

Assessment on China's urbanization after the implementation of main functional areas planning

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27 distribution of the population and economy, improve the efficiency of space utilization
28 and realize the goal of sustainable development, China has implemented main
29 functional areas planning (MFAP) (Fan et al., 2012b; Fan et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017).
30 Urban development, as one of the critical topics emphasized in MFAP, has sparked
31 increasing attention (Du et al., 2014; Guan et al., 2018).

32 Urban development is mostly accompanied by population agglomeration,
33 socioeconomic development and urban land expansion (Li, G. et al., 2018; Liu, Y. et al.,
34 2018; Ramachandra et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019). Researchers have been devoted to
35 evaluating urban development from different perspectives. Numerous studies have
36 focused on comparing the differences in urban development at different territorial levels
37 based on data from multiple years (Bai et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2015; Kuang et al., 2016;
38 Li, G. et al., 2018; Shu et al., 2018; Zhan et al., 2018). Methods such as the
39 comprehensive index system, quadrant plots method, exploratory spatial data analysis,
40 correlation analysis, stepwise regression and the McKinsey matrix have been widely
41 adopted (Chen et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2015; Zhang, W. et al., 2018; Zhang, Y. et al.,
42 2018; Zhao and Wang, 2018; Zhao, Y. et al., 2018). Undoubtedly, scholars have made
43 progress in urbanization evaluations. Since administrative variables play important
44 roles in the management of urban development in developing countries (Fang et al.,
45 2016; Vojnovic, 2014), previous studies must be expanded to understand the strategic
46 requirements of urban development (Fang et al., 2016; li and Liu, 2019; Wang, Z. et al.,
47 2018; Zou et al., 2016). MFAP clearly shows that the core of county-level urban
48 development should focus on concentrated distributions of industry, population and

49 urban spaces (Fan et al., 2012a); however, the county-level urban development across
50 China after MFAP was released has not been systematically quantified (Chen et al.,
51 2013; Fan et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2018). The current studies that have
52 evaluated urban development based on county-level units have been mostly restricted
53 to typical areas and depend on multiple indicators (Liu and Wei, 2014; Xiao et al., 2018;
54 Yang and Jiang, 2018; Zhou et al., 2015), making county-level data collection across
55 the whole nation difficult.

56 The growing interest in evaluating urban development through the consideration
57 of policy demands is also observed worldwide and is mainly focused on the
58 establishment of comparable indicators for sustainable urban assessments (Dhakal and
59 Imura, 2003; Holden, 2006; Klopp and Petretta, 2017; Meijering et al., 2018; Moreno
60 Pires et al., 2014; Yigitcanlar and Lönnqvist, 2013), creation of a global city policy
61 database (Rozhenkova et al., 2019; Townsend, 2015), analysis of official documents
62 (Medina and Huete García, 2019), and design of survey experiments (Pleger et al.,
63 2018). However, quantitative evaluation of urban development across the whole nation
64 linked to policy metrics is still challenging due to a lack of consensus on the correct
65 approach (Hák et al., 2016; Hasan and Satterthwaite, 2005; Parnell, 2016). Given that
66 governance management systems are relatively weak in most developing countries and
67 that disorganized urbanization is increasingly prominent (Bren d'Amour et al., 2017),
68 unified measurements of urban development that translate policy targets are urgently
69 needed (Al shawabkeh et al., 2019; Colléony and Shwartz, 2019; Ouyang et al., 2016;
70 Ramachandra et al., 2015; Yue et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2012).

71 Thus, this study attempted to develop unified indicators that could be comparable
72 at the county scale across China, adequately reveal the regional disparity in urban
73 development, and directly inform decision-making in MFAP and the sustainable
74 development in developing countries (Zhang et al., 2015). The specific objectives were
75 1) to develop an index system for the assessment of urban development levels (UDLs)
76 to satisfy multiple needs of the county-scale spatial units, the accessibility of data and
77 ability to depict policy targets; 2) to assess the temporal changes in the UDLs from 2009
78 to 2015 in China; 3) to compare multi-scale regional differences in the UDLs in the
79 years 2009, 2012, and 2015; and 4) to propose policy recommendations to serve further
80 urban development and spatial regulation in China.

81 **2. Methodology**

82 2.1 Study area

83 The study area included 2850 counties, districts and banners, except Hong Kong,
84 Macao and Taiwan, which lack data in China. The "two-horizontal" spatial urbanization
85 pattern (See Fig. S1) included the Asia-Europe and ridge passageway, which starts from
86 Lianyungang city and ends in Alataw pass (H1), and the passageway along the Yangtze
87 River in China (H2). The "three-longitudinal" spatial urbanization pattern included the
88 coastal passageway (L1), the "Beijing-Harbin to Beijing-Guangzhou" passageway (L2),
89 and the "Baotou to Kunming" passageway (L3). In MFAP, the national land was divided
90 into four categories, which are the main functional areas (MFAs) (See Fig.1). The
91 classification of MFAs are displayed in Fig. S2. There are four geographical great-areas
92 in terms of provincial administrative level in China, which are eastern China covers 10

93 provincial level administrative units (Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shanghai, Jiangsu,
94 Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong, Guangdong and Hainan), central China covers 6 provincial
95 level administrative units (Shanxi, Henan, Anhui, Jiangxi, Hunan and Hubei), western
96 China covers 12 provincial level administrative units (Guangxi, Chongqing, Sichuan,
97 Guizhou, Yunnan, Gansu, Shaanxi, Inner Mongolia, Ningxia, Xinjiang, Qinghai and
98 Xizang) and northeastern China covers 3 provincial level administrative units (Liaoning,
99 Heilongjiang and Jilin).

100 2.2 Data

101 The GDP and urban population of each county were obtained from statistical
102 yearbooks. The areas of each county were obtained from the Ministry of Civil Affairs
103 of the People's Republic of China (<http://www.mca.gov.cn/>). The national and
104 provincial MFAP (2010–2020) was obtained from the official government website
105 (<https://www.ndrc.gov.cn/>). The construction land areas were interpreted with land use
106 data downloaded from the Resource and Environment Data Cloud Platform, Institute
107 of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research (<http://www.resdc.cn/>) (see
108 Table S1, S2 for full details). We also carried out field surveys in Ningxia, Shaanxi,
109 Gansu, Fujian, Beijing, Zhejiang, Hainan, Inner Mongolia and Hubei.

110 2.3 Methods

111 2.3.1 Comprehensive index evaluation method

112 The comprehensive index evaluation method is widely used to assess the status of
113 urban development (Bai et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2014; Zhou et al.,
114 2015). Indexes can reflect the evolutionary process of urban systems that are induced

115 by the dynamic interactions between related human activities (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao
116 and Wang, 2018). Currently, nationwide assessments on UDLs based on comprehensive
117 index evaluation method is still lacking and the basic unit mostly concentrated at the
118 municipal level and the provincial level (Shu et al., 2018; Zhao and Wang, 2018).
119 Although UDLs assessment at county level on specific provinces have relatively
120 systematic frameworks, it is difficult to scale up single case studies to the whole national
121 due to the limitations on universality of the index system and availability of data (Zhou
122 et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019). We built on this background and performed our work,
123 which satisfied multiple needs of the county-scale spatial units, data accessibility and
124 the ability to depict the requirements of the UDLs in MFAP. The unified county-level
125 evaluation system, when compared to nation-level and province-level evaluation
126 systems, is advantageous to reflect the UDLs of county-level administrations directly,
127 quantify the regional disparity of UDLs adequately, and realize the connection of macro
128 scale and micro scale on management targets. The evaluation system mainly included
129 3 main steps.

130 First, the evaluation indicator system and the county-scale database were
131 developed. Urban development is a complex dynamic process that is accompanied by
132 multidimensional factor changes (Chen et al., 2010; Tan et al., 2018; Xiao et al., 2018;
133 Zhao and Wang, 2018). Previous studies have shown that the evaluation of UDLs
134 mainly focuses on the four dimensions of population growth, economic development,
135 life improvement and spatial expansion (Addanki and Venkataraman, 2017; Chen et al.,
136 2018; Chen et al., 2010; Michael et al., 2014). The selection of the indexes in this study

137 was based on the literature and our repeated understanding of MFAP (Wang et al., 2019).
 138 Considering that the areas with high development levels mainly show the characteristics
 139 of providing industrial products and service products and having high degrees of
 140 population agglomeration and development degree in MFAP, a four-dimensional
 141 evaluation system was set up in this paper (see Table 1). Full details about index system
 142 can be found in Supplementary materials. Fig. S3 displays the spatial distributions of
 143 the third-level indexes. Multicollinearity diagnosis was used to exclude the problem of
 144 colinearity. All VIFs of the indicators were lower than 10, implying that there is no
 145 collinearity among the indicators (Zhao, J. et al., 2018).

146 Second, we normalized the indicators into comparable units and computed the
 147 weights. Considering that different indicators have different dimensions and
 148 magnitudes and different effects on performance evaluation, a normalization process
 149 was necessary. The indicators were standardized using Equations (1) and (2) so that all
 150 indicators had values between 0 and 1.

151 For the positive indicators, a larger value indicates an improved urbanization level.

$$152 \quad X'_{ij} = f_a + (f_b - f_a) \frac{X_{ij} - X_{\min}}{X_{\max} - X_{\min}} \quad (1)$$

153 For the negative indicators, a smaller value indicates an improved urbanization
 154 level. Therefore, Equation (2) can be obtained as follows:

$$155 \quad X'_{ij} = f_b + (f_a - f_b) \frac{X_{\max} - X_{ij}}{X_{\max} - X_{\min}} \quad (2)$$

156 where f_a and f_b are adjustable parameters that help the gathered distribution
 157 normalize values; n is the number of indicators; and m is the number of sample cases;

158 X_{ij} is the value of index j in unit i ; and X_{min} and X_{max} are the minimum and
 159 maximum values of index j , respectively. X'_{ij} is the normalized value of index j and
 160 ranges from 0 to 1.

161 In the evaluation indicator system, each indicator plays a role in and contributes to
 162 UDLs to varying degrees. It was necessary to determine the weight of each indicator.
 163 The entropy method has been widely used in urbanization assessment because it can
 164 eliminate expert subjectivity to a large extent (Chen et al., 2010; He et al., 2017; Li and
 165 Li, 2014; Li et al., 2012; Liu, N. et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2015). The entropy method is
 166 based on information theory. Information entropy is the measurement of the degree of
 167 disorder within a system, which can be further applied to measure the amount of useful
 168 information of the data provided (Amiri et al., 2014). The smaller the information
 169 entropy is, the lower the degree of disorder in information, the greater the utility value
 170 of the information, and the greater the index weights (Liu and Wei, 2014; Zou et al.,
 171 2006). According to the entropy value, the weight of the index could be calculated. Thus,
 172 the entropy method was adopted to determine the weight of each indicator. The steps
 173 were as follows (formulas (3)-(6)):

$$Y_{ij} = \frac{X'_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^m X'_{ij}} \quad (3)$$

$$e_j = -k \sum_{i=1}^m (Y_{ij} \ln Y_{ij}) \quad (4)$$

$$d_j = 1 - e_j \quad (5)$$

177

(6)

$$w_j = \frac{d_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n d_j}$$

178 where Y_{ij} is the ratio of index j in unit i , m is the number of units to be assessed,
179 k is a constant and $k = \frac{1}{\ln m}$. e_j is the information entropy, which represents the
180 amount of information carried in index j . Specifically, the greater the amount of
181 information, the higher the entropy. d_j is the redundancy of the information entropy,
182 n is the number of indexes, w_j is the weight of each indicator and $\sum w = 1$. The
183 weights of the indicators were listed in Table 2.

184 Third, we calculated the urbanization development index and assigned the
185 classifications. F_i represents the performance of the urbanization development index,
186 which can be obtained by the following equation:

$$F_i = \sum_{j=1}^n x'_{ij} \times w_j \quad (7)$$

188 Based on the natural breaks criterion and the real conditions of China, F_i can be
189 classified into 5 levels (see Table 3).

190 2.3.2 Pearson's correlation analysis

191 To identify whether MFAP contributed to urban development from 2009-2015,
192 Pearson's correlation analysis was carried out for the correlation between F_i and
193 ranked the urban development functional importance of 2850 counties with SPSS 21.0
194 software. The rank of urban development functional importance was based on the
195 definitions and requirements of the MFAs. According to the MFAP, the importance of
196 urban development function was generally from high to low in the order of optimal

197 development areas (ODAs), key development areas (KDAs), major agricultural
198 production areas (MAPAs) and important ecological functional areas (IEFAs).
199 Consequently, the numbers “4”, “3”, “2” and “1” were adopted to represent the ranks
200 of the urban functional importance of the ODAs, KDAs, MAPAs and IEFs, respectively.
201 If urban development benefited from the implementation of MFAP, there should be a
202 positive correlation from 2009 to 2015. Two significance levels (0.05 and 0.01) were
203 set, and a two-tailed test was performed.

204 **3. Results**

205 3.1 The impacts of MFAP on urban development

206 Pearson's correlation analysis showed that there was a positive correlation between
207 F_i and the ranking of urban functional importance of 2850 counties ($P < 0.01$). From
208 2009 to 2015, the correlation coefficients were listed as 0.419, 0.420 and 0.423,
209 respectively. This indicated that the urban development of ODAs, KDAs, MAPAs and
210 IEFAs was in line with the orientation of MFAP. The MFAP played a positive role in
211 optimizing urban development from 2009-2015 in China.

212 3.2 Urban development at the national level

213 As illustrated in Fig. 2, the UDLs in China showed an overall increasing phase. In
214 2009, the number of county-level administration regions that reached Class I to Class
215 III was 1399, which accounted for 49.09% of the regions. In 2015, this number
216 increased to 1599, which included 56.11% of the total number. In addition, compared
217 to 2009, the number of counties that reached Class IV and Class V decreased by 31 and
218 231, respectively, in 2015 (see Table S3).

219 Fig. 3 displays the spatial pattern of the UDLs in China from 2009 to 2015. Overall,
220 the counties in these urban belts, which reflect the overall urban layout of China,
221 showed higher UDLs than those of other regions. In particular, the UDLs rose obviously
222 in the counties of Chongqing, Chengdu, Wuhan, Changsha in H2 and Chongqing,
223 Chengdu, the central parts of Guiyang in L3. In addition, the counties located in
224 Zhengzhou and Xi'an in H1 increased more in higher UDLs. There were no such
225 obvious increases in the counties in Lanzhou, Sining, Urumchi in H1; Harbin,
226 Changchun and Shenyang in L1; and Hohhot and Kunming in L3. The UDLs in county-
227 level administrative areas from 2009-2015 were always high, while the increase in the
228 UDLs was not apparent in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, Yangtze River delta region
229 and Pearl River delta region in H1. It was observed that the UDLs in the western
230 counties was obviously lower than that in the other three areas, and they were almost
231 all grouped in Class V and had sporadic distributions in the other classes. Conversely,
232 the eastern counties that covered most county-level administrations showed higher
233 UDLs. The increasing rates of county-level administrative units from Class I to Class
234 III in eastern China, central China, western China and northeastern China were 14.93%,
235 35.32%, 37.81% and 11.94% from 2009 to 2015, respectively.

236 It is shown in Fig. 4 that the county-level administrations with the Class I urban
237 development level (UDL) were mostly distributed in H2, L1 and L2. Class II was
238 mainly distributed on H1, L1 and L2. Class III covered most regions of H2, L1 and L2.
239 Class IV was mainly distributed in H2 and L2. For Class V, only those in L3 were
240 relatively obvious in 2009. The number of counties whose UDLs belonged to Class

241 I~III was obviously greater than that in Class IV~V in these five belts. As displayed in
242 Fig. 5, the percentage that the first three levels occupied of the total area of H1, H2, L1,
243 L2 and L3 were 73.52%, 78.78%, 82.35%, 81.78% and 60.00%, respectively, in 2015.
244 When compared to 2009, the increases were 4.07%, 12.17%, 5.93%, 7.32% and 12.91%
245 in Class I to Class III for H1, H2, L1, L2 and L3, respectively (see Table S4).

246 Fig.6 demonstrates the class variations of the UDLs in the 31 provinces in China
247 from 2009 to 2015. The county-level administrativons that regularly included most of
248 the first UDLs were mainly in Guangdong, Henan, Shandong and Jiangsu. The counties
249 that covered the second UDL were mostly distributed in Hebei, Henan, Shandong,
250 Jiangsu and Anhui. The counties that covered the third UDL were mostly distributed in
251 Sichuan, Hebei, Anhui and Hunan. Class IV was mainly present in Guangxi, Henan and
252 Jiangxi. Class V was mainly distributed in Gansu, Guangxi, Guizhou, Heilongjiang,
253 Qinghai, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Sichuan, Xizang, Xinjiang and Yunnan. In addition, the
254 UDLs in 2015 in some provinces, such as Ningxia and Hainan, increased obviously
255 when compared to those in 2009.

256 3.3 Urban development at the MFA level

257 3.3.1 Optimal development areas

258 The ODAs are an important part of the “two-horizontal” and “three-longitudinal”
259 spatial urbanization patterns in China. Fig. 7 illustrates the UDLs of the optimal
260 development zones in China. From 2009 to 2015, the amount variation in the county-
261 scale administrative units with UDLs ranging from Class I and Class III were 31, -16
262 and -15, respectively. The corresponding proportional variations were 12.70%, -6.56%

263 and -6.15%.

264 3.3.2 Key development areas

265 The KDAs are the regions distributed in the new spatial pattern of urbanization
266 and have been planned to focus on industrialization and urbanization. As displayed in
267 Fig. 7, the amount of variation in the county scale administrative units with UDLs
268 changing from Class I and Class V was 57, 2, -11, -23 and -25, respectively. The
269 corresponding proportional variations were 9.86%, 0.35%, -1.90%, -3.98% and -4.33%,
270 respectively.

271 4. Discussion

272 4.1 Assessment of the UDLs from 2009 to 2015 in China

273 An evaluation of the policy-related outcomes can shed light on the policy's
274 effectiveness and inform further refinements and management (Al shawabkeh et al.,
275 2019; Liu et al., 2010). The national MFAP indicates that China's spatial governance
276 has transformed towards functional control and upgrades (Fan et al., 2019; Fan et al.,
277 2013). Chinese urbanization processes are facing practical and theoretical challenges
278 that might be more complex than what has been seen previously. Fan et al. (2019)
279 comprehensively described the division process of MFAs and emphasized a timely
280 assessment for responding to the adjustment of MFAP. In this study, we successfully
281 developed a comparable index to facilitate comparisons between counties and to inform
282 the urban management focus for MFAP. County-level administration is an important
283 component of the socio-economic structure and is the basic unit in MFAP in China.
284 MFAP proposed that each county included urban, agricultural, or ecological land space,

285 which determined its corresponding function (Wang, J. et al., 2018). Quantitative
286 evaluation of the UDLs in 2850 counties in this study intuitively reflected the urban
287 functional status and supplemented our understanding of urbanization.

288 Generally, MFAP has played a positive role in urban development in China.
289 Counties in the "two-horizontal & three-longitudinal" spatial urbanization pattern
290 showed higher UDLs than those of the other regions, implying that the ODAs and
291 KDAs specifically made contributions to urban development (Li et al., 2017;
292 Shahtahmassebi et al., 2018). Land economic density, the degree of population
293 agglomeration, spatial development intensity and UDLs in the five belts in two
294 directions showed different increases from 2009 to 2015, further suggesting that a
295 noticeable and centralized urban pattern has primarily been constructed in China.
296 However, differences among the regional scales still need to be addressed.

297 The differences in the UDLs in the east-west direction were greater than those in
298 the north-south direction in China. The proportions of UDLs ranging from Class I to
299 Class III in the five belts in MFAP from the maximum to minimum were L1, L2, H1,
300 H2 and L3 in 2015, while the corresponding increments were L3, H2, L2, L1 and H1
301 from 2009 to 2015. More efforts would be made in MFAP to narrow the gaps between
302 the UDLs, especially in L3 and H2. The land economic density on H1 increased more
303 apparently than the degree of population agglomeration and spatial development
304 intensity in H1 from 2009 to 2015. This was likely due to the optimization of the
305 population distribution and the control of built-up area expansion in the ODAs, which
306 was consistent with the requirements in MFAP. This aligned with Liu et al. (2017a).

307 Class I was mostly distributed in the relatively developed H2, L1 and L2 in the five
308 belts. H2 covers three urban agglomerations in the Yangtze River delta, the middle
309 Yangtze River basin and the Chengdu-Chongqing region, where the counties with Class
310 I UDLs in 2015 accounted for 52.4%, 22.79% and 17.69%, respectively. The gradual
311 development of the Yangtze River Economic Belt, which accounts for 21% of the total
312 area and more than 40% of the total population and GDP in China, was an important
313 contribution (Liu, Y. et al., 2018). The developed eastern provinces, such as Beijing,
314 Tianjin, Shandong, Shanghai and Jiangsu, that were included in H2, L1 and L2 also
315 offer insights into the highest UDLs (Zhang, W. et al., 2018); the respective proportions
316 of the counties with Class I UDLs were 62.5%, 75%, 100%, and 56.25%. The counties
317 in H2, L1 and L2 contain the majority of the ODAs and KDAs. Even though there were
318 also KDAs on H1 and L3, no ODAs were found, and coupling effects are lacking. The
319 Class II UDLs cover most of the regions in H1, L1 and L2. Unlike H2, H1 covers a
320 longer distance across the east and west, and apparent spatial disparities were present
321 in the UDLs. Class III was mostly distributed in H2 and L2, especially the counties in
322 Harbin, Shenyang and Changchun in the northeast and Chongqing, Chengdu, Wuhan,
323 Changsha and Nanchang. The decrease in the proportion of Class IV on L2 further
324 indicated that the cities, where the horizontal and vertical axes intersected, played key
325 roles in the promotion of the UDLs. The decrease in Class V in L3 after 2009 implied
326 a faster pace of urbanization in the central and western counties. This was consistent
327 with the results of similar studies that supported of urban expansion (Zhao et al., 2015).

328 There was a gradual reduction in the distribution with a narrowing gap between

329 the UDLs in the east and those in the west. The proportions of the top three levels of
330 UDLs in the four regions from the maximum to minimum were the eastern counties,
331 central counties, western counties and northeast counties in 2015, while the
332 corresponding increments were listed as the western counties, central counties, eastern
333 counties and northeast counties from 2009 to 2015. Because of the greater area and
334 long-term backward urban development of the western region, more efforts need to be
335 devoted to improving the UDLs in the KDAs of the Lanzhou-Xining area, the northern
336 hillslope area of the Tian Shan Mountains and central-southern Tibet, central Yunnan
337 Province and the "Hohhot, Baotou and Ordos" region. The UDLs in provinces with the
338 top three UDLs were distributed in coastal areas. This was likely due to the existence
339 of a relatively long development history of urbanization in the eastern counties in the
340 ODAs (Fang et al., 2016). However, the concomitant small increment further indicated
341 that although massive urban development has been controlled in the ODAs, the
342 overpopulation and economic volumes still cannot be neglected (Chen et al., 2018). The
343 percentage of counties in the top three UDLs in the KDAs of the Harbin-Changchun
344 area decreased by 11.43% from 2009 to 2015. Although China has made efforts to
345 revitalize the northeastern provinces in recent years, improving the traditional industrial
346 structures in KDAs remains challenging (Mao et al., 2019). The county-level
347 administrative units in capital cities such as Xi'an, Wuhan, Changsha, Zhengzhou and
348 Chengdu played important roles in contributing to the rise in the UDLs (Bai et al., 2018).
349 Meanwhile, these counties were KDAs as well as nodes in the "two-horizontal & three-
350 longitudinal" urbanization spatial pattern, and the induced effect of radiation became

351 obvious. This was consistent with the idea in MFAP and the new urbanization plan
352 released in 2014 by China's National Development and Reform Commission (li and Liu,
353 2019). The apparent increase in the UDLs in Ningxia and Hainan also indicates that the
354 pilot provinces in MFAP had made progress. Urban-rural development gaps still exist
355 in provinces such as Sichuan, Henan and Anhui.

356 The regions were not isolated, and the differences in the UDLs among regions
357 presented a spatial agglomeration effect (Li, H. et al., 2016), which was closely related
358 to spatial distance, traffic conditions, and population flow. Without sound transportation
359 networks, it may take longer for materials and the population to flow between distant
360 regions, which restrains the development of regional linkages (Chandra and Vadali,
361 2014). However, the agglomeration features are unidirectional and polarizing. The land
362 economic density, degree of population agglomeration and spatial development
363 intensity were highly concentrated in the eastern counties, such as the Beijing-Tianjin-
364 Hebei region, Yangtze River delta and Pearl River Delta. The area around these regions
365 presents moderate population concentration levels. For instance, H2 is an important part
366 of the Yangtze River Economic Belt, and an obvious core-periphery spatial structure
367 exists in the Yangtze River delta and the Chengdu-Chongqing region. However, the
368 structure could not be clearly captured in the urban agglomeration in the middle reaches
369 of the Yangtze River. Jin et al. (2018) also found that urbanization efficiency presented
370 a “bar-like” distribution across the Yangtze River Economic Belt and suggested a
371 balanced level of development within the middle and lower reaches of this economic
372 region. In western regions far from coastal areas, the agglomeration effect was either

373 very weak or not concentrated. The depressed economic and infrastructural conditions,
374 along with the greater employment opportunities in cities, induced mass population
375 migration from rural to urban areas (Fang et al., 2016; Li, Y. et al., 2018). This further
376 suggests that efforts for traffic improvement can potentially promote the development
377 of transportation networks (Luo and Shen, 2009).

378 In terms of governance, an extremely important aspect for nationwide
379 environmental management is the efficient implementation of rigid macro-strategic
380 targets in micro-administrative cells, which has still been a longstanding challenge in
381 China. This study offered insights into filling this gap and developed links between
382 county level management and national or provincial governance. Managers can not only
383 recognize the quality of urbanization nationwide but also can identify the problem at
384 the county level, and make timely adjustment to adapting the national intent. However,
385 the limitations of the environmental management is that this kind of assessment
386 mechanism is still not perfect yet and needs to be developed in a regular manner to
387 respond to future urban development trends in China. This study used China as a case
388 study, and it also provided insights into the achievement of sustainable urbanization that
389 could guide other developing countries. Problems caused by rapid urbanization
390 commonly exist in cities in the developing world, such as India (Ramachandra et al.,
391 2015), Brazil (De Oliveira et al., 2019) and Egypt (Abd-Elmabod et al., 2019). Although
392 the specifics will probably differ between countries and spatial scales, the demand for
393 detailed nation-scale assessments on the UDLs to support target setting are likely to be
394 common. Hence, the idea and proposed method can help comprehensively evaluate the

395 urbanization process, recognize the cause of depressed urbanization practices, and
396 inform decision-making to develop suitable strategies towards orderly urban
397 development in these countries.

398 4.2 Policy recommendations

399 To elevate the construction of the "two-horizontal" spatial urbanization pattern and
400 to improve the effectiveness of MFAP, future decision-makers should adequately
401 consider county-level differences in the UDLs of the MFAs. Policy recommendations
402 to help end the traditional "one size fits all" policies for China's urban development and
403 land space management:

404 (1) It is suggested to promote industrial and spatial optimization in the coastal
405 passageway (L1), especially in the ODAs. The Chinese government should relieve
406 stress from excessive agglomeration of the population and economy of the ODAs in the
407 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, the Yangtze River delta and the Pearl River delta. It is
408 imperative that high-tech industries and advanced manufacturing bases be constructed
409 to attract labor transfers in the counties near Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. To
410 strictly control the expansion of new built-up areas, demarcation of the boundaries of
411 urban development is urgently needed. A list of areas where industrial access is banned
412 is considered a feasible supplement to promote the upgrading of the industrial structure.

413 (2) Regional cooperation and linkages must be improved in the passage along the
414 Yangtze River (H2). To foster the rise of the central region, the KDAs in the middle
415 reaches of the Yangtze River in H2 still need more inter-province cooperation among
416 Hubei, Hunan and Jiangxi. Constructing a three-dimensional traffic network is

417 suggested to promote interconnected development among the urban agglomerations. It
418 is highly recommended to speed up the construction of the ports in Wuhan, Changsha,
419 Hefei and Nanchang along the Yangtze River waterway.

420 (3) Strengthen the external investment and infrastructural construction in the
421 KDAs in the western Asia-Europe land bridge (H1) and the endpoints of the “Baotou
422 to Kunming” passageway (L3). An “overall protection and local development” mode
423 should also be developed. It is imperative to improve the construction of infrastructure
424 and public service facilities in the western KDAs. Government investments in the
425 industrial development of the KDAs should focus on the processing of agricultural and
426 livestock products in the central-southern region of Tibet, energy trading with central
427 Asia in the northern hillslope area of the Tian Shan Mountains, new material processing
428 in the Lanzhou-Xining area, tourism in central Yunnan Province, etc.

429 (4) Attention should be paid to the development transformation of the old
430 northeastern industrial base in the “Beijing-Kazakhstan to Beijing-Guangzhou”
431 passageway (L2). The combination of new technologies such as big data and artificial
432 intelligence with the traditional manufacturing industry and new industries such as
433 ecological agriculture are recommended for the KDAs in the Harbin-Changchun area.
434 Economic cooperation between Northeast China and the other countries in Northeast
435 Asia and the economic corridor among China-Mongolia-Russia are also suggested.

436 **5. Conclusions**

437 In this study, a comprehensive evaluation system reflecting the UDLs reflecting
438 the UDLs throughout the 2850 county-level administrations in China was successfully

439 developed. UDLs from 2009-2015 after the implementation of MFAP was assessed.
440 The main conclusions were as follows. The UDLs in China showed a generally
441 increasing trend from 2009 to 2015. The regions in the five main urban belts presented
442 higher UDLs under the combined action of population, space and the economy. The
443 counties in the nodes of the urbanization spatial pattern, especially the ODAs and KDAs,
444 significantly contributed to urban development. However, there were obvious spatial
445 differences in the UDLs. The differences in the UDLs in the east-west direction were
446 greater than those in the north-south direction in China. The proportion of counties
447 whose UDLs ranged from Class I to Class III in the five belts and 31 provinces indicated
448 a gradual reduction in the distribution but a narrowing of the differences between the
449 east and the west. Moreover, the differences in the UDLs were linked to a spatial
450 agglomeration effect, especially in the Yangtze River Economic Belt. This was mainly
451 attributed to the effects of transportation and infrastructure. Finally, important policy
452 implications for China's further urban development and land space management were
453 inferred.

454 Overall, the implementation of MFAP has met its objectives in improving urban
455 development in China. However, regional disparities in the UDLs still need to be
456 addressed. Measures to refine management in MFAP should continue to advance to lead
457 to fundamental improvement in China's sustainable urban development. The
458 limitations of this study lie in data acquisition. Due to the availability of county-level
459 data, indicators reflecting environmental elements such as wastewater discharge
460 volume and air quality index were not included. In addition, because the publication of

461 the statistical yearbooks lags behind the current time period, an efficient data mining
462 method should be developed to reflect the dynamic changes in the UDLs in future
463 studies. The development of an information platform combining a database and
464 evaluation method is suggested for periodic assessment of urban development.

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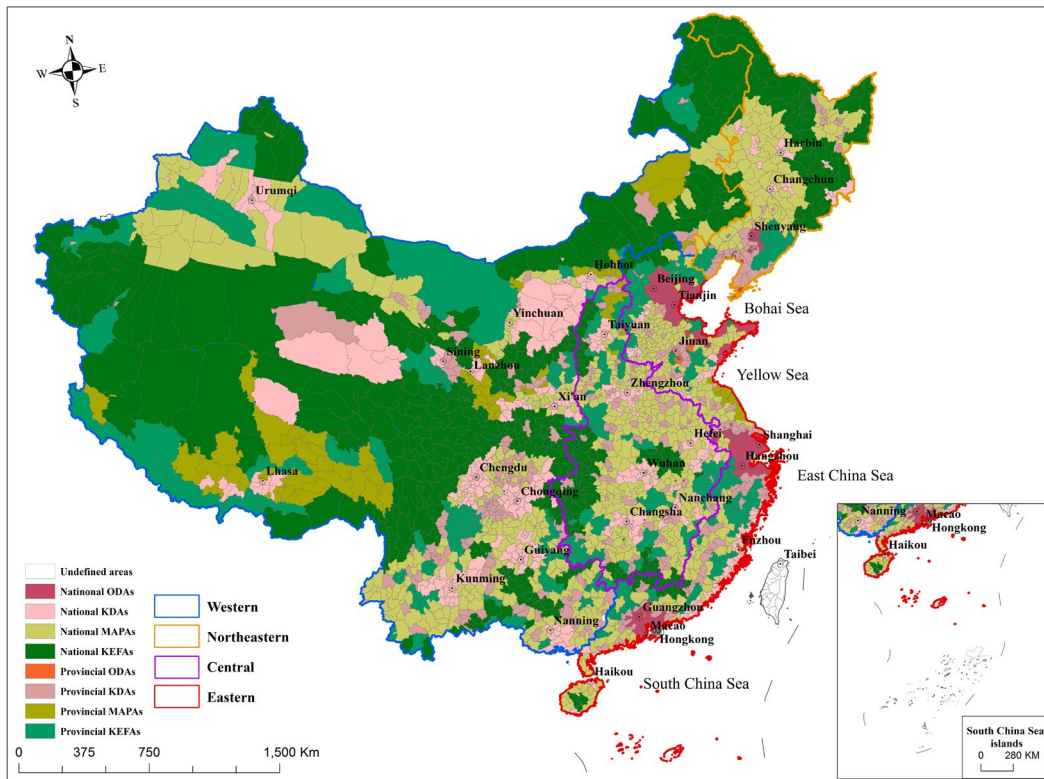


Fig.1. Main Functional Areas in China (Note: ODAs, KDAs, MAPAs, KEFAs represent Optimize development areas, Key development areas, Major agricultural production areas, and Key ecological functional areas in MFAP). (TIFF format, 140 mm * 105 mm, 1000 dpi, 1.5 column fitting image)

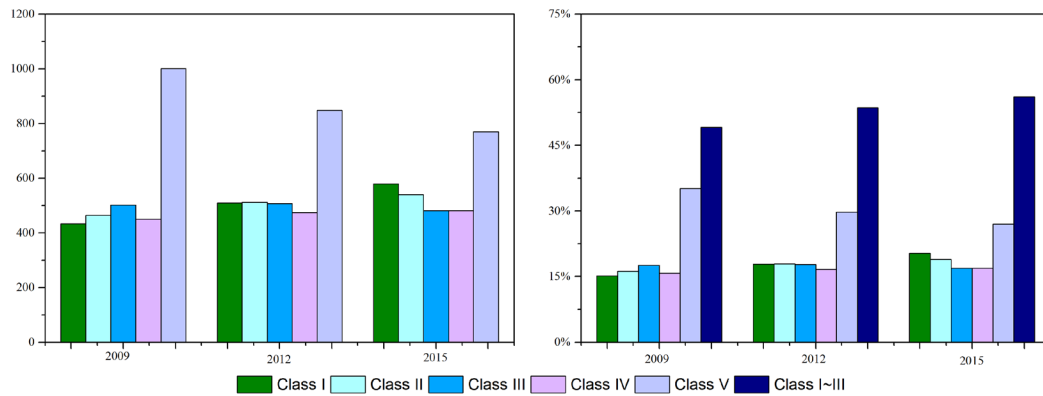


Fig. 2. UDLs from 2009 to 2015 in China. (TIFF format, 140 mm * 54 mm, 600 dpi, 1.5 column fitting image)

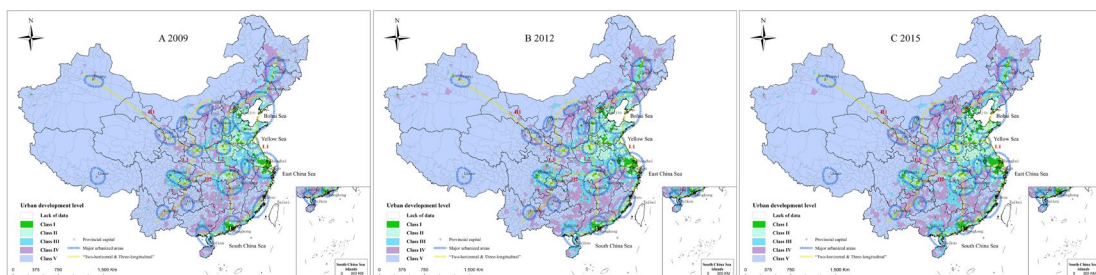


Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of UDLs from 2009-2015 in China. (Note: The notifications on the map expressed as “H1”, “H2”, “L1”, “L2”, “L3” represent the five belts in horizontal and vertical directions of the “two-horizontal and three-longitudinal” urbanization spatial pattern) (TIFF format, 190 mm * 50 mm, 1000 dpi, 2.0 column fitting image)

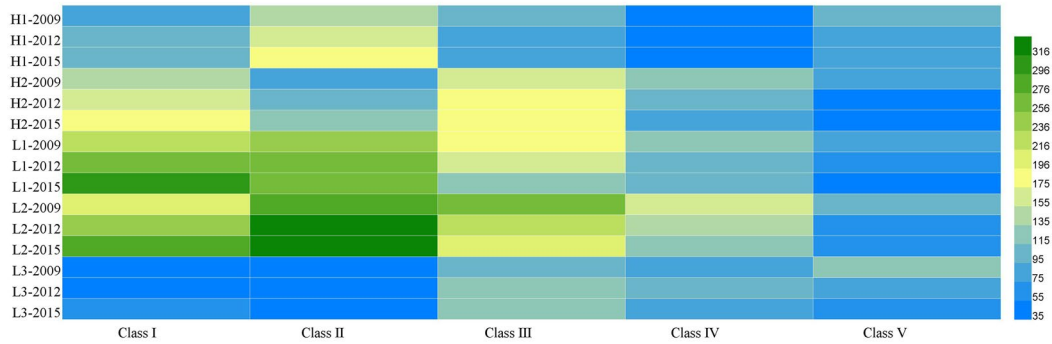


Fig. 4. Number distribution of UDLs in the spatial pattern of “two-horizontal and three-longitudinal” urbanization during 2009-2015 in China. (TIFF format, 140 mm * 47 mm, 600 dpi, 1.5 column fitting image)

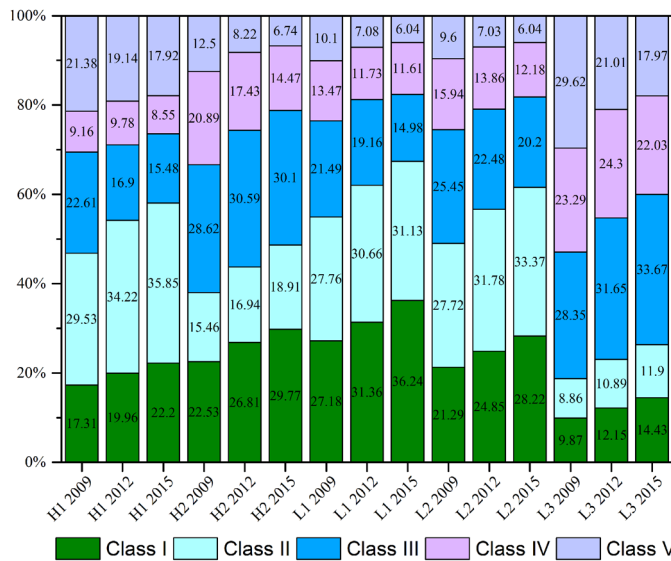


Fig. 5. Percentage distribution of UDLs in the spatial pattern of “two-horizontal” and “three-longitudinal” urbanization during 2009-2015 in China. (TIFF format, 90 mm * 75 mm, 600 dpi, single column fitting image)

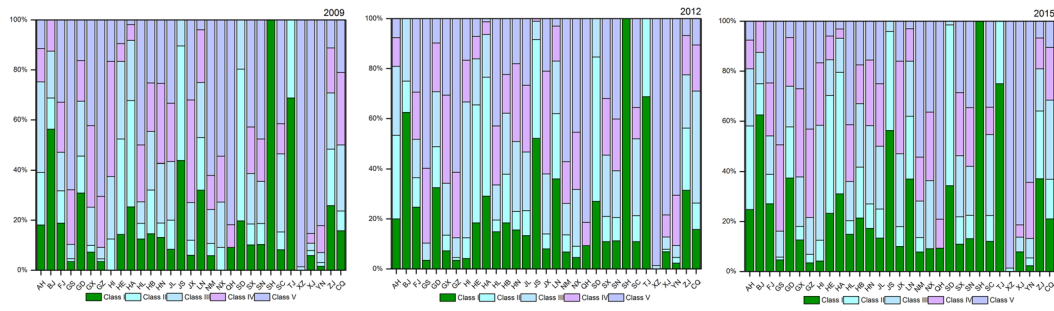


Fig. 6. Ratio variations of UDLs in the 31 provinces.

(BJ=Beijing, TJ=Tianjin, HE=Hebei, SD=Shandong, LN=Liaoning, JL=Jilin, HL=Heilongjiang, SH=Shanghai, JS=Jiangsu, ZJ=Zhejiang, FJ=Fujian, GD=Guangdong, HI=Hainan, AH=Anhui, SX=Shanxi, JX=Jiangxi, HA=Henan, HB=Hubei, HN=Hunan, GX=Guangxi, CQ=Chongqing, SC=Sichuan, GZ=Guizhou, YN=Yunnan, NM= Inner Mongolia, SN=Shaanxi, GS=Gansu, QH=Qinghai, NX=Ningxia, XJ=Xinjiang) (TIFF format, 140 mm * 41 mm, 600 dpi, 1.5 column fitting image)

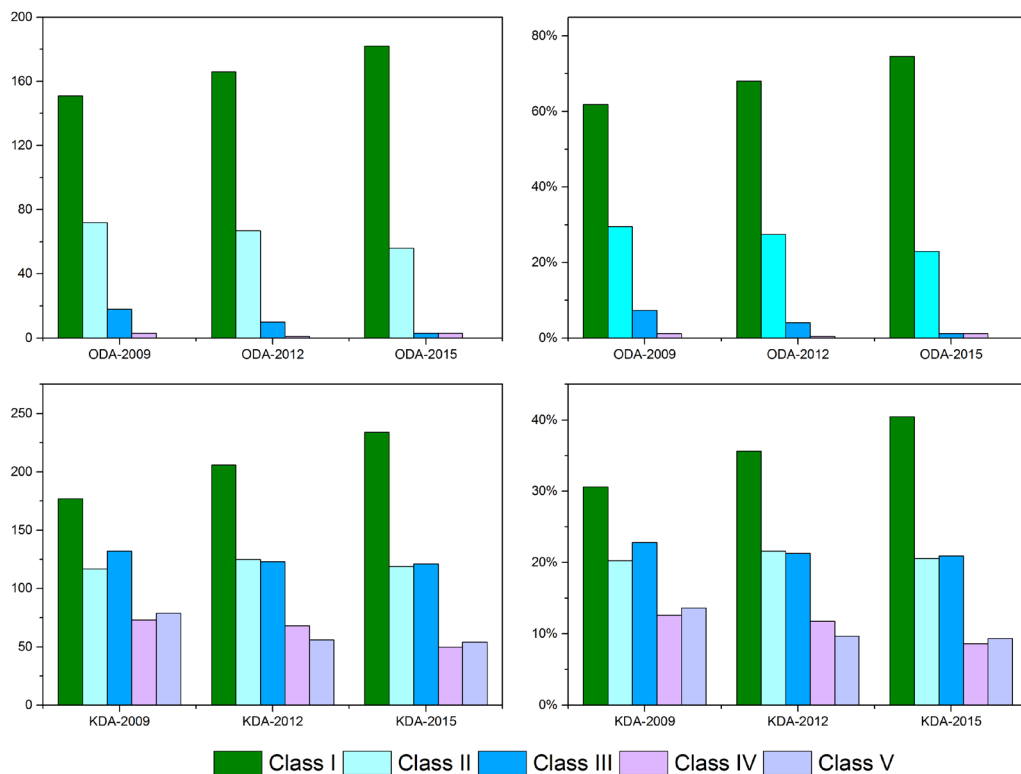


Fig. 7. Grade variations of UDLs in ODAs and KDAs. (TIFF format, 140 mm * 105 mm, 600 dpi, 1.5 column fitting image)

Table 1 UDLs assessment index system

First-level	Second-level	Third-level	Fourth-level
	Industrial products and services products	Land economic density	GDP (10,000 yuan) Areas of county level administrations (km ²)
UDLs	Population	Population agglomeration degree	Urban population (10,000 people) Areas of county level administrations (km ²)
	Urban space	Space development intensity	Construction land (km ²) areas of county level administrations (km ²)

Table 2 Weights of indicators

Third-level indicators	Effect direction	Weights
Land economic density	+	0.3696
Population agglomeration degree	+	0.3303
Space development intensity	+	0.3001

Note: “+” represents positive indicators. “-” represents negative indicators.

Table 3 Classification criteria for UDLs

Classification	Value of F_i	UDLs
Class I	$F_i \geq 70$	very high
Class II	$70 > F_i \geq 65$	high
Class III	$65 > F_i \geq 60$	medium
Class IV	$60 > F_i \geq 55$	low
Class V	$F_i < 55$	very low