

Urban Economics

Lecture 1: Introduction

Spring 2024

Tuukka Saarimaa

Organization

Urban Economics (31C02100, REC-E3500)

Lecturer

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Course TAs

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Course homepage

- mycourses.aalto.fi -> my own courses-> Urban Economics
- Lecture slides, assignments, return of assignments

Organization

Diverse set of students

- Economics students from the business school
- Students from the dept. of built environment
- Students from Urban Studies and Planning program (joint master's program with University of Helsinki)

Maybe less formal than most economics courses at this stage, but maybe more formal than non-econ students are used to

In addition to theoretical models, lots of empirical examples with emphasis on causal evidence

Course requirements

Grading

- Exam: 70%
- Exercises/problem sets: 30%

Problem sets

- Five problem sets
- Correct answers provided during the weekly review sessions

Schedule

Lectures

- Tue: 14–16, U8 - U270
- Wed: 12–14, U8 - U270
- Lecture on Jan 24 is cancelled, I will provide a lecture recording

Problem set review sessions

- Wed: 14–16, U8 - U270
- First session next week, Jan 17

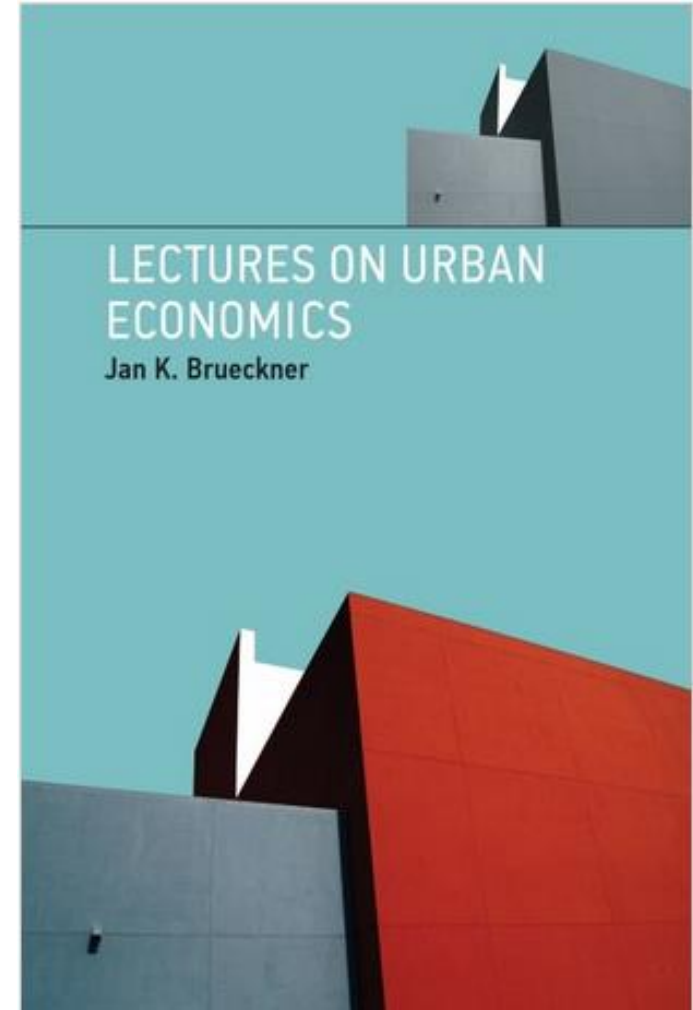
Exam

- Feb 21: 13–16

Textbook

Brueckner, J. 2011. *Lectures on Urban Economics*. MIT Press.

- Available as an Ebook through the Aalto library (aaltoReader)
- We will cover **chapters 1–5 and 11**, not the whole book



Tentative outline for the course

Lecture 1:	Introduction: (i) What is urban economics? (ii) Why cities exist?
Lecture 2:	Spatial Equilibrium within Cities – Monocentric City Model
Lecture 3:	Monocentric City Model – Extensions
Lecture 4:	Urban Planning and Land-Use Controls
Lecture 5:	Urban Planning and Land-Use Controls - continued
Lecture 6:	Hedonic Model
Lecture 7:	Congestion Externality
Lecture 8:	Low-Income Housing Policy
Lecture 9:	Segregation and Neighborhood Effects
Lecture 10:	Spatial Equilibrium Across Cities
Lecture 11:	Spatial Equilibrium Across Cities - Extensions
Lecture 12:	Recap

Outline for today

What is urban economics?

Stylized facts

- Distribution of production and people in space
- Productivity and city size

Why cities exist?

- Agglomeration benefits in production and consumption
- Congestion problems

An empirical example of identifying agglomeration benefits

- If time permits

What is urban economics?

What is urban economics?

Studies the economic forces that lead to the existence of cities and the urban structure within cities

- Want to understand the **benefits** from eliminating distance between people and firms (**agglomeration economies**)
- But also, the **costs and problems** related to cities and increased density (congestion, pollution, noise, housing costs etc.)

Ultimately, the focus is on the underlying motives of people and firms making **locational decisions**

- Where to live and work, where to produce, how much land or space to consume etc.

What is urban economics?

Fundamental tool in the analysis is the notion of **locational or spatial equilibrium**

Basically, means that there are **no free lunches to gain by changing location**

- Arises when people and firms can **move freely** and choose their optimal location as **prices adjust**
- Positive attributes in each location are offset by negative attributes
- Most simple version states that for households

Income + Amenities – Housing costs – Commuting costs
is constant across space

What is urban economics?

Number of subfields including

- Housing economics, housing and urban policy, segregation and neighborhood effects, transportation, urban environment, local public economics, development, politics

Like most fields in economics, urban economics has become more and more empirical

- Availability and use of **geocoded spatial data** and **GIS tools**
- Credibility revolution in empirical economics (**econometrics**): identification of **causal effects** and emphasis on **research design**
- Developments in structural **quantitative spatial models**

But theoretical models are also important

Urban economics resources

Handbook of Regional and Urban Economics:

- <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/handbooks/15740080>

Journals:

- Leading field journals:
 - *Journal of Urban Economics, Regional Science and Urban Economics, Journal of Economic Geography, Journal of Housing Economics*
- Urban economics papers are also regularly published in top general interest journals such as:
 - *American Economic Review, Econometrica, Journal of Political Economy, Quarterly Journal of Economics and Review of Economic Studies, Journal of the European Economic Association, Review of Economics and Statistics, Economic Journal, AEA's field journals etc.*
 - *Journal of Economic Perspectives by the American Economic Association also publishes articles on urban economic issues (free access, aimed at the general audience)*

Urban economics at Aalto and Helsinki GSE

Three professors at the econ department

- Prottoy Akbar (joint BIZ and ENG), Tuukka Saarimaa (joint BIZ and ENG) and Pablo Warnes (and Oskari Harjunen (REC, ENG))

Courses

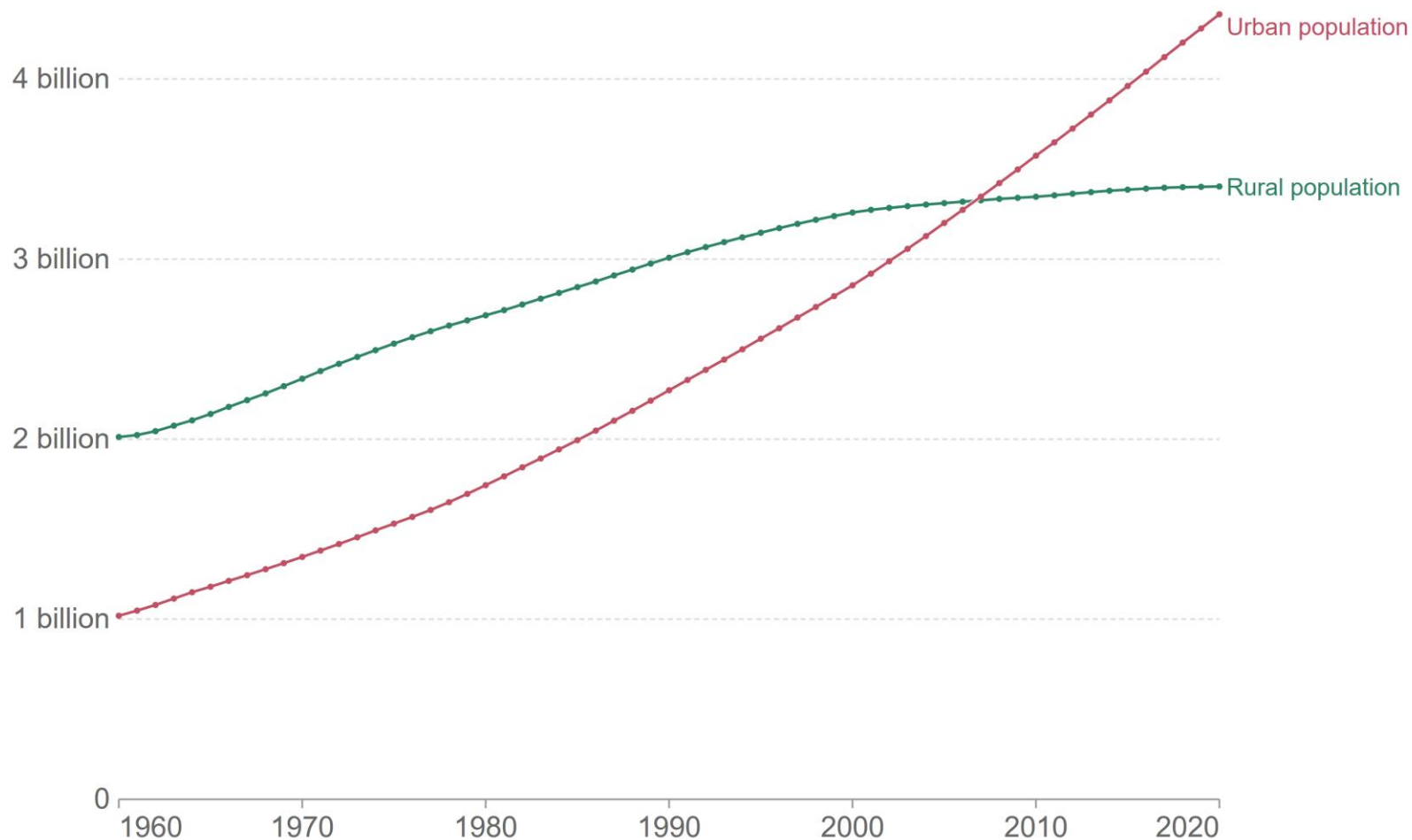
- BSc: Urban Economics, Transport Economics
- MSc: Economics of Cities (**new!**), International Trade
- PhD: Urban and Regional Economics

Helsinki GSE research group

- <https://www.helsinkigse.fi/groups/urban-economics>
- Seminars and PhD workshops etc.

Spatial distribution of output and people – stylized facts

Number of people living in urban and rural areas, World



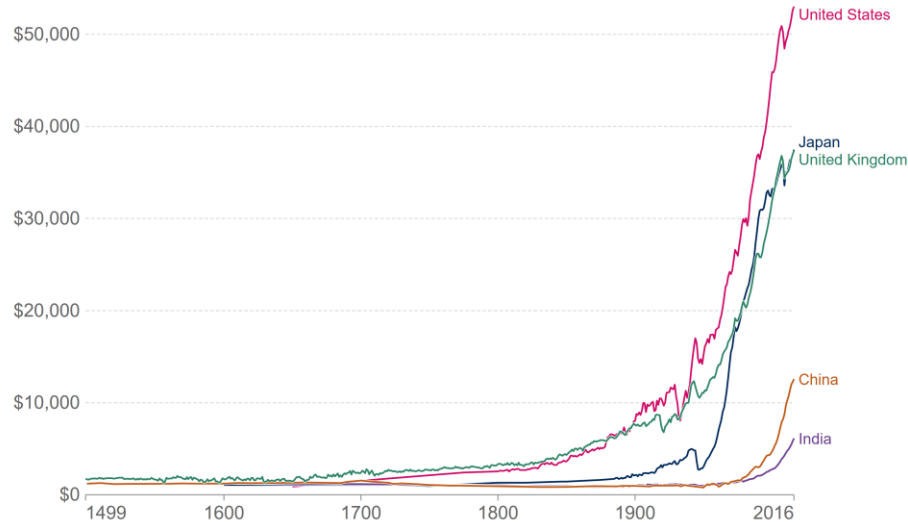
Source: World Bank based on data from the UN Population Division

Note: Urban populations are defined based on the definition of urban areas by national statistical offices.

Hockey stick of human prosperity and urbanization

GDP per capita, 1499 to 2016

This data is adjusted for differences in the cost of living between countries, and for inflation. It is measured in constant 2011 international-\$.
 Our World in Data

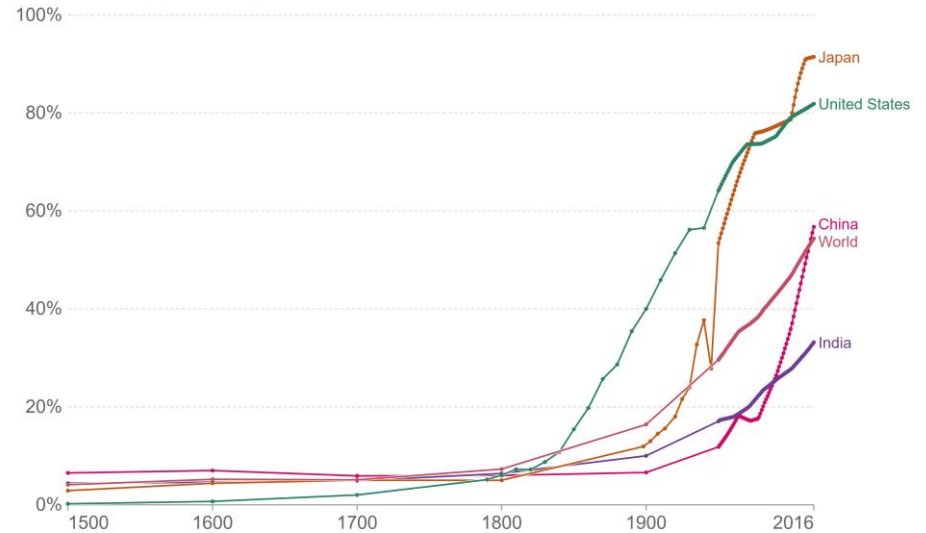


Source: Maddison Project Database 2020 (Bolt and van Zanden, 2020)

OurWorldInData.org/economic-growth • CC BY

Urbanization over the past 500 years, 1500 to 2016

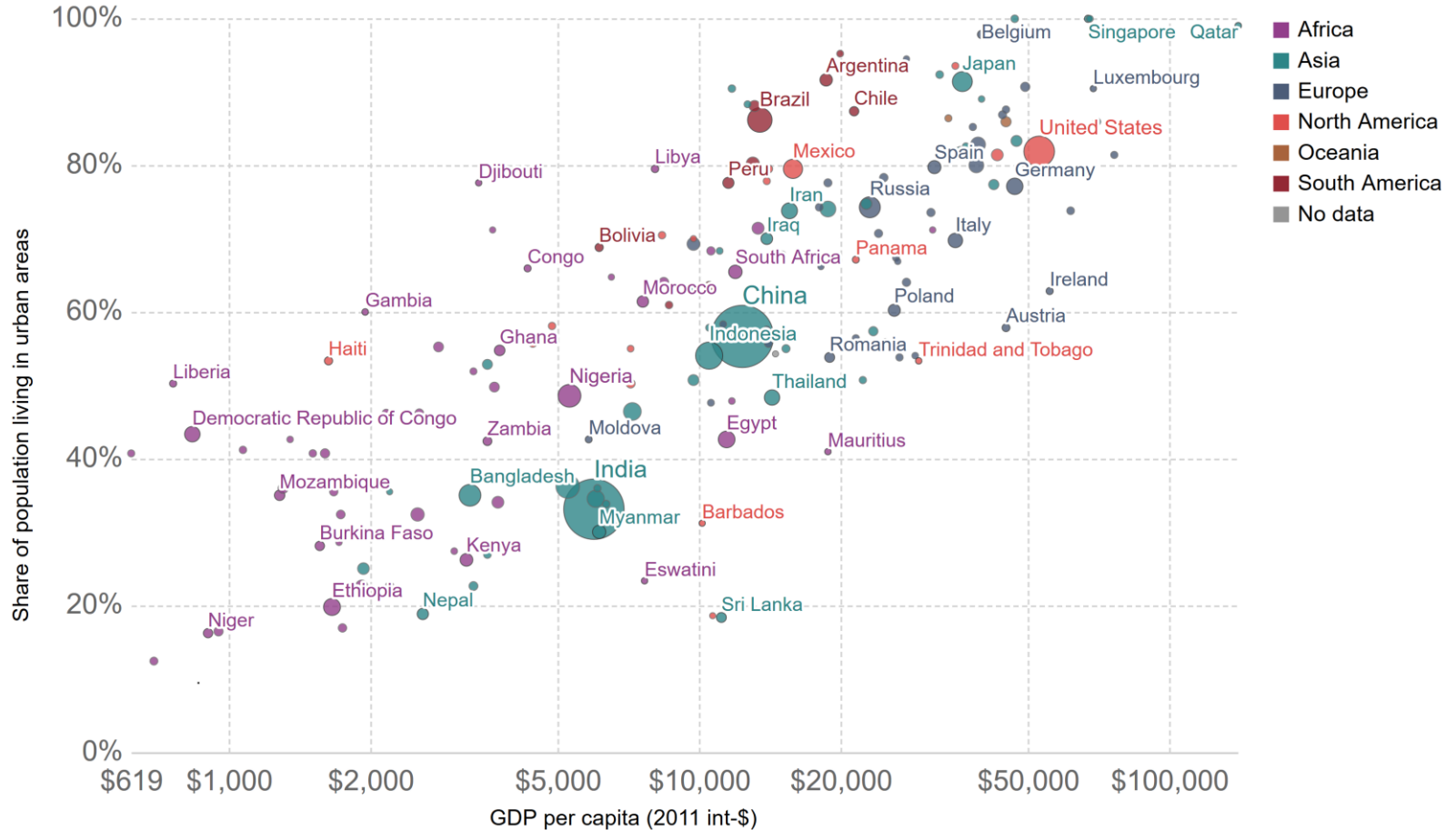
Share of the total population living in urban areas
 Our World in Data



Source: OWID based on UN World Urbanization Prospects 2018 and historical sources (see Sources) OurWorldInData.org/urbanization • CC BY
 Note: Urban areas are based on national definitions and may vary by country.

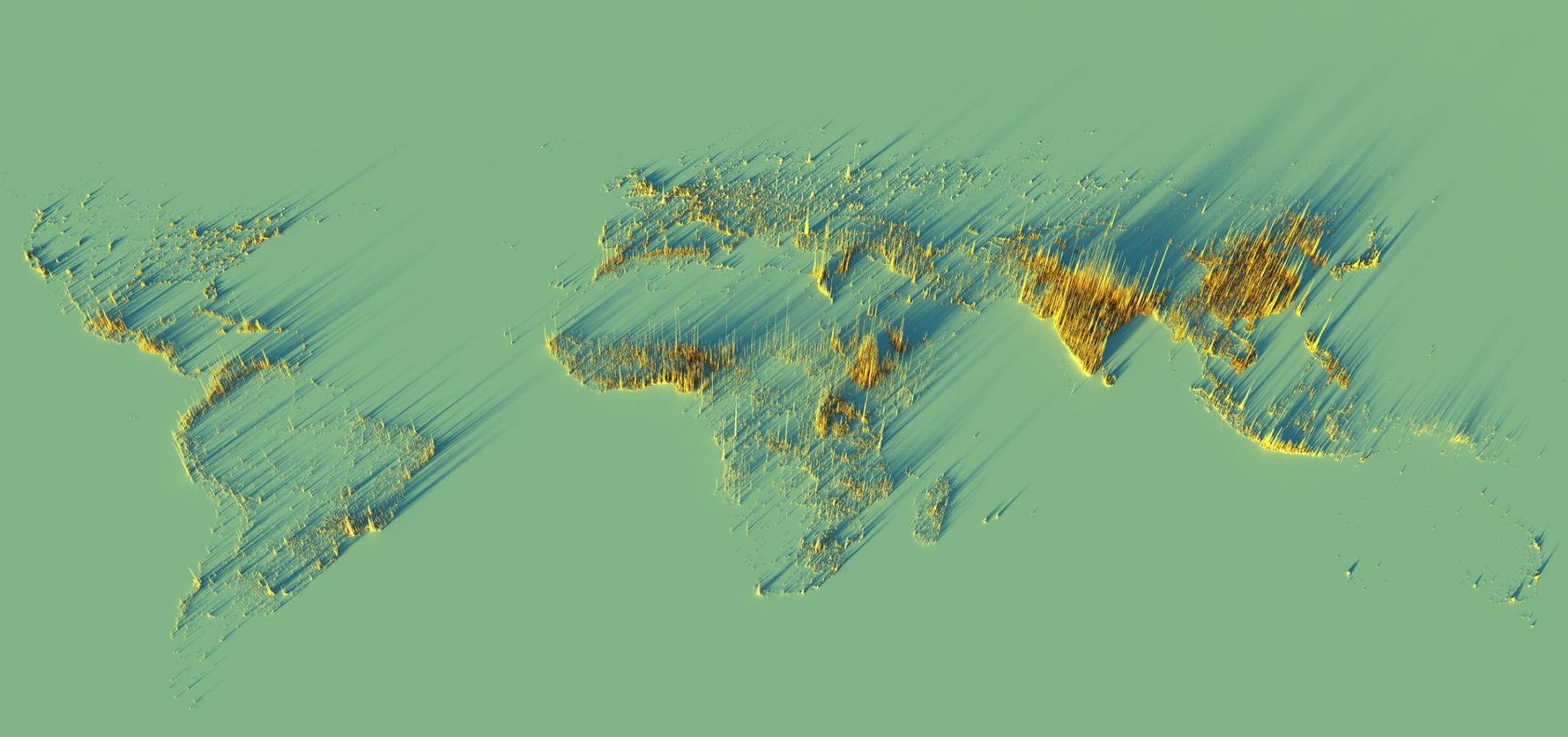
Urban population vs. GDP per capita, 2016

Share of the total population living in urban areas versus gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, measured in 2011 international-\$.



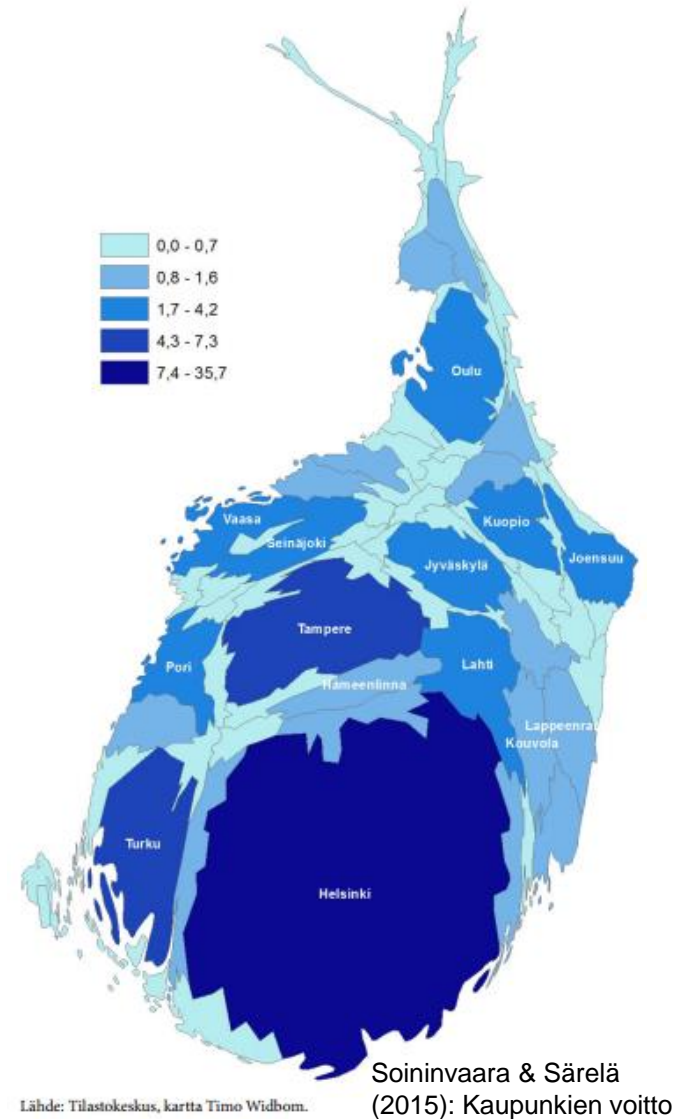
Source: OWID based on UN World Urbanization Prospects (2018), Maddison Project Database (2018) OurWorldInData.org/urbanization • CC BY

Spatial distribution of people globally

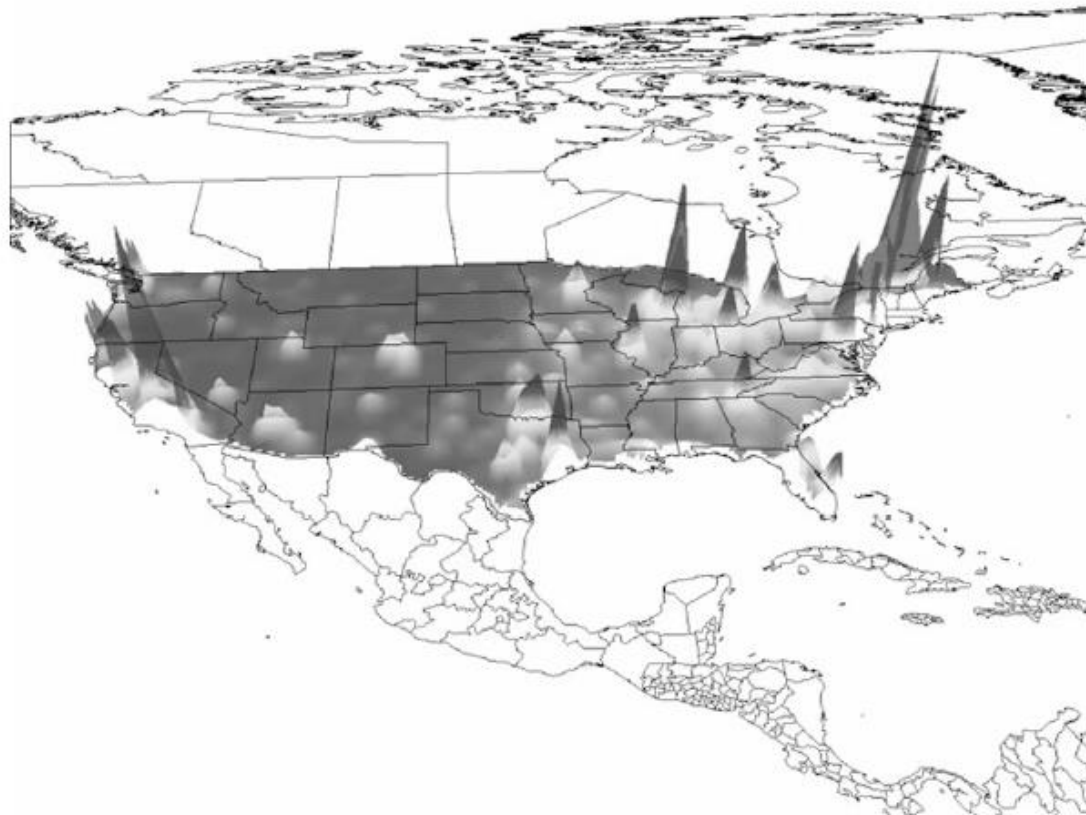


Spatial distribution of output and people

- In 2010, 4.4% of Finland's land area was built-up or paved
- For the US, the figure is roughly 2%
- HMA (Helsinki, Espoo, Vantaa, Kauniainen):
 - 0,2% of total land area
 - 19% of population
 - 30% of GDP
- Hard to explain without some kind of **agglomeration economies**



Spatial distribution of output – US



Moretti, E. 2011. Local Labor Markets. In D. Card, O. Ashenfelter (ed.), *Handbook of Labor Economics*, Vol. 4, Part B, 1237-1313

Figure 1 *Spatial distribution of economic output in the US, by square mile.* Notes: This figure reports the value of output produced in the US by square mile.

Spatial concentration of innovation activity – US

- Panel A. Computer science
- San Jose-San Francisco-Oakland, CA 0.261
 - New York-Newark-Bridgeport, NY-NJ-CT-PA 0.092
 - Seattle-Tacoma-Olympia, WA 0.082
 - Austin-Round Rock, TX 0.060
 - Boston-Worcester-Manchester, MA-NH 0.047
 - Los Angeles-Long Beach-Riverside, CA 0.039
 - Minneapolis-St. Paul-St. Cloud, MN-WI 0.034
 - Raleigh-Durham-Cary, NC 0.028
 - Denver-Aurora-Boulder, CO 0.023
 - San Diego-Carlsbad-San Marcos, CA 0.023
 - Portland-Vancouver-Beaverton, OR-WA 0.022
 - Washington-Baltimore-Northern Virginia, DC-MD-VA-WV 0.019
 - Dallas-Fort Worth, TX 0.015
 - Chicago-Naperville-Michigan City, IL-IN-WI 0.015

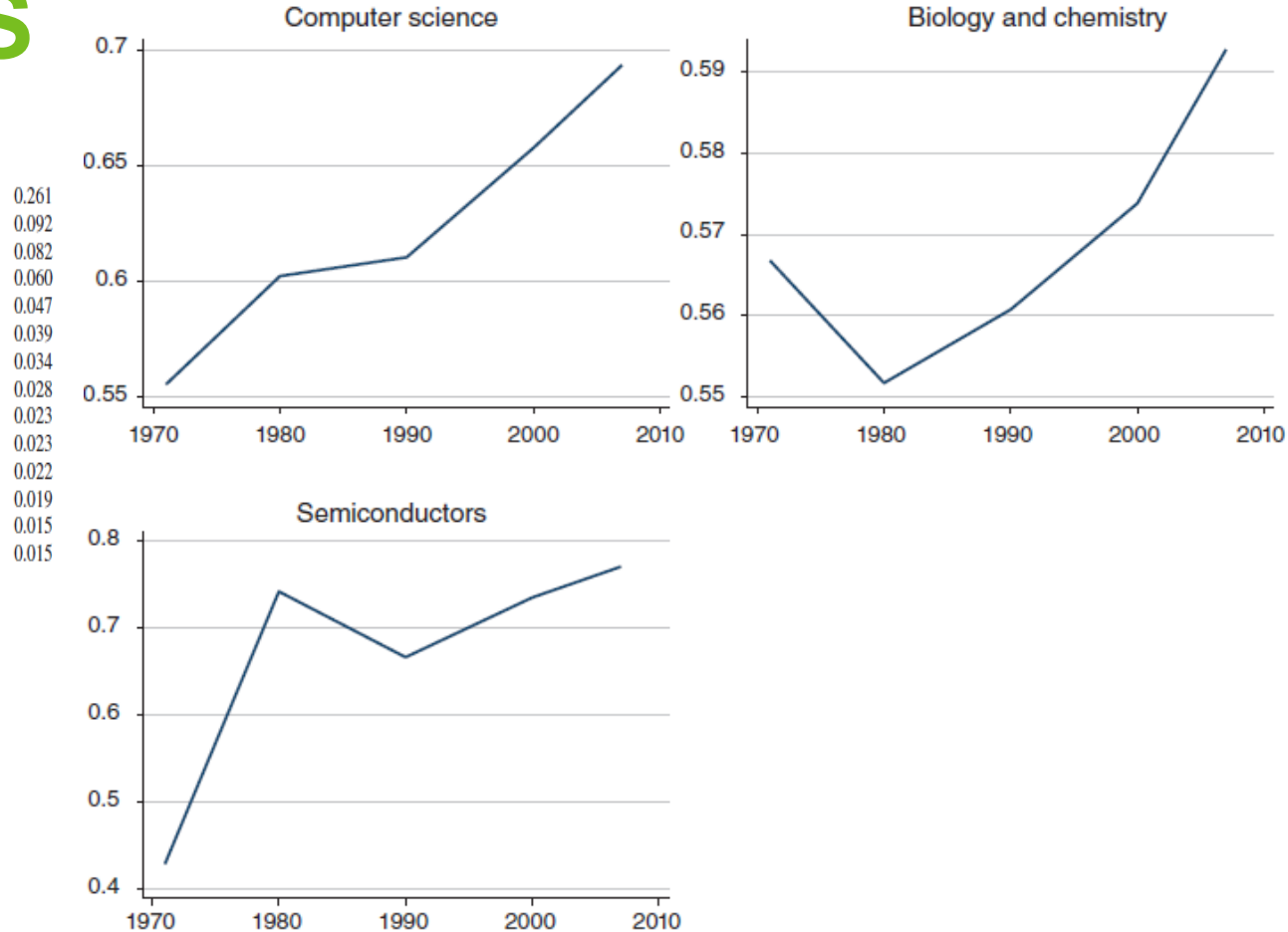


FIGURE 1. SHARE OF TOP TEN CITIES OVER TIME

Productivity and city size – US

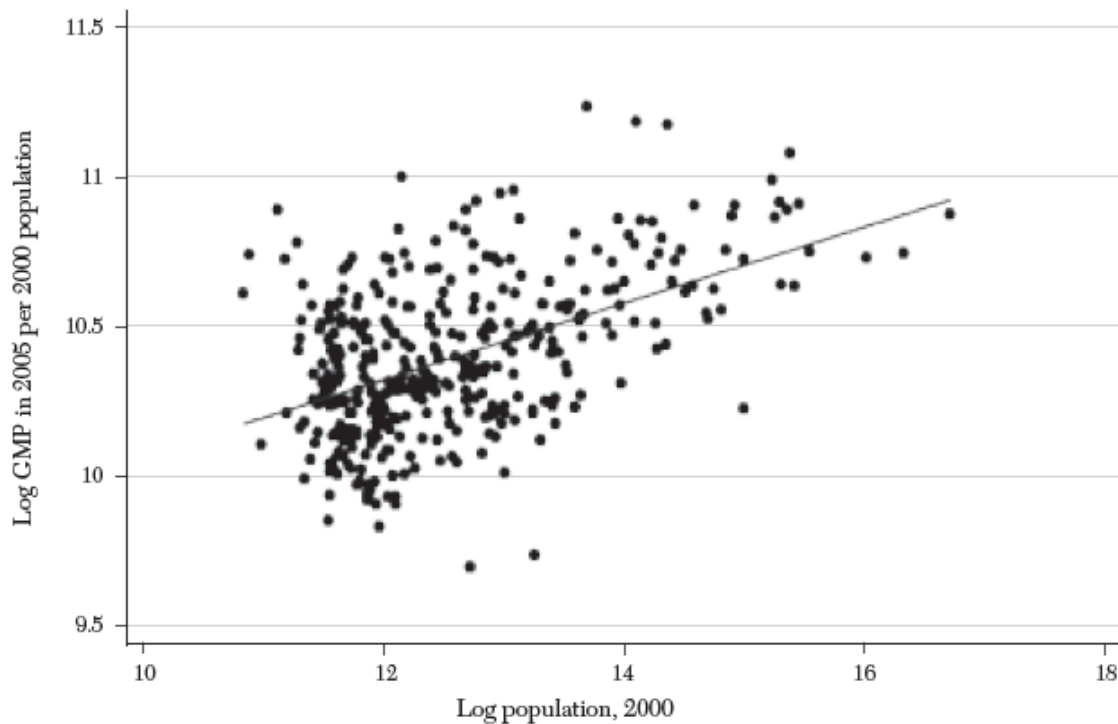


Figure 1. Productivity and City Size

Notes: Units of observation are Metropolitan Statistical Areas under the 2006 definitions. Population is from the Census, as described in the Data Appendix. Gross Metropolitan Product is from the Bureau of Economic Analysis.

The regression line is $\log \text{GMP per capita} = 0.13 [0.01] \times \log \text{population} + 8.8 [0.1]$.
 $R^2 = 0.25$ and $N = 363$.

Glaeser, E. L., and J. D. Gottlieb. 2009. The Wealth of Cities: Agglomeration Economies and Spatial Equilibrium in the United States. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 47(4): 983-1028.

Local labor markets in Finland

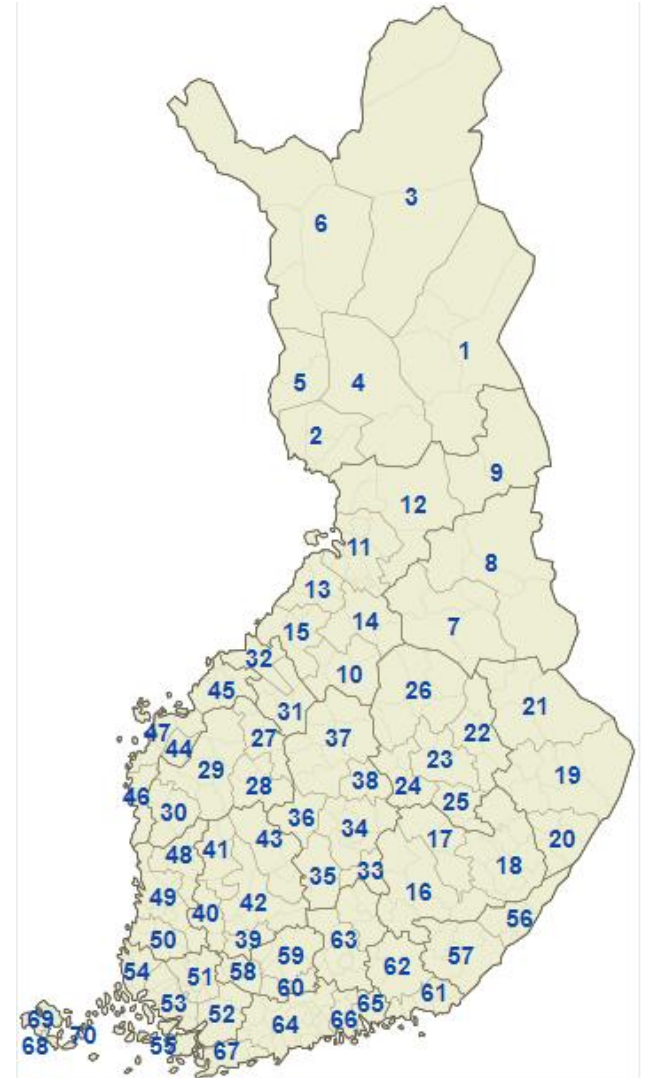
Seutukunta division

Idea: each *seutukunta* is a labor market area

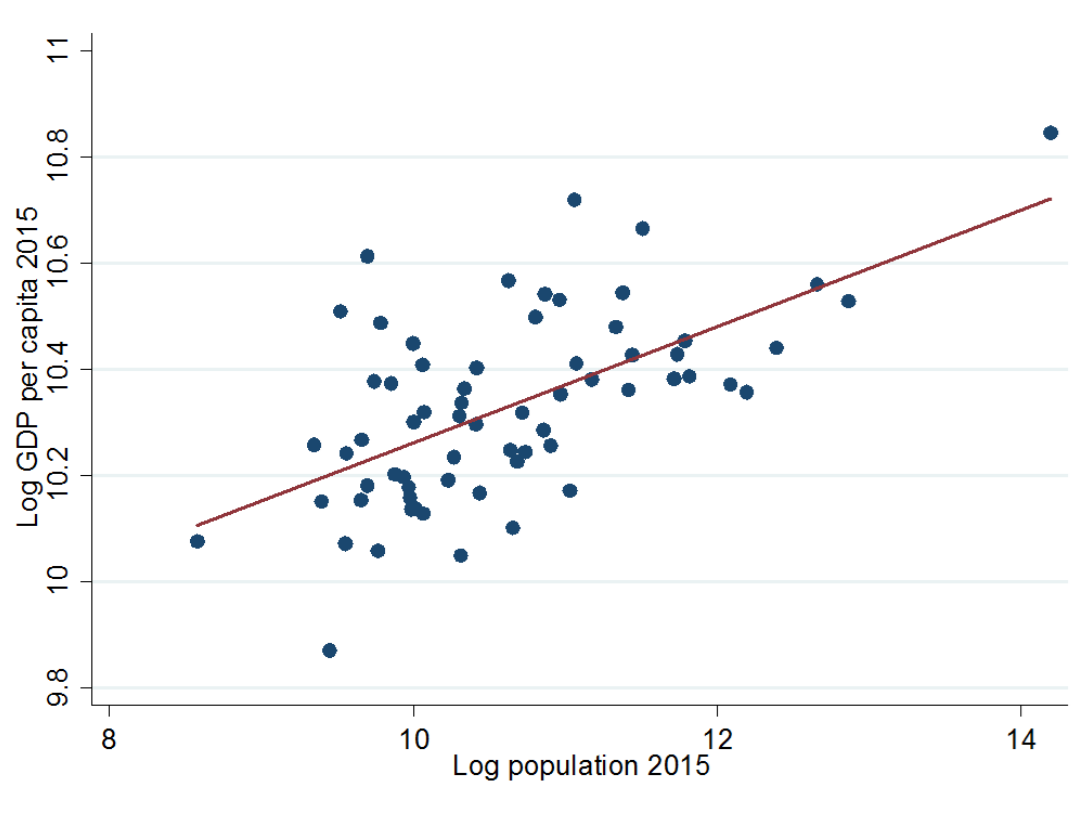
- In order to work in the area, you need to live there

Not a perfect division

- Functional urban areas or labor markets do not follow administrative borders



Productivity and city size – Finland

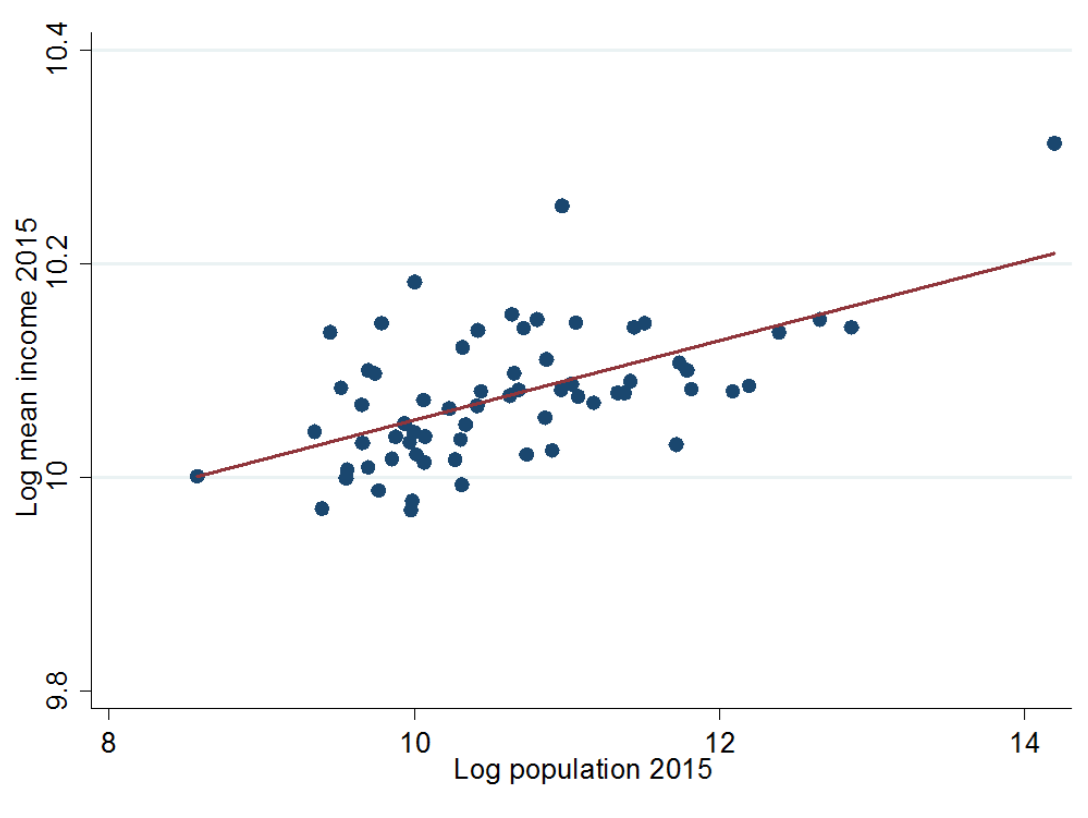


Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

The regression line is $\text{Log GDP} = 0.1095 [0.0161] * \text{Log population} + 9.167 [0.177]$

$R^2 = 0.37$, $N = 66$.

Productivity and city size – Finland



Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

The regression line is $\text{Log mean income} = 0.037 [0.008] * \text{Log population} + 9.681 [0.081]$

$R^2 = 0.33$, $N = 66$.

Income over time – US

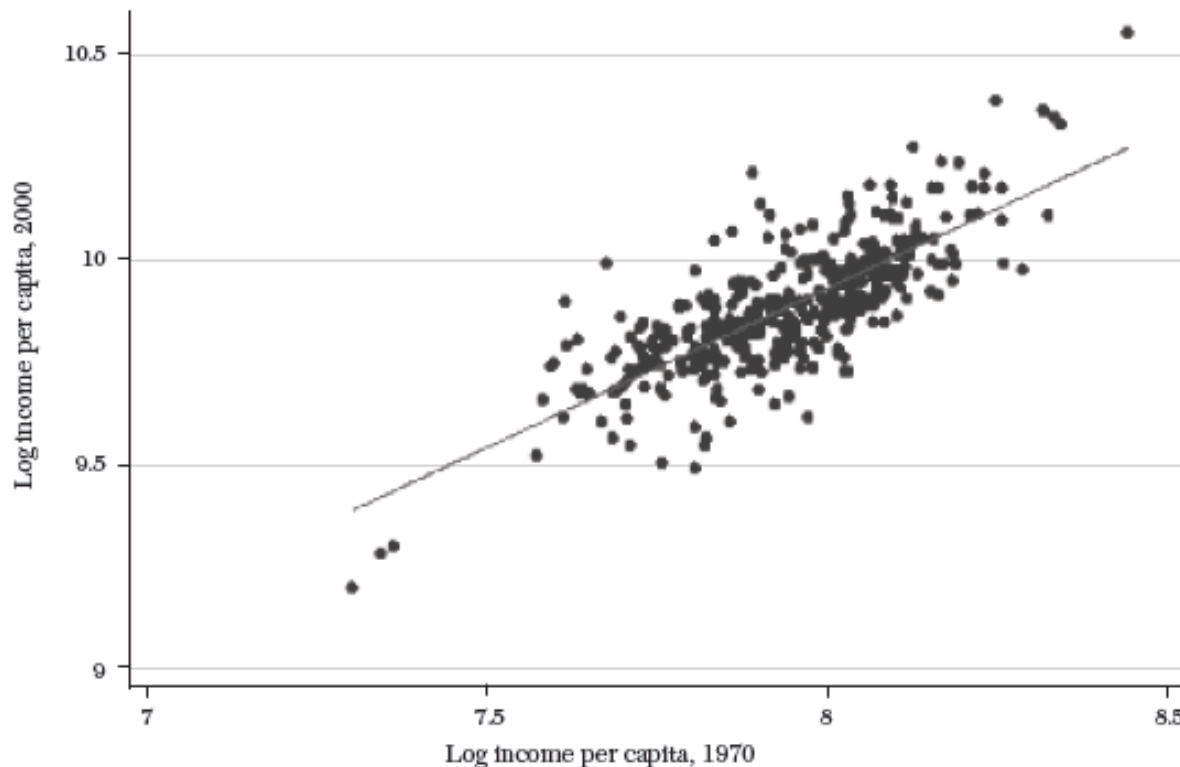
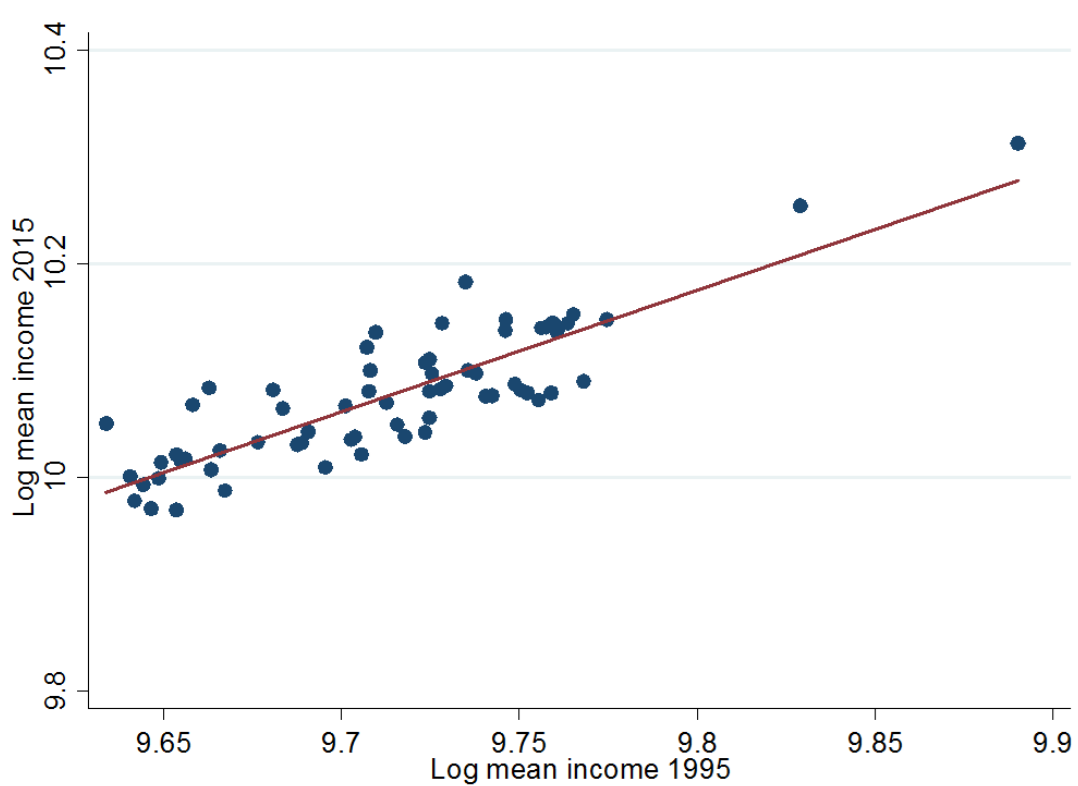


Figure 2. Income Over Time

Notes: Units of observation are Metropolitan Statistical Areas under the 2006 definitions, using Metropolitan Divisions where applicable. Data are from the Census, as described in the Data Appendix.

The regression line is $Income\ 2000 = 0.77 [0.03] \times Income\ 1970 + 3.75 [0.26]$.
 $R^2 = 0.60$ and $N = 363$.

Income over time – Finland



Notes: Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

The regression line is $\text{Log mean income 2015} = 1.140 [0.0882] * \text{Log mean income 1995} - 0.999 [0.8567]$
 $R^2 = 0.74, N = 66.$

Is this causal?

What is the empirical challenge?

Is this causal?

Do large urban areas make workers and firms more productive?

or

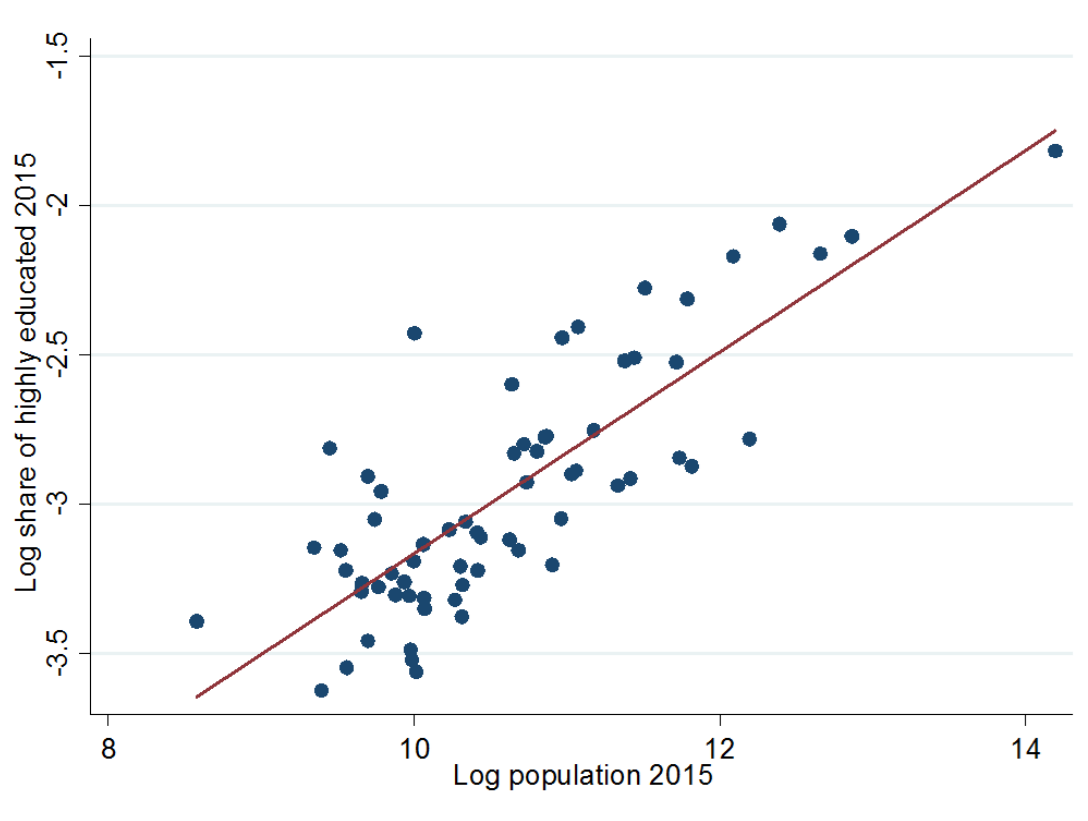
Are workers and firms in large cities different than their counterparts in smaller places?

- Agglomeration or sorting?

This a crucial question for urban and regional policy

- If workers are more productive in large cities, we may be able increase total productivity by simply allowing cities to grow

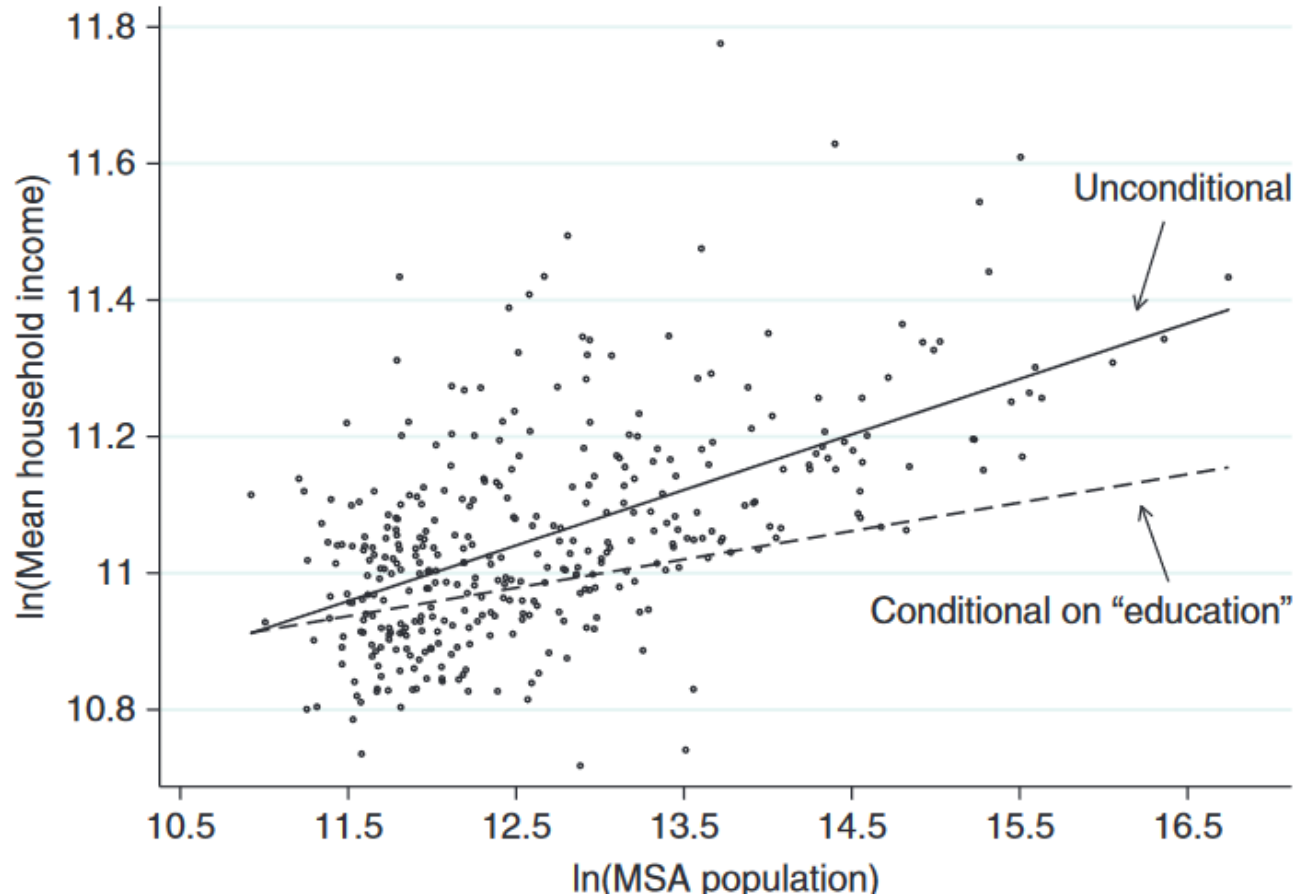
Human capital and city size – Finland



Notes: Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

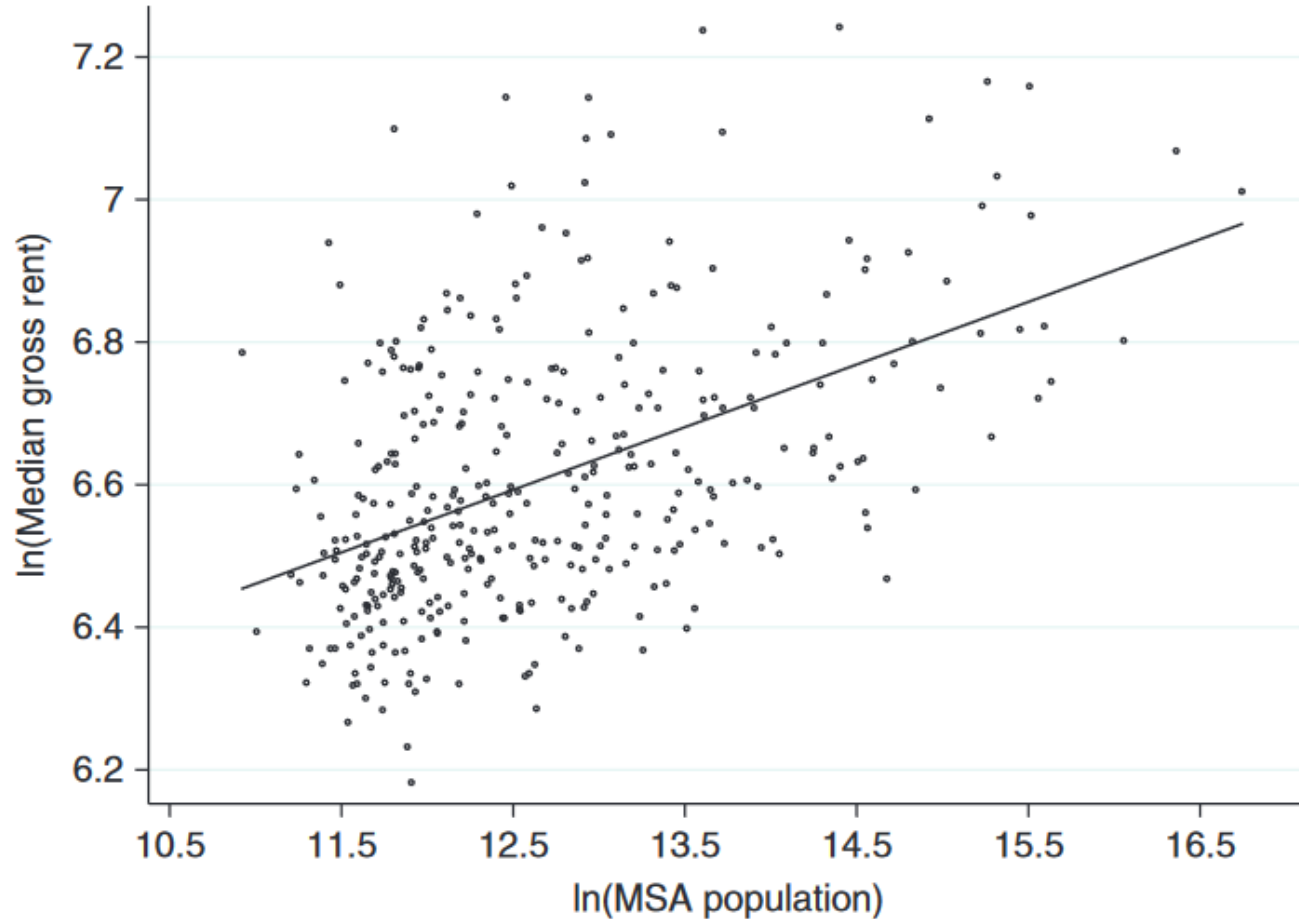
The regression line is $\text{Log share of highly educated} = 0.337 [0.029] * \text{Log mean income} - 6.542 [0.308]$
 $R^2 = 0.65, N = 66.$

Income conditional on human capital – US



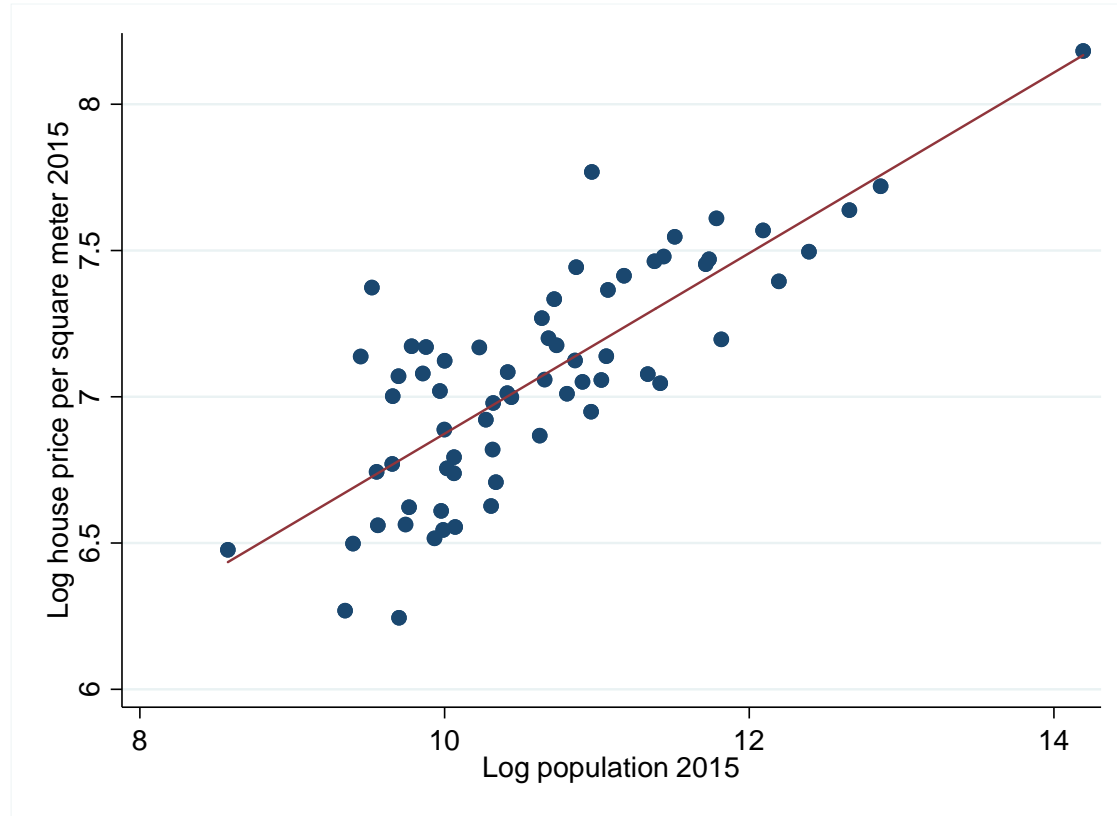
Behrens, K. and F. Robert-Nicoud.
2015. Agglomeration Theory with
Heterogeneous Agents. In G.
Duranton, J.V. Henderson, W.C.
Strange (ed.), *Handbook of Regional
and Urban Economics*. Vol. 5, 171-245

Rents and city size – US



Behrens, K. and F. Robert-Nicoud.
2015. Agglomeration Theory with
Heterogeneous Agents. In G.
Duranton, J.V. Henderson, W.C.
Strange (ed.), *Handbook of Regional
and Urban Economics*. Vol. 5, 171-245

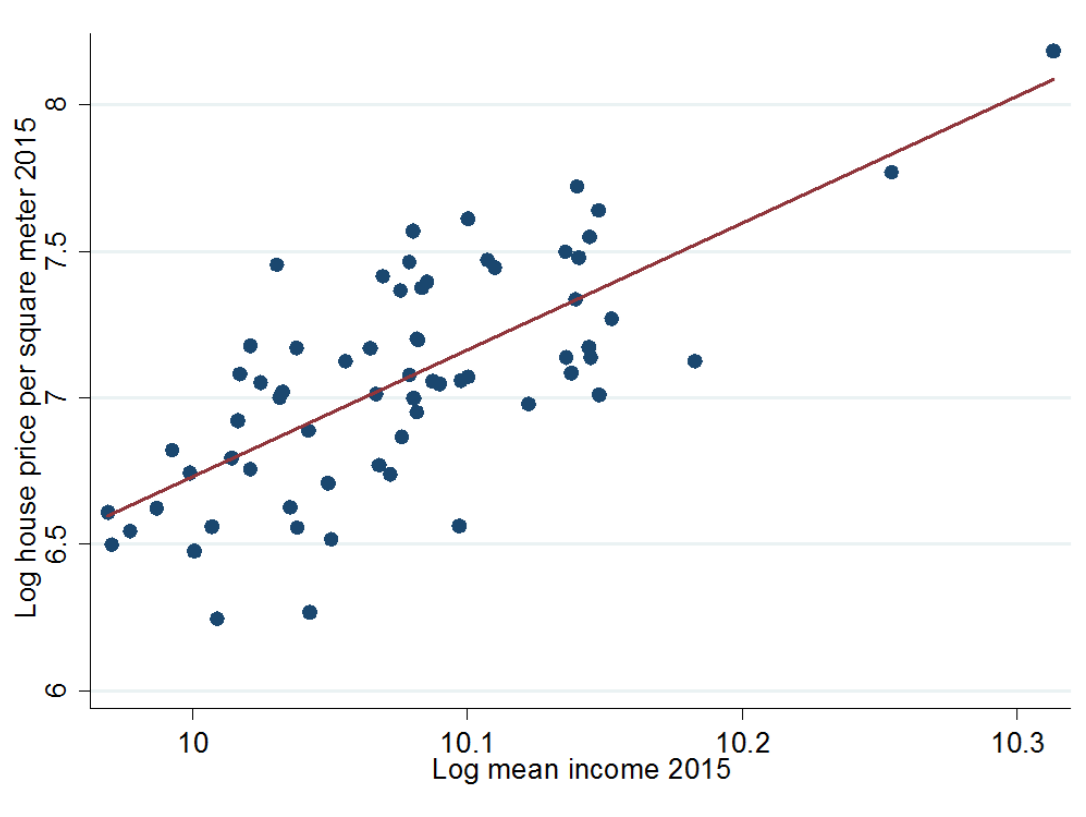
House prices and city size – Finland



Notes: Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

The regression line is $\text{Log house price} = 0.308 [0.025] * \text{Log population} + 3.787 [0.283]$
 $R^2 = 0.63, N = 66.$

Income and house prices – Finland



Notes: Notes: Data come from Statistics Finland's Paavo and Statfin database. Units of observation are Seutukunta Areas under the 2015 definitions.

The regression line is $\text{Log house price} = 4.332 [0.400] * \text{Log mean income} - 36.59 [4.036]$
 $R^2 = 0.51, N = 66.$

Patterns

People and production are highly concentrated in space

Workers in bigger cities are more productive and they earn higher wages

- Productivity differences are only partly explained by sorting of different types of workers and firms to different areas

These productivity and earnings differences across space seem to be persistent

Bigger cities are also more expensive to live in

- Spatial equilibrium!

Why cities exist?

Why cities exist?

Different disciplines have different views

- A military historian might say it is easier to defend against attacks if populations are concentrated into cities
- A sociologist might point out that people like to interact socially and to do that they must be spatially concentrated

Economist tend to focus on jobs and the location of employment and firms

- Economic forces cause employment to be concentrated in space
- Concentration of jobs lead to concentration of residences as workers locate near their worksite => the result is a city
- Cities are labor markets!

Scale economies

With **scale economies**, businesses become more efficient at large scales of operation

- More output per unit of input than at smaller scales
- Division of labor and specialization

Scale economies favor the formation of large enterprises or factories, and thus, spatial concentration of employment

- See Chapter 1 in Bruckner for details and examples



Agglomeration economies

Scale economies can explain how company towns form, but large cities require **agglomeration economies**

At their broadest level, agglomeration economies occur when **individuals and firms benefit from being near others**

- It is costly to locate into large labor markets, and thus, there must be some benefits from it as well
- Why would a firm producing **tradable goods** (sold to the whole country or world markets) locate into an expensive area?

Transportation costs also influence where a firm locates, and they can lead to, or reinforce, spatial concentration of jobs



Agglomeration economies in production

Spatial distribution of population and overwhelming evidence on productivity advantages of cities point to some sort of externalities

- **Externality/spillover** = cost or benefit that affects a third party who did not choose to incur that cost or benefit

These externalities are often referred to as agglomeration, but there are many different mechanisms at work

Agglomeration economies in production

Brueckner divides agglomeration economies into pecuniary and technological agglomeration economies

- **Pecuniary agglomeration economies** lead to a reduction in the cost of firm's inputs without affecting the productivity of inputs
- **Technological agglomeration economies** raise the productivity of the inputs without lowering their costs
- See Chapter 1 in Brueckner for more details and examples

Another often-used taxonomy for the mechanisms is

- **Sharing, matching and learning**

Sharing

Agglomeration through **sharing occurs when large numbers of firms or workers benefit by drawing from a common pool of resources when organizing their activities**

A larger market allows for a more efficient sharing of

- Local infrastructure and facilities
- A variety of intermediate input suppliers
- A pool of workers with similar skills

Matching

The labor market matches different types of workers and firms

- The better the match, the higher the benefits to both (**match value**)

Due to **search and matching frictions in the labor market, a larger market leads better matching between employers and employees**

- Better matching can take the form of improved chances of finding a match, a higher quality of matches, or a combination of both
- Enhanced for married couples

This applies to matches between buyers and suppliers, and business partners as well

Learning

Even with modern communication technologies **physical distance acts as a barrier to learning**

Knowledge or human capital spillovers arise when spatially concentrated firms or workers are more easily able to **learn from one another** than if they were spread out over space

- Large cities provide more opportunities for people and firms to learn from each other and from the environment around them
- For instance, by promoting the development and widespread adoption of new technologies and business practices

We will deal with agglomeration issues further when we analyze local labor and spatial equilibrium across cities

Consumer city

The “old view” of cities was that they provide workers high salaries and employment opportunities, but these come at the cost of commuting, crime and pollution

But now it seems that urbanization is driven more and more by **consumer benefits**

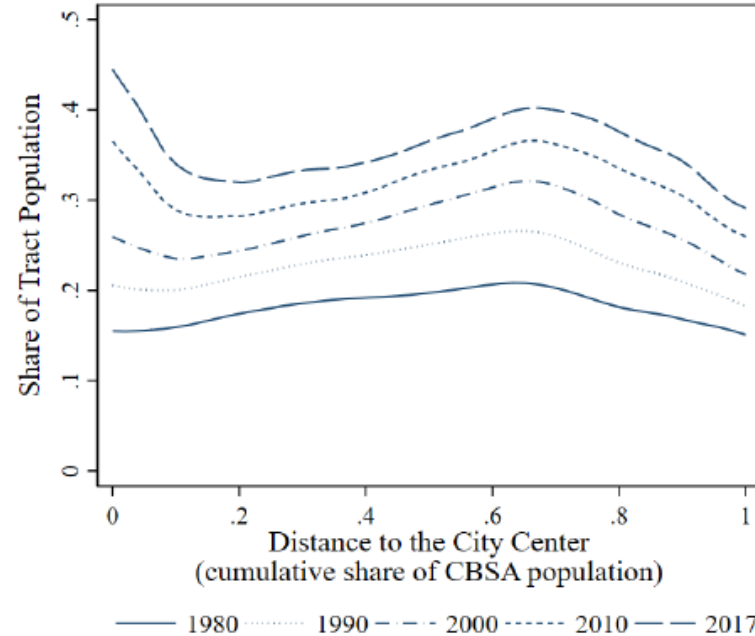
- Cities have become centers of consumption as cities provide consumer benefits through **variety**
- Restaurants, theaters, sports teams, marriage market

Glaeser, Kolko and Saiz (2001):

- “Scale economies mean that specialized retail can only be supported in places large enough to have a critical mass of consumers”

Urban revival

Figure 1: College Share by Distance to City Center



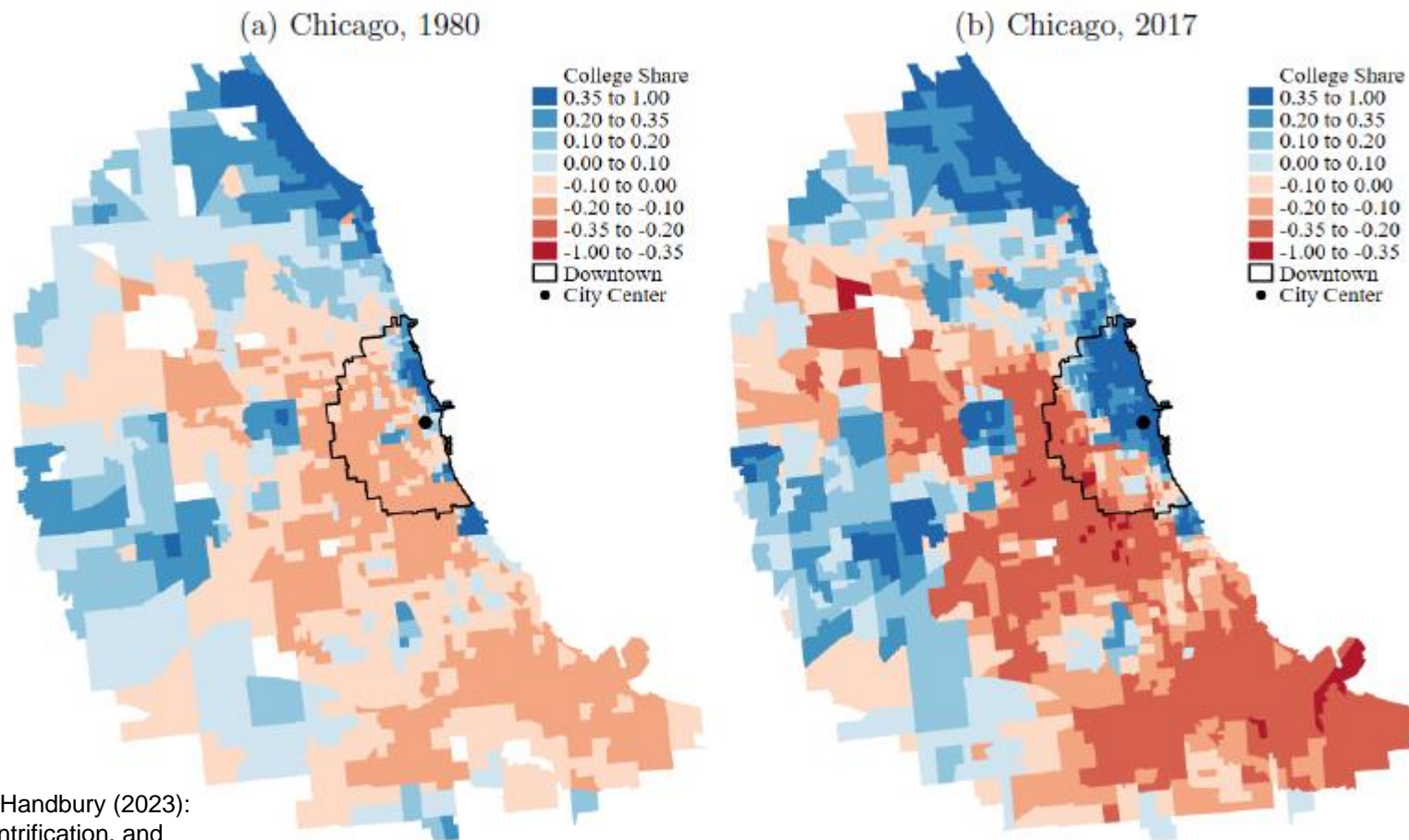
Notes: This figure plots the college-educated share of the Census tract population by distance to the city center in each decade from 1980 to 2017. Each line is a nonparametric kernel regression of Census tract-level demographic data from the largest 100 cities, defined as the Core-Based Statistical Areas (CBSAs) with the highest populations in 2000. Each kernel regression observation is weighted by tract population. Distance is measured as the share of the city residents that live at least as close to the city center, which is 0 at the center and 1 at the furthest point in the metropolitan area.

Source: Couture, V. and J. Handbury (2023): Neighborhood Change, Gentrification, and the Urbanization of College Graduates.

Sources: NHGIS Census (1980, 1990, 2000) & American Community Survey (2008-2012, 2015-2019) (Manson et al., 2022); Longitudinal Tract Data Base (Logan et al., 2014); Holian (2019).

Urban revival

Figure 3: Variation in College Share Across Census Tracts



Source: Couture, V. and J. Handbury (2023):
Neighborhood Change, Gentrification, and
the Urbanization of College Graduates.

Why do we have multiple cities?

Cities are an outcome of the **trade-off between agglomeration benefits and costs of urban life**

Urban life has its downsides

- Housing costs (housing supply)
- Commuting costs, congestion
- Crime and other social problems
- Health costs through pollution, poor air quality, noise and spreading of infectious diseases

Local land use and housing supply regulations also prevent city growth

Recap

When economists think about the distribution of households and firms across cities, we concentrate on

- Wage and productivity differences,
- Amenity differences and
- Housing cost differences between cities

When thinking about the inner structure of cities we pay less attention to wages

- In a city, basically all jobs are available to all city residents, even though access comes with commuting costs

Causal evidence on agglomeration forces

Causal evidence on agglomeration forces

What **evidence** do we have that for agglomeration forces?

- Locations differ in many ways: accessibility, natural amenities etc.
- Firms and workers differ across locations

This is important for policy:

- Agglomeration is an **externality/spillover**: by locating into a particular city a firm or a worker may increase the productivity of existing firms and workers in the city
- Firms and workers are unlikely to take these externalities into account in their decisions so there may be room for policy measures

Example - Greenstone, Hornbeck and Moretti 2010 (GHM)

Identifying Agglomeration Spillovers: Evidence from Winners and Losers of Large Plant Openings

Author(s): Michael Greenstone, Richard Hornbeck and Enrico Moretti

Source: *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 118, No. 3 (June 2010), pp. 536-598

GHM

Test for **agglomeration spillovers** in manufacturing by asking

- How the productivity of **incumbent plants** changes when a large plant opens in their county?

Incumbent plants = the plants that already are in the county

Empirical problem

The empirical problem is that firms do not choose their locations randomly

- They maximize profits and **choose** to locate where their expectation of the discounted value of future profits is greatest
- Location choice depends on several local characteristics, which are often **unobservable** to the researcher
- If a given plant is expected to make large profits at a given location, maybe also incumbent plants are likely to make large profits there
- A naive comparison of the productivity of incumbents in counties that experience plant openings with the productivity of incumbents in counties that do not experience plant openings yields biased estimates

Empirical problem

The key issue is to create a plausible **counterfactual, i.e. ask**

- What would have happened to incumbent plants in winning counties in the absence of the plant openings?
- But we as researchers cannot observe this counterfactual!

What we observe is either

- a) what a place is like before and after a new plant or
- b) what one place is like with a new plant, and another is without it

Thus, we cannot be sure that the effects we observe are not due to some non-plant opening related differences over time or across places

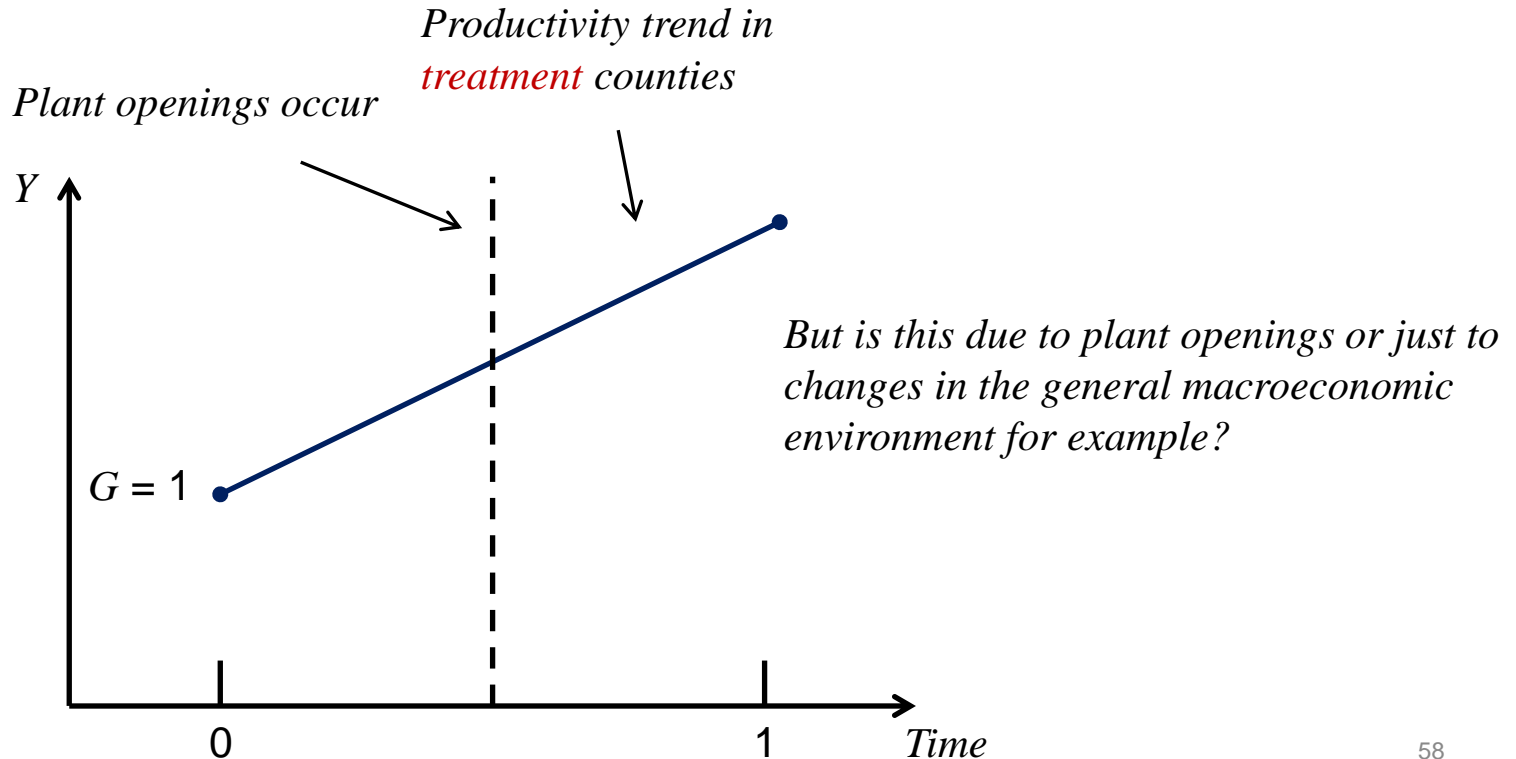
Research design – “Million dollar plants”

GHM rely on the reported location rankings of firms from the corporate real estate journal *Site Selection*

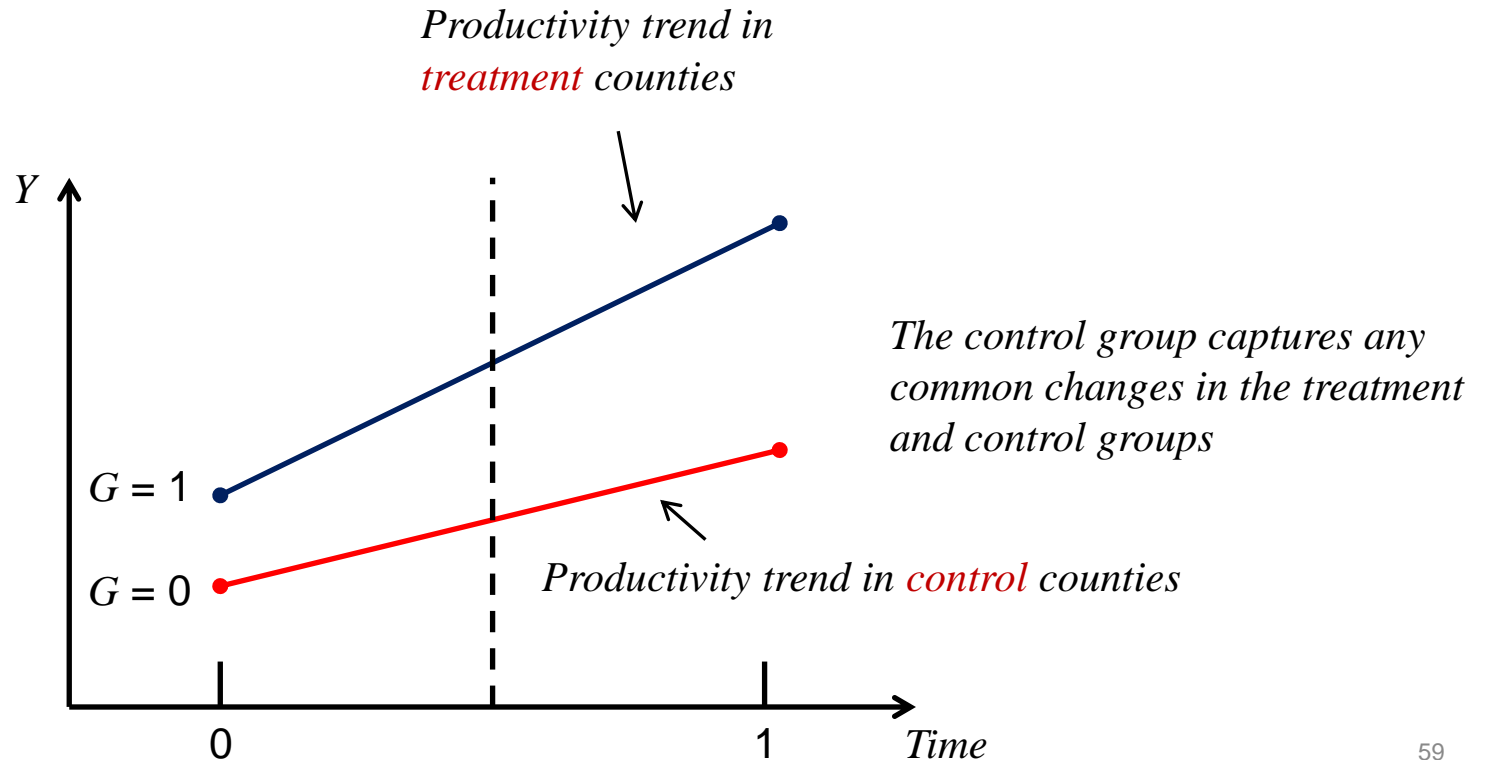
- Each issue of this journal includes an article titled “**Million Dollar Plants**” that describes how a large plant decided where to locate
- Articles report the county that the plant chose (**treatment group**) and usually report the runner-up county or counties (**control group**)
- GHM use the control group to identify what would have happened to the productivity of incumbent plants in the treatment group in the absence of the plant opening (**counterfactual**)

GHM compare the incumbent plants in the **treatment and control groups before and after** the plant openings

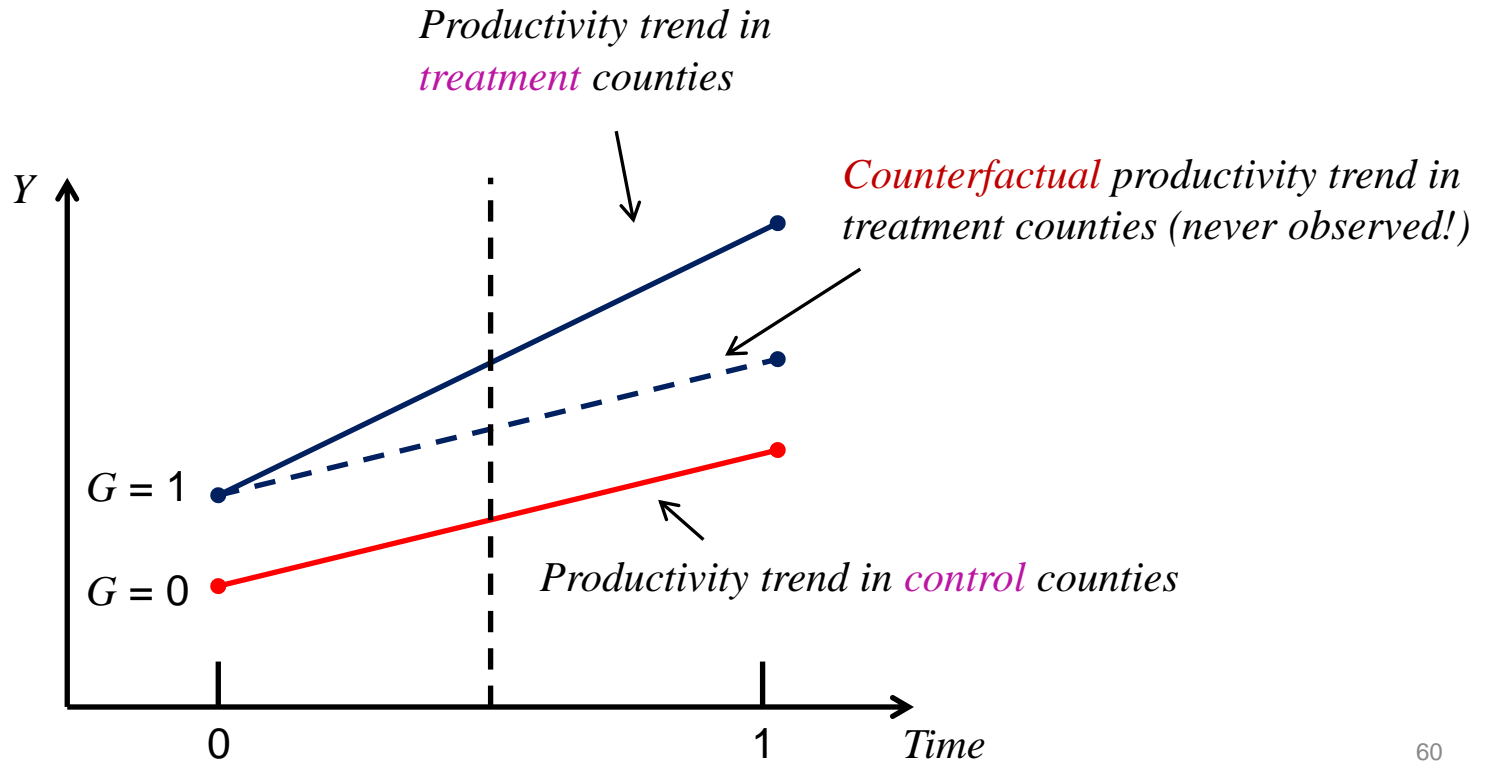
Research design – Difference-in-differences



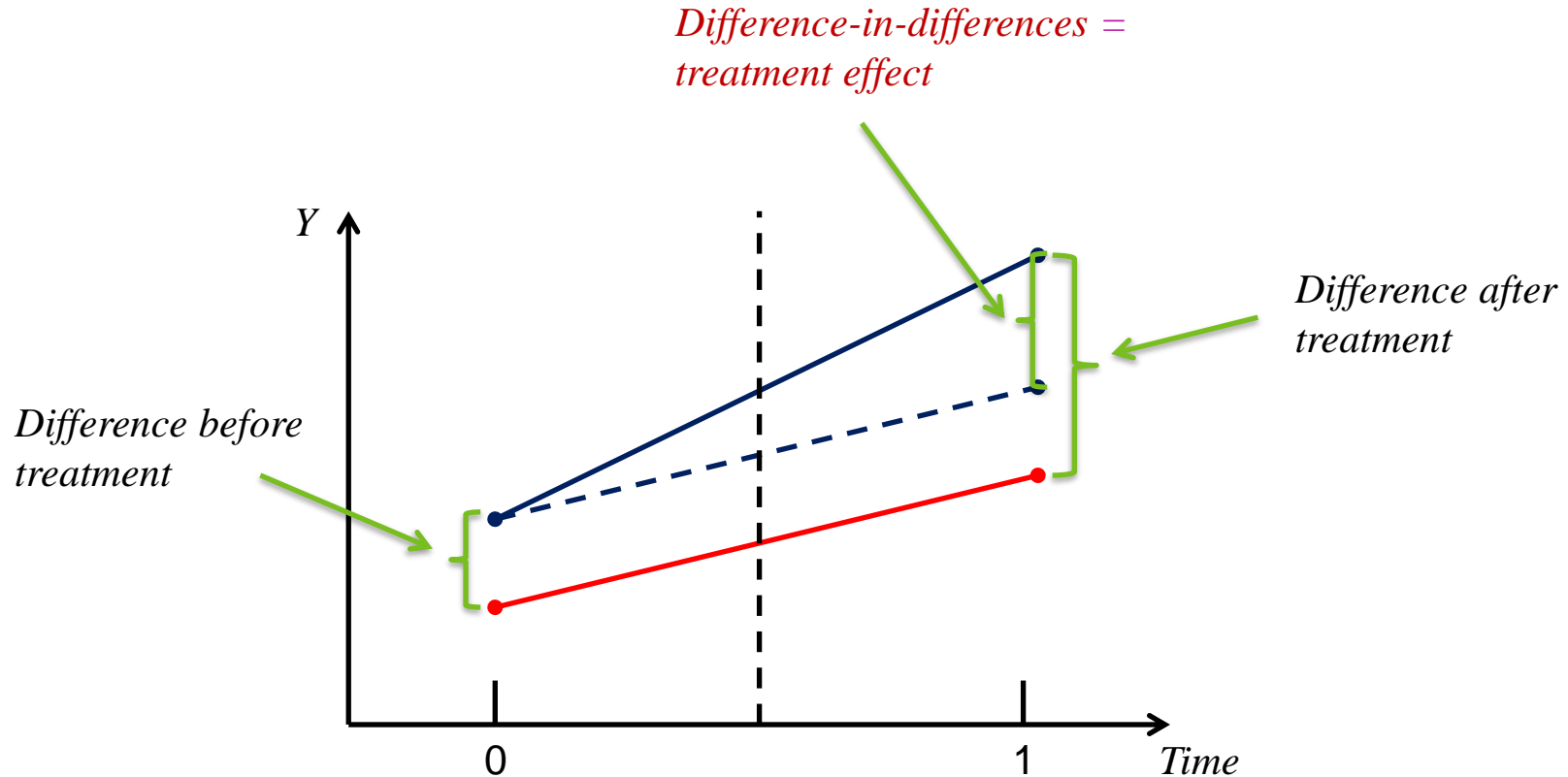
Research design – Difference-in-differences



Research design – Difference-in-differences



Research design – Difference-in-differences



Research design – Difference-in-differences

The **key assumption** for any DID strategy is that the outcome in treatment and control groups would **follow the same time trend in the absence of the treatment**

- This “**common trend assumption**” is impossible to test because you never observe the counterfactual
- One often uses pre-treatment data to show that the trends have been the same in past

Additional assumptions include that there are no spillover effects from the treatment group to the control group and no other policy changes that coincide with the treatment

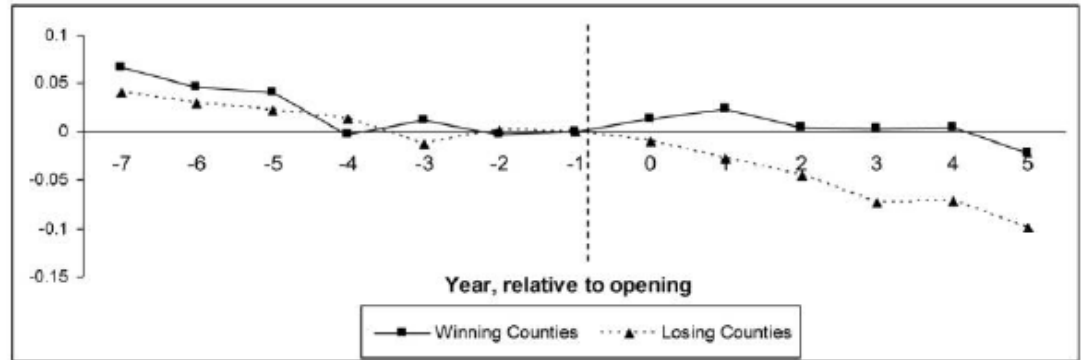
Million dollar plants

TABLE 1
THE MILLION DOLLAR PLANT SAMPLE

	(1)	
Sample MDP openings: ^a		
Across all industries	47	Treated counties
Within same two-digit SIC	16	
Across all industries:		
Number of loser counties per winner county:		
1	31	Control counties
2+	16	
Reported year – matched year: ^b		
–2 to –1	20	
0	15	
1 to 3	12	
Reported year of MDP location:		
1981–85	11	
1986–89	18	
1990–93	18	
MDP characteristics, 5 years after opening: ^c		
Output (\$1,000s)	452,801	
	(901,690)	
Output, relative to county output 1 year prior	.086	
	(.109)	
Hours of labor (1,000s)	2,986	
	(6,789)	

Results

All Industries: Winners vs. Losers



Difference: Winners – Losers

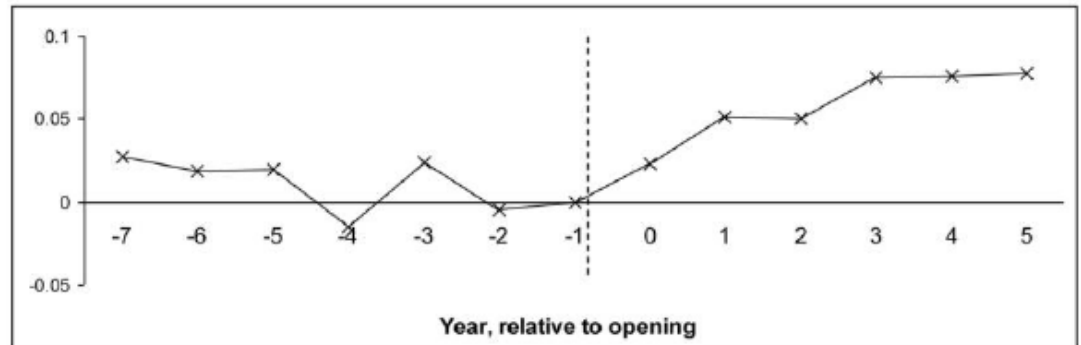


FIG. 1.—All incumbent plants' productivity in winning versus losing counties, relative to the year of an MDP opening. These figures accompany table 4.

Recap

GHM document substantial increases in productivity among incumbent plants following the opening of Million Dollar Plants => evidence of spillovers

Spillovers are larger between plants that share labor pools and similar technologies

- Consistent with **learning externalities**, to the extent that they occur among firms that use similar technologies or are embodied in workers who move between firms
- And improved efficiencies of worker-firm **matches**
- Firms also appear to pay higher costs to receive these productivity spillovers