓	D _{CMPOI}	↓					
N _{CMPOI}	↓			↑	↑		D _{LPOI}	↓			↓		
N _{LPOI}	↓	↓					D _{ETPOI}						
N _{ETPOI}	↓	↓					D _{EPPOI}	↓					
HP	↓		↑	↑			DI				↑		
PIR ₂₄₉₉₋				↓			PIW ₂₄₉₉₋				↓	↓	↓
PIR ₂₅₀₀₋₃₉₉					↑		PIW ₂₅₀₀₋₃₉₉₉	↑			↓	↑	
PIR ₄₀₀₀₋₁₉₉				↑	↑		PIW ₄₀₀₀₋₇₉₉₉	↑			↓	↓	
PIR ₈₀₀₀₋₁₉₉₉₉				↑	↑		PIW ₈₀₀₀₋₁₉₉₉₉	↓			↑	↑	
RND	↑						PIW ₂₀₀₀₀₊	↓			↑	↑	
PSR _M			△		↑		PSW _M	↓				↑	
PSR _F			△		↓		PSW _F	↑				↓	
PCR _C	↑			↑	↑		PCW _C	↑					
PCR _M	↓	↑	↑				PCW _M	↓			↓	↑	↑
PCR _P	↑			↓	↓		PCW _P	↑			↓	↓	↓
PCR _B	↓	↓					PCW _B				↓	↓	↓
PCR _W	↓	↓					PCW _W	↑			↑	↓	↓
PAR ₁₈₋₂₄					↑		PEBR _{IL}						↑
PAR ₂₅₋₃₄	↑				↑		PEBR _A				↓	↓	
PAR ₃₅₋₄₄							PEBR _{B+}				↑	↑	
PAR ₅₅₋₆₄				↓	↓		PEBW _{IL}	↑				↓	
PAR ₆₅₊	↓	↓			↓		PEBW _A					↓	
PAW ₁₈₋₂₄				↑	↑		PEBW _{B+}	↓			↑		
PAW ₂₅₋₃₄				↑	↑		PAW ₅₅₋₆₄						↓
PAW ₄₅₋₅₄					↓		PAW ₆₅₊				↓	↓	
PWCR _Y	↑	↑		↑			PWCW _Y				↑	↑	
PWCR _N	↓			↓			PWCW _N					↓	
PR _{HI}	↓						PW _{BD}						↑
PR _{LI}				↑			PW _{MD}	↓					↑
PR _{BD}					↑		PW _P	↓			↑		
PR _{MD}	↓				↑		PW _{PH}				↑		
PR _P					↓		PW _{0-1CH}				↑		

Inde- pendent variable	The dependent variable is $AOCD_R$	The dependent variable is $AOCD_W$	Independent variable	The dependent variable is $AOCD_R$	The dependent variable is $AOCD_W$
PR_{PH}	↓		$PW_{1.3CH}$		↑ ↑
$PR_{0.1CH}$		↓ ↓	$PW_{3.6CH}$		↑ ↑
$PR_{1.3CH}$		↓	PW_{PCH}		↓ ↓
$PR_{3.6CH}$		↓	PW_{HHH}		↓ ↓
PR_{PCH}		↓ ↓	PW_{HHH}		↓
PR_{HHH}	↓				

* "↑" indicates linear positive correlation and a segment in the binomial where the fitted data are already presenting mainly positive correlation; "↓" denotes linear negative correlation and a segment of the binomial where the fitted data are already presenting predominantly negative correlation; "△" indicates a binomial relationship and a more symmetrical parabola, and blank indicates no significant association; A is for administrative district; S is for streets.

4 Conclusions

The regression results and mechanisms of influence are analyzed and summarised separately according to the influencing factor categories and study levels.

(1) Scales: Population size is significant at the TAZ level only, with NR being proportional to the $AOCD_R$ and inversely proportional to $AOCD_W$.

(2) Compactness: Population aggregation has a significant effect at all three study levels. It can be summarised as follows: within a certain level of agglomeration, the higher the DR and DW, the higher the likelihood of employment nearby; when the DR is too high, the supply of jobs exceeds the demand, and when the NR is too high, there is not enough living space and house prices rise, both of which lead to a situation of spatial separation and an increase in the commuting distance. RND is positively correlated with commuting distance in conjunction with road width and on-street parking conditions.

(3) Urban public transportation: Public transport stops have a significant impact at the ward level only, clarifying their primary level of effect. In particular, N_{RS} is mainly positively correlated with $AOCD_W$, and D_{PS} is negatively correlated with it, which suggests that the metro is significantly different from buses. It can be analyzed with the effects of commuting modes.

(4) Mixed land use and urban functional arrangement: The UFMD did not have a significant effect on commuting distance, but the number and density of urban functional POIs essentially affected it, mainly on the street study level and the $AOCD_W$. In other words, the clustering of urban functions at the street level can effectively shorten the commuting distance and inhibit the further development of spatial mismatch.

(5) Gender: The gender factor has a strong influence at both the street and TAZ study levels, with the proportion of males being positively correlated with the $AOCD_W$ and the proportion of females being negatively correlated. To reduce the overall commuting distance, more jobs targeting female recruitment can be created in and around residential areas. However, from another perspective, this practice will aggravate the shackles of the traditional thinking that "women should give preference to taking care of their families over their careers," creating obstacles to women's independence and autonomy and thus intensifying the gender dichotomy. This also shows that compre-

hensive consideration should be considered in formulating the relevant policies to uphold fairness and justice.

(6) Age: The focus of life differs for each age group, but the pursuits are similar for the same age group. Therefore, the effect of age has a strong regularity at the street and TAZ study levels. With a dividing line of 35 years of age, the proportion of the population aged 18-34 is directly proportional to the commuting distance, and the proportion of the population aged 35 and over is inversely proportional.

(7) Special Life Stages: At the street level, PR_{MD} , PW_{MD} , PR_P , and PW_P are negatively correlated with the dependent variable due to maternity and school residency. At the street and TAZ level, the proportion of the population with a preschooler at home is positively correlated with commuting distance. In contrast, the proportion of the population with a student at home is mainly negatively correlated with commuting distance due to local schooling policies nearby. However, the impact of policies is difficult to quantify, and most of the relevant data are confidential, so there are few quantitative studies on it.

(8) Educational background: The effect of educational qualifications on spatial mismatch is more pronounced at the street level. The essential regularity can be summarised as the proportion of the population with tertiary education and below is inversely proportional to the commuting distance. In contrast, the proportion of the population with a bachelor's degree and above is positively proportional.

(9) Income: The effect of income on commuting distance is strong, and the mechanism is regular at the two extreme intervals of the highest and lowest incomes. Due to the existence of urban villages, groups with incomes of 2,499CNY and below can combine low rents and low transport costs in the study area, achieving a state of relative job-housing balance, which is inversely proportional to the dependent variable. Income groups above 8,000 seeking a higher quality of life positively correlate with commuting distance.

(10) Commuting modes: The proportion of people commuting by metro and by car is mainly positively correlated with commuting distance; the proportion of people using walking, cycling, and public transport as commuting modes is mainly negatively correlated with it. This suggests that promoting non-motorized transportation not only contributes to low-carbon goals but also encourages spatial job-housing balance.

(11) Availability of a private vehicle: The proportion of people with a car is positively correlated with commuting distance, and the proportion of people without a car is negatively correlated with it, with a clear pattern of influence.

(12) House prices: House prices are directly proportional to $A OCD_W$ and inversely proportional to $A OCD_R$. The higher the house prices within an area, the more difficult it is for the workforce to achieve residence nearby.

Based on the specific analysis of the types of influencing factors, it is further condensed to answer the research question through the influencing factors and influencing mechanisms at each level, and the relationship of changes between different levels: (1) In terms of research methodology, composite multi-scale research can weaken the impact of scale effects, and this methodology can be widely applied in research on occupational and residential issues aimed at reducing the impact of scale effects. (2) In terms of the types of influencing factors and their correspondence with the study levels,

from the administrative district level to the TAZ level, the significant influencing factors underwent a shift from urban built-up factors to personal attributes and socio-economic factors as the study units were reduced in size. Different influencing factors have different levels of significant effects. A typical example is that various urban functions play a more decisive role at the street level. Commuting distance is more sensitive to fluctuations in the age factor at the TAZ level. Thus, compounding multiple levels of research can help to obtain more comprehensive and objective conclusions. (3) In terms of the influence mechanism, the degree of significance and the influence mechanism of the same factor is not the same at different levels of the study. However, personal attributes and socio-economic factors are basically able to reflect a strong regularity at all scales, including age, gender, education, income, commuting mode, and availability of a private vehicle, which suggests that the scale effect is relatively weaker on the personal attributes and socio-economic factors, but significant on the urban built factors.

Acknowledgments

This study is one of the phase results of the project "Theoretical Research on Urban Green Production and Ecological Land Saving" (grant number: 51978443) of the National Natural Science Foundation of China.

Reference

1. Urban Transportation Infrastructure Monitoring and Governance Laboratory of the Ministry of Housing and Urban-Rural Development, China Academy of Urban Planning and Design, Baidu Map. (2023) China's Major Cities Commuting Monitoring Report 2023. <https://bj.bcebos.com/v1/mapopen/cms/report/2023tongqin/index.html>.
2. Small, K. A., & Song, S. (1992). "Wasteful" Commuting: A Resolution. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(4), 888–898. <https://doi.org/10.1086/261844>.
3. Cervero, R. (1996). Jobs-Housing Balance Revisited: Trends and Impacts in the San Francisco Bay Area. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 62(4), 492–511. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01944369608975714>.
4. Pan, H., & Wang, Z. (2020). The Effects of Spatial Measurement Choice and Multi-dimensional Factors on Jobs-Housing Balance. *Urban Planning Forum*, 02, 25–31.
5. Zhou, X., Sun, C., & Niu, X. (2021). Spatial Scale Problem of Jobs-Housing Relationship Based on CellphoneData: Case Studies of Shanghai and Shenzhen. *Urban Planning International*, 36(05), 78–85.
6. Lu, L., Shao, S., & Liu, H. (2021). Urban Jobs-Housing Spatial Relationship Exploration with Floating Car Data. *Journal of Geomatics*, 46(03), 110–113. <https://doi.org/10.14188/j.2095-6045.2018115>.
7. Meng, B. (2009). The Spatial Organization of the Separation between Jobs and Residential Locations in Beijing. *Acta Geographica Sinica*, 64(12), 1457–1466.
8. Long, Y., Zhang, Y., & Cui, C. (2012). Identifying Commuting Pattern of Beijing Using Bus Smart Card Data. *Acta Geographica Sinica*, 67(10), 1339–1352.

9. Wu, J., Tan, S., & Wang, Y. (2021). Analysis of impact of suburban railway on the spatial vitality of cities and towns. *Journal of Beijing Jiaotong University*, 45(04), 61–68.
10. Guo, L., Bi, Y., Huang, J., Zheng, C., Hu, G., & Wang, G. (2018). Multi-scale Comparison and Analysis of Jobs-housing Spatial Characteristics in Big Cities-Taking Wuhan as an Example. *Urban Planning Forum*, 05, 88–97.
11. Shi, R., Gao, Y., & Yang, C. (2022). Structural Characteristics of Multiscale Jobs-housing Space Based on SCD: A Case Study of Xiamen. *Urban Planning Forum*, 04, 87–94.
12. Aston, L., Currie, G., Delbosc, A., Kamruzzaman, Md., & Teller, D. (2020). Exploring built environment impacts on transit use – an updated meta-analysis. *Transport Reviews*, 41(1), 73–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2020.1806941>.
13. Zhang, Y., Zhen, F., Luosang, Z., Zhu, W., & Tang, P. (2019). Urban Working-housing Balance and Influencing Factors Based on Multi-source Data. *Planners*, 35(07), 84–89.
14. Yang, T. (2020). Understanding commuting patterns and changes: Counterfactual analysis in a planning support framework. *Environment and Planning B: Urban Analytics and City Science*, 47(8), 1440–1455. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2399808320924433>.
15. Deng, X., Liu, Y., Gao, F., Liao, S., Zhou, F., & Cai, G. (2021). Spatial Distribution and Mechanism of Urban Occupation Mixture in Guangzhou: An Optimized GeoDetector-Based Index to Compare Individual and Interactive Effects. *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information*, 10(10), 659. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijgi10100659>
16. Wong, C., Zheng, W., & Qiao, M. (2019). Urban expansion and neighbourhood commuting patterns in the Beijing metropolitan region: A multilevel analysis. *Urban Studies*, 57, 004209801988425. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098019884254>.
17. Nkeki, F. N., & Asikhia, M. O. (2019). Geographically weighted logistic regression approach to explore the spatial variability in travel behaviour and built environment interactions: Accounting simultaneously for demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. *Applied Geography*, 108, 47–63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2019.05.008>.
18. Li, C., Zhang, Y., & Chai, Y. (2021). Do spatial factors outweigh institutional factors? Changes in influencing factors of home-work separation from 2007 to 2017 in Beijing. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 96, 103201. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2021.103201>.
19. Yan, R., Liu, B., Li, C., Gu, K., & Yang, X. (2022). Study on Job-housing Characteristics and Influencing Factors in Central Urban Area of Hefei City. *Areal Research and Development*, 41(05), 63–72.
20. Guo, J., Feng, T., & Timmermans, H. J. P. (2020). Co-dependent workplace, residence and commuting mode choice: Results of a multi-dimensional mixed logit model with panel effects. *Cities*, 96, 102448. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2019.102448>.
21. Zhang, X., Song, J., Yu, W., & Wang, Z. (2021). Formation mechanism of Beijing's jobs-housing spatial relationship based on residents' perception. *Acta Geographica Sinica*, 76(02), 383–397.

Open Access This chapter is licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits any noncommercial use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license and indicate if changes were made.

The images or other third party material in this chapter are included in the chapter's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the chapter's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder.

