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Atmospheric pollution in rapidly growing industrial cities: spatial policies and land use patterns

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Abstract

We study the optimal and equilibrium distribution of industrial and residential land in a given region. The trade-off between agglomeration and dispersion forces in the form of pollution from stationary forces, production externalities and commuting costs, determines the emergence of industrial and residential clusters across space. In this context, we define two kinds of spatial policies that can be used in order to close the gap between optimal and market allocations. More specifically, we show that the joint implementation of a site-specific environmental tax and a site-specific labor subsidy can reproduce the optimum as an equilibrium outcome. The methodological approach followed in this article allows for an endogenous determination of land use patterns.

Keywords: Spatial policies, agglomeration, land use, atmospheric pollution, environmental tax, labor subsidy

JEL classifications: R14, R38, H23

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1. Introduction

The formation of residential and industrial clusters in a city or region reflects the existence of forces that drive the observed spatial patterns. Agglomeration and dispersion forces have been extensively analyzed in the literature of urban economics and have played an important role in explaining the initial formation and the further development of cities. Positive and negative aspects of spatial interaction have been used in order to explain why economic agents are not uniformly distributed across the globe.¹ In this context, it has been established that firms benefit from operating closer to other firms because of different sources of urban agglomeration economies, such as labor market interactions, linkages between suppliers of intermediate and final goods and knowledge spillovers.² All those sources have been shown to boost productivity and promote the formation of business clusters. This is where workers come into the picture, as firms have to compete not only with the rest of the firms when they choose their location, but also with workers. Since commuting to work is costly, and the cost

1 Beckman (1976) and Papageorgiou and Smith (1983) provide an early attempt to determine the circumstances under which positive and negative externalities induce agglomeration.

2 See Duranton and Puga (2004) for a review of the theoretical literature of agglomeration economies.

increases with distance, workers prefer to locate closer to their workplaces. Thus, even though in most regions of the globe there is an excess supply of cheap land, economic agents are willing to pay high land rents in order to locate in large centers.

Apart from the above forces, which are well-known from both the theoretical and empirical literature, there are additional determinants of the location decisions of economic agents that need to be studied in a formal framework. Atmospheric pollution is unambiguously considered to be a significant factor of concern for both industries and consumers when taking location decisions. Industries generate emissions, and since workers are negatively affected by pollution they try to avoid locating near them. However, the spatial interdependence of industries and workers stemming from commuting costs increases the problem of air pollution. If industries were located in pure business areas with no resident population then the damage from the generation of emissions would be much lower compared to the case of industries located close to residential or mixed areas. Since pollution problems—especially in growing urban, industrial centers—are becoming increasingly more serious, it is easy to understand why pollution externalities should be studied in a spatial context.

The interaction between industrial pollution and residential areas has attracted a lot of interest and has often been identified as a reason for government intervention. Environmental degradation has caused major problems particularly in countries that have experienced rapid development.³ The best example to illustrate this problem is China's urban growth. Over the last two decades, China has achieved high industrial growth rates which have created numerous environmental problems. According to China's Energy Statistics Yearbook, in 2010, the industrial sector consumed 89.1% of the total energy. Air and water pollution is highly connected to industrial activity in urban areas and currently a large number of cities in China are faced with extremely high pollution levels. Only 1% of the population living in Chinese cities enjoys air quality that meets the European Union's standards (World Bank, 2007). On the other hand, the rapid development of economic activity has attracted a large number of people who have moved from rural areas to the urban areas of China. Millions of rural households are trying to take advantage not only of better employment opportunities in urban areas but also of other kinds of benefits such as better education levels and a higher quality of life. This trend, however, cannot prevent residents from locating closer to the polluted, urban industrial areas, which clearly highlights the need for government intervention with the aim of reducing the negative pollution externalities.

Apart from China, countries that are experiencing a similar stage of newly advanced economic development, such as Brazil, Russia and India, are expected to grow by 46% from 2005 to 2030, which will lead to significant levels of environmental degradation (OECD Environmental Outlook to 2030, 2008).⁴ Thus, urban pollution calls for immediate action that needs to be taken at local level and which clearly points to the spatial aspect of the problem. In this way, the role of environmental policy is crucial in the development of residential and industrial clusters, as strict environmental measures can discourage firms from operating in specific areas, while the reduced pollution levels

3 The analysis in this article is particularly relevant for industrial cities that face serious environmental problems. The case in modern cities, which specialize in services, is different since pollution mainly comes from the means of transport and not from stationary sources. As stated in the conclusion, we leave this issue for further research.

4 See http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/environment/oecd-environmental-outlook-to-2030_9789264040519-en

that will result from this kind of policy could encourage people to locate even closer to industrial areas, thus reducing commuting cost.

The objective of this article is to further analyze the trade-off between the positive (agglomeration forces) and negative (pollution) externalities that take place in a city context and have long attracted the interest of urban and environmental economics (Henderson, 1977; Glaeser, 1998; Arnott et al., 2008; Zheng and Kahn, 2013). More specifically, we study how pollution from stationary sources—which affects workers negatively and leads to environmental regulations being imposed—combined with other agglomeration forces such as externalities in production and commuting costs will finally determine the internal structure of a region.⁵ The trade-off between a shorter commute and worse air quality (also modeled in Arnott et al., 2008) is very relevant to highly polluted industrial cities in the developing world. What has been added in this context by the present article is the effect of agglomeration economies which is the main force that drives the concentration of industries in spatial clusters. This force comes from the existence of interactions among firms which facilitate the matching between firms and inputs. These inputs could be either workers or intermediate goods or even ideas that stem from the exchange of information and knowledge between firms. These interactions create some benefits for firms and boost their productivity, which means that, other things being equal, each firm has an incentive to locate closer to the other firms, forming industrial or business areas.⁶ In this article, the introduction of agglomeration economies combined with diffused atmospheric pollution along with the traditional factor of commuting costs provides new insights regarding the optimal urban structures. More specifically, we show that contrary to the monocentric city result of the traditional land use models that study the ‘positive production externalities—commuting cost’ trade-off (shown among others in Rossi-Hansberg (2004)), the addition of environmental externalities promotes the formation of multicenter cities at the optimum.

We characterize optimal and equilibrium land uses in particular and show that the derived market allocations differ from the optimal ones due to assumed externalities in the form of positive productivity spillovers and pollution diffusion. We use the spatial model to define site-specific policies that will improve efficiency in the given region. More precisely, we show that the joint enforcement of a site-specific pollution tax and a site-specific labor subsidy reproduces the optimal allocation as a market outcome. Numerical experiments illustrate the differences between the two solutions and show

- 5 The trade-off of production externalities and commuting costs has been explained extensively in a number of studies, such as in Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg (2002), Rossi-Hansberg (2004), and Fujita and Thisse (2013). In an earlier paper, Fujita and Ogawa (1982) presented a model of land use in a linear city, where the population was fixed and firms and households would compete for land at the different spatial points.
- 6 Another type of social interaction, which is explained by the role of social networks, has recently started being explored in urban economics models. In this context, Helsley and Zenou (2014) study the location decisions of economic agents who have positions both within a social network and in a geographic space. They show that there is a tendency for agents who are more central in a social network to locate closer to a geographic center, thus promoting some kind of endogenous geographic separation based on social distance. Another aspect of social and geographic distance is modeled in Mossay and Picard (2011, 2013), who study the use of residential space and the formation of neighborhoods assuming that agents visit other agents in order to benefit from face-to-face communication, while the cost of those visits is proportional to the trip's distance. A nice survey of externalities which propagate through networks can be found in Jackson and Zenou (2014).

that industrial areas are concentrated in smaller intervals in the optimal solution. Also, mixed areas emerge in the market allocation but not in the optimal one.

More specifically, using a general equilibrium model of land use we examine how pollution created by emissions, which are considered to be a by-product of the production process, determines the residential and industrial location decisions and hence affects the spatial structure of a region. Accordingly, pollution negatively affects both firms and workers. Regarding firms, it implies the implementation of environmental policy in the form of a site-specific tax that imposes extra costs while simultaneously decreasing labor productivity. Regarding workers, atmospheric pollution discourages them from locating in polluted sites and imposes on them additional commuting costs. An important point here is that pollution comes from a stationary source yet diffuses in space, creating uneven levels of pollution at different spatial points. However, the higher the number of firms that locate in a spatial interval, the more polluted this interval will be, which implies a higher environmental tax. Thus, if firms decide to locate close to each other so as to benefit from co-located firms, they will have to pay a higher pollution tax and suffer some loss in the form of decreased labor productivity due to pollution. Thus, pollution discourages the agglomeration of economic activity. As for the consumers, they are negatively affected by pollution and prefer to locate in ‘clean’ areas. Yet, this means that they will have to move further away from the firms, which implies higher commuting costs. The balance among these opposite forces, as well as the use of land for both production and residential purposes, will finally define the industrial and residential areas.

The first models of spatial pollution (e.g., Tietenberg, 1974; Henderson, 1977) assumed a predetermined location for housing and industry, without giving workers the possibility to locate in an area that had already been characterized as industrial and without allowing for a change in the spatial patterns. The paper that is closest to the present one in the modeling of pollution is Arnott et al. (2008), who assume nonlocal pollution in order to investigate the role of space in the control of pollution externalities. They show that in a spatial context, in order to achieve the global optimum, a spatially differentiated added-damage tax is needed. As mentioned above, the difference between the present article and Arnott et al. (2008) (apart from the methodological part, which is explained below) is that we explicitly examine how pollution diffusion interacts with the force that has been identified to explain most of the spatial industrial concentration in clusters, i.e., the positive productivity spillovers. This interaction is fundamental in determining the equilibrium and optimal land uses and helps us characterize spatial policies in the form of environmental taxes and labor subsidies that reproduce the optimum as an equilibrium outcome.

Another form of interaction between pollution diffusion and a natural cost-advantage site, as well as its effects on the distribution of production across space, are analyzed in Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013). More specifically, this is an attempt to explore whether environmental policy can reverse the premise that agglomeration of economic activity will always emerge around a first nature advantage site as a result of the interaction between knowledge spillovers and natural advantage forces. Their results suggest that in the market allocation, the natural advantage site will always attract the major part of economic activity. However, when environmental policy is spatially optimal, the natural advantage sites lose their comparative advantage and do not act as attractors of economic activity. Then, other sites appear to be more attractive as they provide stronger cost advantages compared to the natural ones. In

contrast to Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013), that only study the spatial concentration of economic activity, the present article explicitly studies the location decisions of workers by considering their commuting costs, while it does not include any form of heterogeneous space. This allows a stronger focus on the endogenous location decisions of economic agents and helps us explore the different land uses and the location decisions of both firms and workers. The simultaneous determination of the residential and industrial land rents in the interior of a city, following the method suggested in this article, defines equilibrium and optimal residential and industrial areas and provides clearer insights on how the modern cities should be built in order to minimize the environmental damages.

The methodological approach followed in this article, that was first introduced in Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013), allows for an endogenous determination of land use patterns through the endogenization of the kernels describing the two externalities. This approach provides an accurate solution for the level of the residential and industrial land rents, which will finally determine the spatial pattern of our region. The method also helps in the determination of the site-specific policies studied here, which can be used to reproduce the optimal structure as a market outcome. We believe that this constitutes an advance compared to previous studies exploring the internal structure of cities, where arbitrary values were assigned to the functions describing the spillover effects (as in Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg, 2002) or there is not an explicit endogenous solution of the externality terms (as in Arnott et al., 2008).⁷ We believe that the spatial policies derived here provide new insights and can contribute to the improvement of efficiency in the interior of a region.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present the model and solve for the optimal and market allocations. In Section 3, we describe the spatial equilibrium conditions, while in Section 4 we derive the optimal, spatial policies which can be used to close the gap between efficient and equilibrium allocations. In Section 5, we present the numerical algorithm that is used to derive the different land use patterns and then we show some numerical experiments. Section 6 concludes the article.

2. The model

2.1. The region

We consider a single city that is closed, linear and symmetric. It constitutes a small part of a large economy. The total length of the region is normalized to S and 0 and S are the left and right boundaries, respectively.⁸ The whole spatial domain is used for industrial

⁷ In Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013), this approach was used to determine the distribution of economic activity across heterogeneous space without explicitly defining any residential areas. In this article, the same approach is used in order to study the competition between residential and industrial location decisions that will finally determine the different land uses.

⁸ There are alternative ways to model the spatial domain, such as (i) assuming a ring-shaped homogeneous land (e.g., Arnott et al., 2008), (ii) considering a circular city of fixed radius, while studying the different allocations across the radius and assuming symmetry around the circle (e.g., Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg, 2002), or (iii) studying a linear, unbounded city and assuming that the boundaries of the city will be set at the point where land rents are equal to zero (e.g., Fujita, 1989).

Methodological techniques of how to solve the spatial models under different assumptions regarding the city edges are presented in Brock et al. (2014). The conclusions of our model do not change if models like (ii) and (iii) are used. In the case of the ring-shaped land (i), the boundary effect that weakens the

and residential purposes. Industrial firms and households can be located anywhere inside the region. Land is owned by absent landlords.

2.2. Industrial firms

There is a large number of industrial firms operating in the interior of our region. The location decisions of these firms are determined endogenously. All firms produce a single good that is sold at a world price, p , and the world price is considered exogenous to the region.⁹ The production is characterized by a constant returns to scale function of land, labor $L(r)$ and emissions $E(r)$. Production per unit of land at location r is given by:

$$q(r) = g(z(r))x(A(r), L(r), E(r)), \quad (1)$$

where q is the output, L is the labor input and E is the amount of emissions generated in the production process. Also, production is characterized by two externalities: one positive and one negative. Hence, A is the function that describes the negative externality, which is basically how pollution at spatial point r affects the productivity of labor at the same spatial point. z describes the positive production externality which can be explained by Marshallian agglomeration economies benefiting co-located firms.

In the numerical simulations, the functions g and x are considered to be of the form:

$$g(z(r)) = e^{\gamma z(r)}$$

$$x(A(r), L(r), E(r)) = (A(r)L(r))^b E(r)^c.$$

The two opposing forces that will be shown to affect the location decisions of firms are associated with the two kinds of production externalities mentioned above. The trade-off between these two forces defines the industrial areas in our spatial domain.

Regarding the positive productivity spillovers, we assume that firms are positively affected by locating near other firms because of externalities in production that take several forms. Here the role of the agglomeration force is to facilitate the matching between firms and inputs. These inputs can be workers, intermediate goods or even ideas. More specifically, in this model, firms benefit if they locate in areas with higher employment densities. The positive production externality is assumed to be linear and to decay exponentially at a rate δ with the distance between (r, s) :

$$z(r) = \delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \lambda(s) \ln L(s) ds.$$

Note that $\lambda(r)$ is the proportion of land occupied by firms at spatial point r , and $1 - \lambda(r)$ is the proportion of land occupied by households at r . The function $h(r, s) = e^{-\delta(r-s)^2}$ is

externalities for firms located in the neighborhood of the boundaries disappears. The final outcome of this approach is, therefore, unclear and further research is needed. Mossay and Picard (2011) show how the geography of the spatial economy affects the final spatial patterns. More specifically, using a model of social interactions they show that different results are obtained under the assumptions (i) and (iii) above.

9 A similar assumption is used by Rossi-Hansberg (2004).

called normal dispersal kernel and it shows that the positive effect of labor employed in nearby areas decays exponentially at rate δ between r and s .¹⁰

As explained above, this kind of production externality relates the production at each spatial point with the employment density in nearby areas. In this context, in order to capture the importance of proximity among co-located firms, we assume that higher employment densities in a specific site imply higher benefits for the firms that decide to locate closer to this site. This assumption has been used extensively in urban models of spatial interactions and comprises one of the driving forces of business agglomeration.

Let us now analyze the pollution externality effect. The production process generates emissions that diffuse in space and increase the total concentration of pollution in the city. This is reinforced in areas with a high concentration of economic activity, where a lot of firms operate and pollute the environment. The use of emissions in the production and the negative consequences that follow require an enforcement of environmental regulation. Since emissions, as well as the concentration of pollution, differ throughout the spatial domain, environmental regulations will be site-specific. In particular, environmental policy is stricter in areas with high concentrations of pollution and is laxer elsewhere. This means that it is more costly for firms to locate at spatial points with high levels of pollution. However, apart from the cost of pollution in terms of environmental policy, firms avoid locating in polluted sites since pollution negatively affects the productivity of labor. As a result, pollution works as a centrifugal force among firms.

As stated above, the generation of emissions during the production of the output damages the environment. The damage function per unit of land is given by:

$$D(r) = X(r)^\phi, \quad (2)$$

where D is the damage per unit of land and $\phi \geq 1$, $D'(X) > 0$, $D''(X) \leq 0$.¹¹ Aggregate pollution, X , at each spatial point r is a weighted average of the emissions generated in nearby industrial locations and is given by:

$$\ln X(r) = \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \lambda(s) \ln E(s) ds,$$

with the normal dispersal kernel equal to $h(r, s) = e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2}$. Using a similar interpretation with the kernel describing the production externality, emissions in nearby areas affect the total concentration of pollution at the spatial point r , while this effect declines as the distance between the different spatial points r and s increases.¹² ζ is a parameter

10 Similar theoretical modeling has been applied in Lucas (2001), Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg (2002) and Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013). More examples of similar functions presenting positive and negative spatial externalities which explain pattern formation can be found in Brock et al. (2014).

11 In order to model the damage function, we follow Kolstad (1986), who defines damages at a specific location as a function of the aggregate emissions of the location. We do not directly relate damages to the number of people living in that location, so as to avoid the potential contradiction of assigning very low damages to a heavily polluted area that lacks high residential density.

12 The conclusions of the analysis do not change if we use another formulation of the normal dispersal kernel function in order to describe the effect of the production and the environmental externalities in nearby locations. More specifically, we can alternatively use the kernel function $h(r, s) = e^{-\xi|r-s|}$, where $\xi = \delta, \zeta$, which is similar with the formulation of the commuting cost function used in this model. However, we use this function—where the contributions fall off exponentially in the square of the distance between the generator and the receiver—for analytical convenience. This allows us to use the numerical method of the Taylor-series expansion, which as shown below, provides accurate solutions to our model.

that depends on weather conditions and the natural landscape to indicate how far pollution can travel.¹³

Finally, the negative effect of pollution on the productivity of labor is given by $A(r) = X(r)^{-\kappa}$, where $\kappa \in [0, \bar{\kappa}]$ determines the strength of the negative pollution effect. $\kappa=0$ implies that there is no connection between aggregate pollution and labor productivity, while a large value of κ means that workers become unproductive due to the presence of pollution and $\bar{\kappa}$ sets an upper bound to this effect.

The negative effects of pollution on the productivity of labor are usually explained through their connection with health effects.¹⁴ The air pollution in China is an example of this. In 2012, the Chinese Medical Association warned that air pollution was becoming the greatest threat to health in the country, since lung cancer and cardiovascular disease were increasing due to factory- and vehicle-generated air pollution. More precisely, a wide range of airborne particles and pollutants from combustion (e.g., woodfires, cars and factories), biomass burning and industrial processes with incomplete burning create the so-called ‘Asian brown cloud’, which is increasingly being renamed the ‘Atmospheric Brown Cloud’ since it can be spotted in more areas than just Asia. The major impact of this brown cloud is on health, which explains the need for a positive κ parameter above.

2.3. Households

A large number of households are free to choose a location in the interior of the given region. The endogenous formation of residential clusters is determined by two forces that affect households’ location decisions: commuting costs and aggregate pollution. Consumers are assumed to derive positive utility from the consumption of the good produced by the industrial sector and the quantity of residential land, while they receive negative utility from pollution. Thus, a household located at the spatial point r receives utility $U(C(r), l(r), X(r))$, where C is the consumption of the produced good and l is residential land.

To obtain a closed-form solution, we assume that the utility U is expressed as:

$$U(r) = C(r)^a l(r)^{1-a} - X(r)^\phi, \quad (8)$$

where $0 < a < 1$ and $\phi \geq 1$.

As explained above, the residential location decisions are determined by two opposing forces. The first is a force that promotes the concentration in residential clusters and comes from the fact that consumers receive negative utility from

- 13 Our modeling of emission dispersion by symmetric kernels is compatible with the atmospheric dispersion modeling of air pollutants based on the Gaussian plume. The Gaussian plume has been applied to models of emissions from large industrial operations or other applications such as ash release from volcanic eruptions. It corresponds to a continuous point source that emits contaminants into a spatial domain and is described by advection–diffusion. The spatial patterns of emissions emerging from the Gaussian plume modeling are compatible with the patterns suggested by the symmetric kernels used in this article [see Stockie (2011), Figure 2.1; Camacho and Pérez-Barahona (2015)]. See also Arnott et al. (2008), Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013), Brock et al. (2014).
- 14 See, e.g., Williams (2002) and Bruvoll et al. (1999).

pollution. Accordingly, they tend to locate far from the industrial firms to avoid polluted sites. The pollution levels at each spatial point, which are determined by the location and production decisions of industrial firms, are considered as given for consumers.

The second force is related to commuting costs, which are modeled below. This is a force that impedes the formation of pure residential areas since workers have an incentive to locate close to their workplace so as to spend less money commuting. As a result, commuting costs promote the formation of mixed areas where people live near to their workplaces.

In order to model the commuting costs, we assume that all consumers devote one unit of time working in the industrial sector. Costly commuting implies that agents who work in spatial point r , but live in spatial point s , will finally receive $w(s) = w(r)e^{-k|r-s|} < w(r)$. In other words, the further they locate from their working place, the higher the commuting cost (or the lower their net wage) will be. This equation corresponds to a spatially discounted accessibility, which has been used extensively in spatial models of interaction. Now, if a consumer lives at r and works at s , the wage function becomes $w(s) = w(r)e^{k|r-s|}$. If r is a mixed area, people who live there work there as well, and $w(r)$ denotes both a wage rate paid by firms and the net wage earned by workers. With regard to the money spent on commuting, we assume that the transport services are imported in the city.

2.4. Agglomeration forces

The centripetal and centrifugal forces explained above are summarized in the following table.

Forces promoting:	Industrial firms	Households
<i>Concentration in clusters</i>	High concentrations of workers	High concentration of firms
<i>Dispersion</i>	High pollution levels	High commuting costs

To summarize the effect of the agglomeration forces assumed in this article, industrial firms concentrate in clusters in order to benefit from the higher concentrations of workers, while high pollution levels work in the opposite direction since they imply a double negative effect for the same firms. Moreover, the higher concentration of firms, which implies high pollution levels, promotes the formation of residential clusters, since residents try to avoid the polluted industrial areas. However, this tendency is moderated in the case where these agents have to pay high commuting costs. The use of land for industrial and residential purposes prevents the two parts from locating around a unique spatial point.

The objective of this article is to examine the optimal and equilibrium patterns of land use under the above agglomeration and dispersion forces and to design optimal policies. The trade-off between the above forces will define residential, industrial or mixed areas in the interior of the region under study.

2.5. The endogenous formation of optimal land use

We assume the existence of a regulator who makes all the industrial and residential location decisions across the spatial interval $[0, S]$. The objective of the regulator is to maximize the value of land in the city. This is obtained in two stages. In the first stage, the optimal industrial land rent is derived. Thus, the regulator's problem becomes:

$$\max_{L,E} \int_0^S [pq(r) - w(r)L(r) - D(r)]dr.$$

That is, the regulator maximizes net profits minus environmental damages in the whole region. The first-order necessary conditions (FONC) for the optimum are:

$$p \frac{\partial q(r)}{\partial L(r)} = w(r)$$

$$p \frac{\partial q(r)}{\partial E(r)} = \frac{\partial D(r)}{\partial E(r)}$$

or

$$pbe^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^{b-1} E(r)^c + \underbrace{\int_0^S pe^{\gamma z(s)} X(s)^{-b\kappa} L(s)^b E(s)^c \gamma \frac{\partial z(s)}{\partial L(r)} ds}_{\Delta_1} = w(r) \quad (4)$$

$$pce^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^b E(r)^{c-1} - \underbrace{\int_0^S [pbke^{\gamma z(s)} X(s)^{-b\kappa-1} L(s)^b E(s)^c + \phi X(s)^{\phi-1}] \frac{\partial X(s)}{\partial E(r)} ds}_{\Delta_2} = 0. \quad (5)$$

The terms Δ_1 and Δ_2 above describe the full internalization of the externalities at the optimum, as well as the difference between the optimal and the equilibrium location decisions, which are analyzed in Section 4 below. After making some transformations that are described in Appendix A (and in detail in the Online Appendix), we get the following system of second kind Fredholm linear integral equations with symmetric kernels:

$$\phi \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_1^*(r) = y(r) \quad (6)$$

$$-\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds + \frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_2^*(r) = \varepsilon(r), \quad (7)$$

where $y(r) = \ln L(r)$ and $\varepsilon(r) = \ln E(r)$, while $g_1^*(r)$ and $g_2^*(r)$ are some known functions. In order to determine the solution of the system (6)–(7), we use a Taylor-series expansion method (Maleknejad et al., 2006), which provides accurate, approximate

solutions of systems of second kind Fredholm integral equations.¹⁵ Following this technique, we obtain the optimal amount of inputs $L^*(r)$ and $E^*(r)$, which will determine the optimal level of production at each spatial point, $q^*(r)$. The optimal emission level will finally define the total concentration of pollution at each spatial point r , $X^*(r)$, as well as the damage, $D^*(r)$. Using the above optimal values, we can define the optimal industrial land rent as follows:

$$R_I^*(r) = pq^*(r) - w(r)L^*(r) - D^*(r). \quad (8)$$

Note that in Equation (8) there is a direct effect of pollution through the damage function and an indirect pollution effect in the productivity of labor. More specifically, higher pollution levels at r imply higher environmental damages D at the same point and lower labor productivity A , which negatively affects the production of output q and reduces firms' revenues (pq). As a result, higher pollution levels at r decrease the optimal land rent at the same spatial point, since both the direct and the indirect effect work in the same direction.

In the second stage, we derive the optimal residential land-rent function, i.e., the maximum amount of money that agents are willing to spend in order to locate at a specific spatial point. Thus, total revenues, $w(r)$, are spent on the land they rent at a price $R_H(r)$ per unit of land and on the consumption of the good, $C(r)$, which can be bought at a world price p . Note that $w(r) = w(s)e^{-k|r-s|}$ is the net wage of a worker living at r and working at s .

Consumers minimize their expenditures:

$$w(r) = R_H(r)l(r) + pC(r) = \min_{l,C} [R_H(r)l(r) + pC(r)] \quad (9)$$

subject to

$$U(C(r), l(r), X(r)) \geq \bar{u} \quad (10)$$

so that no household will have an incentive to move to another spatial point inside or outside the region. To determine the residential location decisions, we assume that a consumer living at site r considers the amount of aggregate pollution $X(r)$ at the same spatial point as given. This is actually derived above, so here we use the optimal value $X^*(r)$.

Using Equation (3), we form the Lagrangian of the problem as follows,

$$\mathcal{L} = R_H(r)l(r) + pC(r) + \varpi[\bar{u} - C(r)^a l(r)^{1-a} + D^*(r)], \quad (11)$$

and obtain the following FONC:

$$R_H(r) = (1 - a)\varpi l(r)^{-a} C(r)^a \quad (12)$$

$$p = a\varpi C(r)^{a-1} l(r)^{1-a}. \quad (13)$$

15 Fredholm's theorem can be used to prove that if the system (6)–(7) is solvable for arbitrary $g_1^*(r)$, $g_2^*(r)$, then this solution is unique (Kolmogorov and Fomin, 1999). We formally show in Proposition 1 the conditions under which there exists a unique solution of a system of second kind Fredholm integral equations (see also Moiseiwitsch, 2005).

Solving the FONC and making some substitutions, we get the optimal residential land rent at each spatial point:

$$R_H^*(r) = \left[\frac{w(r)}{(\bar{u} + D^*(r)) \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \right)^\alpha \frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}. \quad (14)$$

$R_H^*(r)$ is the rent per unit of land that a worker bids at location r while working at s and enjoying the utility level \bar{u} . We observe that $\frac{\partial R_H^*(r)}{\partial D^*(r)} < 0$. This means that residential land rents are lower in areas with high pollution concentrations. In other words, people are willing to spend more money on areas with better environmental amenities. This is in line with the hedonic valuation literature according to which nonmarket assets such as air quality and environmental amenities in general are capitalized in property values. As an example of this literature, Bayer et al. (2009) estimate the elasticity of willingness to pay with respect to air quality to be 0.34–0.42.

Finally, assuming that the land density is 1, we can define the optimal population density N at each spatial point r ,

$$N(r)l(r) = 1 \Rightarrow N(r) = \frac{1}{l(r)^*}$$

$$N^*(r) = \frac{(w(r))^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}}}{(\bar{u} + D^*(r))^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}}}.$$

It is obvious that the population distribution moves upward when the net wage increases and when the concentration of pollution at the same spatial point decreases. The comparison between the $R_I^*(r)$ and the $R_H^*(r)$ at each spatial point provides the optimal land uses.

2.6. The endogenous formation of the equilibrium land use

Equilibrium and optimal land uses will differ because of the existence of externalities. On the one hand, the decisions about the amount of emissions generated by each firm affect the total concentration of pollution in the interior of our region. However, in equilibrium, when firms choose the amount of emissions that will be used in the production process, they do not realize or do not take into account that their own decisions affect aggregate pollution, which actually describes their myopic behavior. When, for instance, a firm increases the amount of generated emissions at site r , aggregate pollution is increased not only at r , but also in nearby places through the diffusion of pollution. These higher levels of aggregate pollution affect firms in two ways: first, they increase the cost of environmental policy, and second, they make the negative pollution effect on the productivity of labor stronger. Finally, firms in equilibrium do not consider the fact that their own location decisions affect the productivity of the rest of the co-located firms. For instance, they do not realize that employing one extra worker will not only increase their productivity but will also increase the productivity of nearby firms. Therefore, equilibrium location decisions do not fully internalize the above effects, which distort the optimal land uses studied above and make them differ from the equilibrium ones.

To derive the equilibrium solution, we assume that a firm located at spatial point r chooses labor and emissions to maximize profits:

$$R_I(r) = \max_{L, E} \{ p e^{\gamma z(r)} (A(r)L(r))^b E(r)^c - w(r)L(r) - \tau(r)E(r),$$

where $\tau(r)$ is the environmental tax enforced by the government. The tax here is assumed to be a site-specific environmental policy instrument which is equal to the marginal damage of emissions, i.e., $\tau(r) = MD^*(r)$. The solution will be a function of (z, A, τ, p, w) : $L = \hat{L}(z, A, \tau, p, w)$ and $E = \hat{E}(z, A, \tau, p, w)$. The maximized profits at each spatial point $\hat{R}_I(z, A, \tau, p, w)$ can also be interpreted as the business land rent, which is the land rent that a firm is willing to pay so as to operate at this spatial point.

Following the discussion at the beginning of this section, a firm located at site r treats the concentration of pollution $X(r)$, the negative pollution effect on the productivity of labor $A(r)$, and the positive productivity spillover effect $z(r)$ as exogenous parameter X^e , A^e , and z^e respectively. This assumption implies that the tax $\tau(r)$ is also treated as a parameter at each spatial point.

The FONC for profit maximization are:

$$p b e^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^{b-1} E(r)^c = w(r) \quad (15)$$

$$p c e^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^b E(r)^{c-1} = \tau(r). \quad (16)$$

So, we explicitly solve for:

$$\hat{L}(z, w, \tau) = \left(\frac{c^c b^{1-c} A(r) e^{\gamma z(r)}}{\tau(r)^c w(r)^{1-c}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-b-c}} \quad (17)$$

$$\hat{E}(z, w, \tau) = \left(\frac{c^{1-b} b^b A(r) e^{\gamma z(r)}}{\tau(r)^{1-b} w(r)^b} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-b-c}}. \quad (18)$$

Substituting Equations (17) and (18) into the maximized profit function, we explicitly solve for the industrial land rents:

$$\hat{R}_I(z, w, \tau) = \left(\frac{e^{\gamma z(r)} A(r) b^b c^c}{\tau(r)^c w(r)^b} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-b-c}} (1 - b - c). \quad (19)$$

In the explicit solution for L , E and R_I presented above, there are two integral equations: one describing the benefits from the higher employment densities and the other describing the concentration of pollution at each spatial point.¹⁶ Most authors who have studied the effect of spillovers of this form use simplifying assumptions about the values that the kernels take at each spatial point. However, this approach forces firms to locate around the sites that correspond to the highest assumed arbitrary values, and hence we do not take into account that $L(s)$ and $E(s)$, $s \in S$, appear in the right-hand side of Equations (17)–(18) and therefore these equations have to be solved as a

16 There are kernels in the right-hand side of Equations (17)–(19) (see the definition of $z(r)$, $A(r)$, and $\tau(r)$ above).

system of simultaneous integral equations. Instead of following this approach, we choose to use a novel method of solving systems of integral equations, which was also implemented in Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013). More specifically, if we take logs on both sides of Equations (15)–(16) and do some transformations (Appendix B), the FONC result in a system of second kind Fredholm integral equations with symmetric kernels:

$$\frac{\gamma\delta}{1-b-c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds + \frac{c(1-\phi)-b\kappa}{1-b-c} \int_0^S e^{-\xi(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_1(r) = y(r) \quad (20)$$

$$\frac{\gamma\delta}{1-b-c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds + \frac{(1-b)(1-\phi)-b\kappa}{1-b-c} \int_0^S e^{-\xi(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_2(r) = \varepsilon(r), \quad (21)$$

where $y(r) = \ln L(r)$, $\varepsilon(r) = \ln E(r)$ and $g_1(r), g_2(r)$ are some known functions.

Proposition 1: Assume that: (i) the kernel $h(r, s)$ defined on $[0, S] \times [0, S]$ is an L_2 -kernel that generates the compact operator W , defined as $(W\phi)(r) = \int_0^S h(r, s)\phi(s)ds$, $0 \leq s \leq S$; (ii) $1 - b - c$ is not an eigenvalue of W ; and (iii) G is a square integrable function. Then a unique solution determining the optimal and equilibrium distributions of inputs, (L, E) and output (q) exists.

The proof of existence and uniqueness of both the optimum and the equilibrium is presented in five steps which are described in Appendix C.¹⁷ To solve systems (6)–(7) and (20)–(21) numerically, we use a modified Taylor-series expansion method (Maleknejad et al., 2006). A short version of the analytical solution of the optimal model is provided in Appendix A, while a full derivation including all steps can be found online.

3. Land use patterns

Having studied the optimal and equilibrium problems, we are able to define the different land uses in each case. The region under study is strictly defined in the spatial domain $[0, S]$ and firms and households cannot locate anywhere else. Thus, a spatial equilibrium is reached when all firms receive zero profits, all households receive the same utility level \bar{u} , land is allocated to its highest values and rents and wages clear the land and labor markets.

Consumers dislike pollution, which means that they have an incentive to locate far from industrial areas. On the other hand, consumers work at the firms and if they locate far from them they will suffer higher commuting costs, which promotes the formation of mixed areas. The trade-off between these two forces defines the residential location decisions.

Firms have a strong incentive to locate close to each other in order to benefit from higher employment densities. However, if all firms locate around a specific site, this site will become very polluted, which will increase both the cost of environmental policy and the negative productivity effect. Thus, if all firms decide to locate in one spatial interval then they will be obliged to pay a higher environmental tax and suffer from the negative

17 See Moiseiwitsch (2005), and Kolmogorov and Fomin (1999) for more detailed definitions.

pollution effects. In other words, high pollution levels impede the concentration of economic activity. The trade-off between these forces will define the size of the industrial areas.

The conditions determining the land use at each spatial point are described in the following steps:

1. Firms receive zero profits.¹⁸
2. Households receive the same level of utility $U(c, l, X) = \bar{u}$.
3. Land rents equilibrium: at each spatial point $r \in S$,

$$R(r) = \max \{R_I(r), R_H(r), 0\} \quad (22)$$

$$R_I(r) = R(r) \text{ if } \lambda(r) > 0 \text{ and } R_I(r) > R_H(r) \quad (23)$$

$$R_H(r) = R(r) \text{ if } \lambda(r) < 1 \text{ and } R_H(r) > R_I(r). \quad (24)$$

4. Commuting equilibrium: at each spatial point $r \in S$,

$$w(r) = w(s)e^{-k|r-s|} = \max_{s \in S} [w(s)e^{-k|r-s|}]. \quad (25)$$

As people choose s to maximize their net wage, this means that in equilibrium

$$w(s)e^{-k|r-s|} \leq w(r) \leq w(s)e^{k|r-s|} \quad (26)$$

This is the wage arbitrage condition that implies that no one can gain by changing her job location.

5. Industries' and households' population constraints:

$$\int_0^S (1 - \lambda(s))N(s)ds = \bar{N} \quad (27)$$

$$\int_0^S \lambda(s)L(s)ds = \bar{L}, \quad (28)$$

where \bar{N} is the total number of residents and \bar{L} the total number of workers.

6. Labor market equilibrium:

$$\int_0^S (1 - \lambda(s))N(s)ds = \int_0^S \lambda(s)L(s)ds. \quad (29)$$

7. Land use equilibrium: at each spatial point $r \in S$,

$$0 \leq \lambda(r) \leq 1 \quad (30)$$

¹⁸ In this model, the total value of the product is paid either as wages, rents or commuting costs. So consumption in the city is not equal to output since we have assumed the existence of land and transport service owners. If we wanted to formally determine the total imports or exports of the output, we would need to know where these landlords or transport service owners consume. The important part though is that since all output is paid out as rents, wages or commuting costs, there is nothing left as profits.

$\lambda(r) = 1$ if r is a pure industrial area,

$\lambda(r) = 0$ if r is a pure residential area, and

$0 < \lambda(r) < 1$ if r is a mixed area.

Equations (22)–(24) mean that each location is occupied by the agents who offer the highest bid rent. If neither firms nor workers are willing to pay positive rents in a specific interval, then we observe the formation of ‘dead zones’. These could be some zones surrounding highly dense industrial areas where pollution is so high that discourages workers from locating close to their working place. Condition (25) implies that a worker living at r will choose her working location s so as to maximize her net wage. Conditions (27)–(28) mean that the sum of residents in all residential areas is equal to the total number of residents in the city and that aggregate labor in all industrial areas equals the total number of workers in the city. Finally, condition (29) guarantees the city-wide market clearing. By ensuring the equality of labor supply and demand in the whole spatial domain, this condition will determine the equilibrium wage rate at each spatial point, $w^*(r)$.

4. Optimal policies: labor subsidies and environmental taxation

Using the optimal values for L^* , E^* , z^* , A^* , X^* , N^* , and λ^* , we can determine the wages and the level of the tax that would make firms and households in the equilibrium to lead the same decisions as in the optimum. Thus, we would be able to implement the optimum as an equilibrium outcome.

From the first-order conditions (4)–(5) for the optimum (for $\lambda^*(r) = 1$),

$$w(r) = pbe^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^{b-1} E(r)^c + \Delta_1 \quad (31)$$

and

$$pce^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^b E(r)^{c-1} = \Delta_2. \quad (32)$$

If the environmental tax enforced by the government is a site-specific environmental policy equal to the marginal damage of emissions, $\tau(r) = MD^*(r) = \phi X^*(r)^{\phi-1}$ then the differences between the optimum and the equilibrium are shown by the terms Δ_1 and Δ_2 above. More specifically, Δ_1 represents the *positive productivity spillover effect*, while Δ_2 captures the two effects of pollution, i.e.,

$$\Delta_2 = \underbrace{\int_0^S \left[p b \kappa e^{\gamma z(s)} X(s)^{-b\kappa-1} L(s)^b E(s)^c \right]}_{\text{labor productivity effect}} + \underbrace{\left[\phi X(s)^{\phi-1} \right]}_{\text{equilibrium tax}} \underbrace{\frac{\partial X(s)}{\partial E(r)} ds}_{\text{spatial pollution effect}}.$$

Let us analyze the first-order condition with respect to labor input. Here, firms internalize the externality that is related to the positive productivity spillover effect, taking into account the positive effect of their own decisions on the productivity of the rest of the firms located in nearby areas. Since the difference between the optimal and

equilibrium FOC comes from the *positive productivity spillover effect* (Δ_1) in Equation (31), the policy instrument that would partly lead the equilibrium to reproduce the optimal distributions would be a subsidy of the form $v^*(r) = \Delta_1$. Thus, firms would have to pay a lower labor cost, $w(r) - v^*(r)$, employ more workers, benefit from the stronger positive spillovers and produce more output.

As far as the second FOC wrt emissions is concerned, given that firms in equilibrium pay a tax ($\tau(r)$) equal to the marginal damage, as stated above, the difference between the two cases is presented by the *labor productivity effect* and the *spatial pollution effect*. Thus, an optimal tax, instead of imposing $\tau(r) = MD^*(r) = \phi X^*(r)^{\phi-1}$, should be of the form $\tau^*(r) = \Delta_2$. It is obvious that the optimal taxation, $\tau^*(r)$, is higher than the equilibrium one, $\tau(r)$, at each spatial point in the interior of our city or region. The reason is that, first, the optimal taxation takes into account the extra damage caused in the whole region by emissions generated at r (*spatial pollution effect*). However, apart from this effect, the optimal taxation captures the fact that increased emissions in r mean lower productivity for firms locating in r and in nearby areas (*labor productivity effect* \times *spatial pollution effect*). This negative productivity effect is now added to the cost of taxation and the full damage caused by the generation of emissions during the production process is internalized.

Proposition 2: *A labor subsidy of the form $v^*(r) = \Delta_1$ and an environmental tax of the form $\tau^*(r) = \Delta_2$ will implement the optimal distributions as equilibrium ones.*

Proof: In equilibrium, firms will maximize their profits, households will minimize their expenditures given a reservation utility, land is allocated to its highest value, the wage arbitrage condition is satisfied, and all workers are housed in the interior of the region. Since all the above are also in line with the optimal problem, the only thing we need to do in order to impose the optimal allocation as an equilibrium one is to use the optimal policy instrument described in Proposition 2. Thus, the joint enforcement of a labor subsidy, which will decrease the labor cost for firms, and a higher environmental tax will close the gap between the equilibrium and optimal allocations.

Proposition 3: *Efficiency in a market economy can be achieved by using the site-specific policy instruments described in Proposition 2. Uniform taxes or subsidies, which produce the same revenues or expenses, do not lead to optimal allocations.*

Proof: An industry paying $\tau^*(r)$ for generating $E^*(r)$ emissions, receiving $v^*(r)$ for employing $L^*(r)$ workers, and paying $w(r)$ wages for the same number of workers and $R_j^*(r)$ as land rents, will receive zero profits in equilibrium. Having proved the uniqueness of the equilibrium, any other level of taxes or subsidies will not satisfy the zero-profit condition for the same amount of emissions and labor, and will not constitute an equilibrium outcome. ■

Site-specific taxes should be enforced in every industrial location and must equal the added damages caused by the emissions generated from this unit of land. Site-specific subsidies should be given in every industrial location and must equal the positive productivity effects caused by the concentration of workers in nearby locations.

5. Numerical experiments

Numerical simulations will help us obtain different maps explaining the residential and the industrial clusters formed in our city. Put differently, the optimal and equilibrium spatial distributions of residential and industrial land rents will determine the location of firms and households in our domain. The numerical method of the Taylor-series expansion, described above, will give us the optimal and equilibrium values of land rents. We solve the system of integral equations using Mathematica.

The numerical algorithm to characterize the optimal and equilibrium land use patterns consists of the following steps:

Step 1. We give numerical values to the parameters of the model.

Step 2. We solve for the optimal (and equilibrium) distributions $L^*, E^*, q^*, N^*, c^*, z^*, X^*$ ($\hat{L}, \hat{E}, \hat{q}, \hat{N}, \hat{c}, \hat{z}, \hat{X}$) at every spatial point as a function of λ .

Step 3. We derive the optimal (and equilibrium) distributions of residential and industrial land rents R_I^*, R_H^* (\hat{R}_I, \hat{R}_H) and plot them in graphs so as to characterize the areas as residential, industrial or mixed. Then, we determine the λ value (see below).

Step 4. We calculate the total number of residents and workers in the region. The aim is to have equal numbers of residents and workers, which will satisfy the condition that all workers should be housed inside the region.

Step 5. If the number of residents does not equal the number of workers, then the level of the wage changes and we start solving the problem again (back to Step 2). We follow this process until we obtain equal numbers of residents and workers.¹⁹ An iterative approach is used since a change in the wage level will also change the demand for the second input (emissions), which will in turn affect the aggregate pollution. However, aggregate levels of pollution change the level of environmental tax and affect both the productivity of labor and the residential location decisions.

Step 6. The λ value for each spatial point is finally determined. If an interval is purely residential or industrial, which means that one of the land rents is always higher than the other, then λ is either 0 or 1, respectively. When land rents are equal in a specific interval, we calculate a value of $0 < \lambda < 1$ such that the total number of residents in the city equals the total number of workers. This equality will determine the percentage of the mixed area that will be used for industrial purposes and the corresponding percentage used for residential purposes.

The ex-post calculation of λ allows the explicit endogenous solution of the externalities of the model, and we consider this to be an advantage of this approach over previous solutions where the spatial kernels were arbitrarily chosen.

The results of this numerical algorithm are presented below. Figure 1 shows the optimal distributions of labor, emissions, output and land rents, assuming the following values for the parameters: $\delta = 2$, $\gamma = 0.01$, $\zeta = 0.5$, $\kappa = 0.01$ and $k = 0.001$.²⁰ The

19 In our numerical approach, we use a simplifying assumption according to which firms offer the same wage which is determined at the level where the number of residents equals the number of workers. This does not influence the effect of the commuting-cost force, since workers are interested in the net wage. In our model, workers may still decide to live far from their working place receiving a lower net wage but enjoying a cleaner environment.

20 The results presented here are fairly robust in parameter changes. For a discussion of these parameter values, see Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas (2013) and Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg (2002). The rest of the parameters are set as follows: The production elasticity of labor and emissions is set at $b = 0.85$ and $c = 0.05$ respectively, while the share of the consumption is $\alpha = 0.6$. The length of the spatial domain is

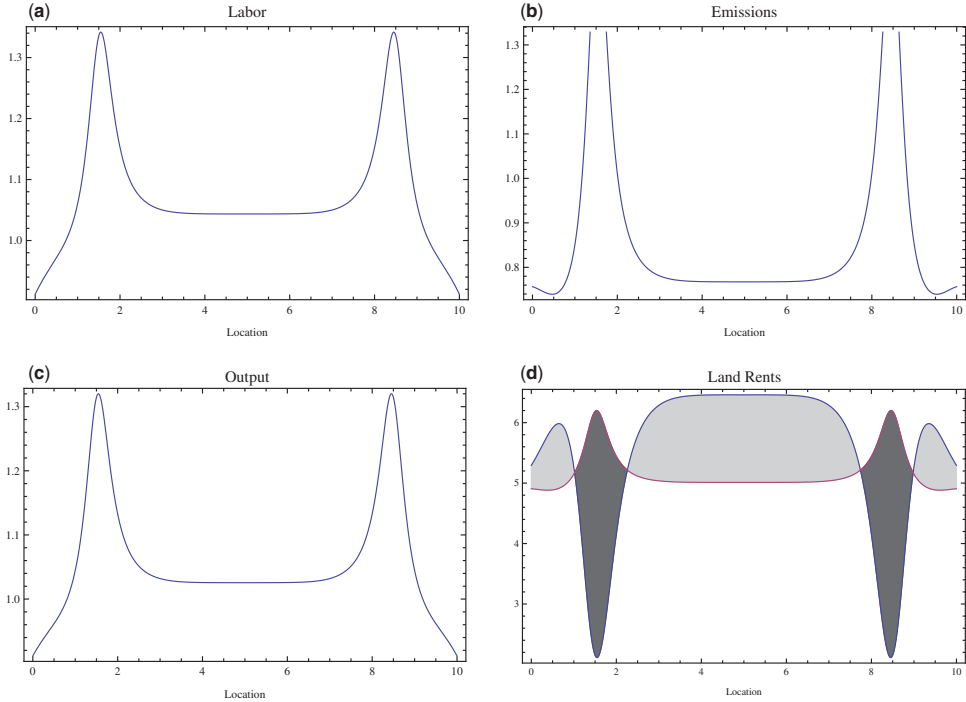


Figure 1. Optimal densities.

distribution of workers, emissions and output is higher around two spatial points ($r = 1.6, 8.4$). This happens because at the optimum, all the externality effects are internalized by the regulator. Thus, high levels of pollution that come from the production process increase the per-unit damage of emissions at polluted sites as well as the negative effect on the productivity of labor. This prevents industrial concentration around one spatial point, as is predicted by models which consider only the ‘positive productivity spillovers—commuting cost’ trade-off. In other words, the first reason industrial activity at the optimum concentrates around two spatial points is that it captures benefits from the positive productivity spillovers, which are higher in areas with high employment density. The second one is that by avoiding the creation of a single highly polluted area, it keeps the productivity loss associated with aggregate pollution at a lower level.

Studying households’ location decisions, we can observe in the last part of Figure 1(d) that residents are willing to pay higher land rents in less polluted areas, i.e., in the center of our region and close to the two boundaries. It is also very obvious that in the spatial intervals preferred by the industries, the residential land rents are very low. Note that the gap between the levels of the two land rents is represented by the black areas. As a result, we could argue that the optimal land use structure includes two industrial areas with three residential areas in-between.

$S = 10$. We also set $\phi = 1.5$, which implies an increasing and convex damage function. Finally, the reservation utility is $\bar{u} = 0.15$.

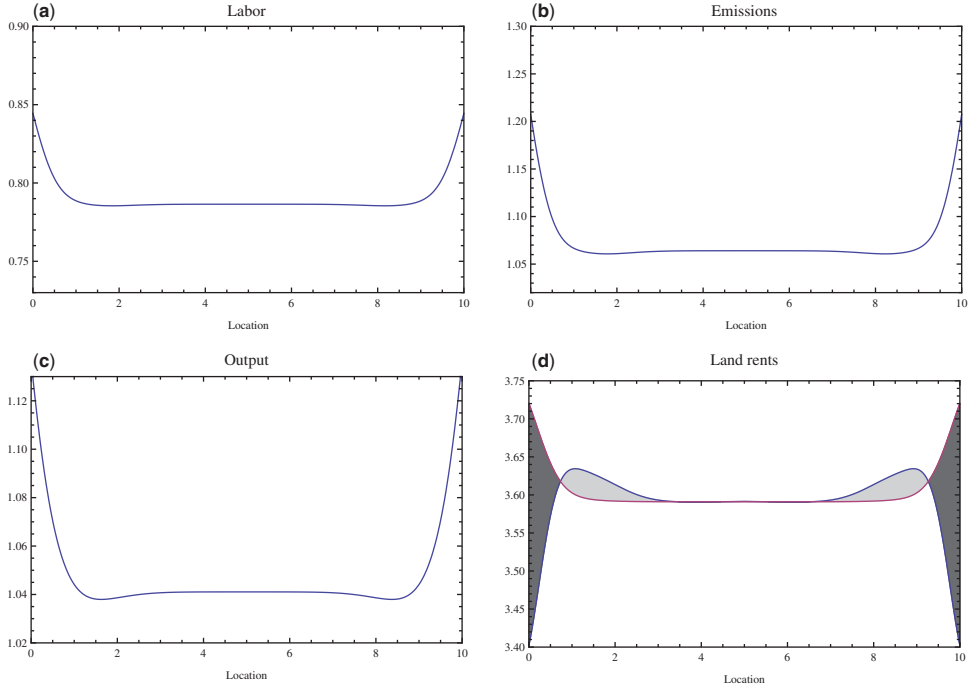


Figure 2. Equilibrium densities.

At this point it is of great interest to study the market allocations using the *same parameter values*. In Figure 2, we can see the same plots, i.e., labor, emissions, output and land rents distribution. Without the assumption of pollution diffusion, which implies the enforcement of environmental policy, firms would concentrate around a central location in order to benefit from positive spillovers that boost productivity (see Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg, 2002 and Kyriakopoulou and Xepapadeas, 2013). However, the trade-off between these spillovers and the ones associated with the environmental externalities make firms move further from the central area, which results in higher distributions of labor, emissions, and output close to the boundaries. The opposite is true for households, which prefer to locate in the rest of the region in order to avoid the polluted industrial sites. The comparison between residential and industrial land rents, under the condition that all agents should work and be housed in the region under study, leads to a mixed area at the city center surrounded by two residential areas, which are followed by two industrial areas close to the boundaries. There are two peaks in the residential areas, which can be explained as follows: In these areas workers are willing to pay higher land rents to avoid the high commuting costs that would result from locating further away, yet as we move close to the boundary, i.e., to industrial areas, the pollution discourages workers from paying high land rents. In the mixed areas, we also need to specify the λ value so that the total number of residents in the city equals the total number of workers. In this numerical example, $\lambda = 0.35$, i.e., the 35% of the interval where agents and industries coexist is covered by the industrial sector and the remaining 65% by the residential sector.

The most apparent difference between the optimal and the equilibrium land use patterns is that while mixed areas can emerge as an equilibrium outcome, a similar

emergence of mixed areas at the optimum does not seem possible within our parameter range. This result is in line with previous literature studying optimal city patterns, such as Rossi-Hansberg (2004), who proves that the optimal land use structure has no mixed areas. What we can also observe is the fact that industries operate in a much smaller interval covering 25% of the region in this numerical example, while in the market outcome firms operate in 40% of the given area. The full endogenization of the external effects at the optimum impedes firms from locating in central areas, which would be the ‘expected’ result and seems to be the case in the market allocation. Contrary to this, the optimal solution seems to be a concentration of firms in small, spatial intervals, creating pure industrial clusters and hence restricting the diffusion of pollution across the region, which reduces the damage to the residential areas. In our numerical example, this results in a duocentric configuration, while by depending on the strength of the externalities we may end up with more than two industrial centers.

Some comparative analysis will help us understand which allocation is the most efficient in terms of the amount of generated emissions per unit of output calculated in the whole region. In the numerical experiment presented above, the optimal emissions per output equals 0.99 while the equilibrium rate is 1.36. Implementing the optimal policy instruments and deriving the optimum as an equilibrium outcome will significantly improve the generated emissions per unit of output by decreasing this rate by 27%.

6. Conclusion

This article studies the optimal and market allocations in a spatial economy with pollution coming from stationary sources. It contributes to the literature by combining the assumption of pollution diffusion with two other forces that have been proven to significantly affect spatial patterns: commuting costs and externalities in production. The second difference compared with previous literature lies in the use of a recently introduced methodological approach of solving spatial models, which allows the full endogenization of the assumed external effects, i.e., the pollution and production externalities.

In order to model the above agglomeration and dispersion forces, we use a linear region where households and firms are free to choose where to locate. Firms produce by using land, labor and emissions; enjoy positive productivity spillovers; and pay an extra cost in the form of environmental taxation. Households work in the industrial sector, commute to work, consume the produced good and housing services and derive negative utility from pollution. The optimal and the equilibrium spatial patterns are derived when considering the trade-off between the externalities in production, workers’ commuting cost and the consequences of aggregate pollution in terms of environmental policy and pollution damages.

The incorporation of environmental issues in the urban model under study allows us to show that both in the optimal and in the equilibrium land use, we observe the formation of more than one city center. Thus, contrary to the monocentric city result derived by models that study the ‘agglomeration economies—commuting cost’ trade-off, we show that firms have an incentive to create clusters in more than one location so as to not increase the cost of environmental policy even further by making a site very polluted. Also workers’ incentive to locate close to firms to avoid high commuting costs

has now partly changed, since pollution works to encourage them to locate in pure residential areas. The result is the formation of more complex city patterns compared to the case where environmental damages are ignored.

We also note that, not surprisingly, under the existence of pollution and production externalities, the optimal and equilibrium land uses differ a great deal. This model allows us to identify the different allocations and suggest spatial policies that will close the gap between efficient and equilibrium outcomes. More specifically, we show that the joint implementation of a site-specific labor subsidy and a site-specific environmental tax can reproduce the optimum as an equilibrium outcome.

The numerical approach employed in this article can be used to further investigate the role of pollution in spatial models of land use and provide insights into optimal spatial policies. The idea of two kinds of industries—polluting and nonpolluting ones—could be studied using the numerical tools presented here. Another possible extension of this model is to assume that pollution comes from nonstationary sources, like the transport sector, which is actually the case in modern cities. We leave these issues for future research.

Supplementary material

Supplementary data for this paper are available at *Journal of Economic Geography* online.

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Appendix A

To solve systems (6)–(7) and (20)–(21) numerically, we use a modified Taylor-series expansion method (Maleknejad et al., 2006). More precisely, a Taylor-series expansion can be made for the solutions $y(s)$ and $\varepsilon(s)$ in the integrals of systems (6)–(7) and (20)–(21). We use the first two terms of the Taylor-series expansion (as an approximation of $y(s)$ and $\varepsilon(s)$) and substitute them into the integrals of (6)–(7) and (20)–(21). After some substitutions, we end up with a linear system of ordinary differential equations. In order to solve the linear system, we need an appropriate number of boundary conditions. We construct them and then obtain a linear system of two algebraic equations that can be solved numerically.

A short version of the optimal solution is analyzed below while a full derivation including all steps can be found online.

The FONC for the optimum are given by Equations (4) and (5), where $z(r) = \delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \lambda(s) \ln(L(s)) ds$

Differentiating $z(s)$ wrt $L(r)$, we get :

$$\frac{\theta z(s)}{\theta L(r)} = \delta \frac{1}{L(r)} [e^{-\delta(0-r)^2} + \dots + 1 + \dots + e^{-\delta(S-r)^2}] = \delta \frac{1}{L(r)} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds.$$

For the numerical analysis, we approximate the value of the integral that expresses the aggregate impact on all sites from a change in site r , by valuing the aggregate impact with the marginal valuation at site r . Then the FONC wrt $L(r)$ becomes:

$$p e^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^{b-1} E(r)^c (b + \gamma \delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds) = w.$$

Taking logs,

$$\begin{aligned} \ln p + \gamma \delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(L(s)) ds - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(E(s)) ds + (b-1) \ln L(r) + c \ln E(r) \\ + \ln(b + \gamma \delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds) = \ln w. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Next, we consider the FONC wrt $E(r)$, (Equation (5)). Aggregate pollution, $X(r)$, is described by: $\ln X(r) = \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(E(s)) ds$ or $e^{\ln X(r)} = e^{\int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(E(s)) ds}$ or $X(r) = e^{\int_0^S [e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(E(s))] ds}$.

Differentiating this expression wrt $E(r)$, we have:

$$\frac{\theta X(s)}{\theta E(r)} = \frac{1}{E(r)} e^{\int_0^S [e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(E(s))] ds} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds.$$

For the numerical analysis, we approximate the value of the integral that expresses the aggregate impact on all sites from a change in site r by valuing the

aggregate impact with the marginal valuation at site r . Then the FONC wrt $E(r)$ becomes:

$$p e^{\gamma z(r)} X(r)^{-b\kappa} L(r)^b E(r)^{c-1} \left(c - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) = \phi X(r)^\phi \frac{1}{E(r)} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds.$$

Taking logs,

$$\begin{aligned} \ln p + \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} \ln(L(s)) ds + b \ln L(r) + c \ln E(r) \\ = \ln \phi + (\phi + b\kappa) \int_0^S \left[e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \ln E(s) \right] ds + \ln \left(\int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) - \ln \left(c - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

So, the first-order conditions are given by Equations (A.1) and (A.2). Setting $\ln L = y$ and $\ln E = \varepsilon$, we obtain the following system:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + (b-1)y(r) + c\varepsilon(r) \\ = \ln w - \ln p - \ln(b + \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds) \\ \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds + b y(r) + c\varepsilon(r) - (\phi + b\kappa) \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds \\ = \ln \phi - \ln p + \ln \left(\int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) - \ln \left(c - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right). \end{aligned}$$

Making a transformation that is described in the Online Appendix, we obtain the following system of second kind Fredholm integral equations:

$$\phi \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_1^*(r) = y(r) \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$-\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} y(s) ds + \frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} \varepsilon(s) ds + g_2^*(r) = \varepsilon(r), \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where

$$g_1^*(r) = \ln(b + \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds) + \ln w + \ln \phi + \ln \left(\int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$- \ln \left(c - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right)$$

$$g_2^*(r) = -\frac{b}{c} \left[\ln(b + \gamma\delta \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds) + \ln p - \ln w \right] - \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$-\frac{1-b}{c} \left[\ln p - \ln \phi - \ln \left(\int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) + \ln \left(c - b\kappa \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(s-r)^2} ds \right) \right].$$

We use a modified Taylor-series expansion method for solving Fredholm integral equations systems of second kind (Maleknejad et al., 2006). So, a Taylor-series expansion can be made for the solutions $y(s)$ and $\varepsilon(s)$:

$$y(s) = y(r) + y'(r)(s-r) + \frac{1}{2}y''(r)(s-r)^2$$

$$\varepsilon(s) = \varepsilon(r) + \varepsilon'(r)(s-r) + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon''(r)(s-r)^2.$$

Substituting them into Equations (A.3) and (A.4) and rewriting the equations, we get:

$$y(r) - \left[\phi \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) - \quad (A.7)$$

$$\left[\phi \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} (s-r) ds \right] \varepsilon'(r) - \left[\frac{1}{2} \phi \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} (s-r)^2 ds \right] \varepsilon''(r) = g_1^*(r)$$

$$\left[\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds \right] y(r) + \left[\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} (s-r) ds \right] y'(r) + \quad (A.8)$$

$$\left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} (s-r)^2 ds \right] y''(r) + \left[1 - \frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) -$$

$$\left[\frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} (s-r) ds \right] \varepsilon'(r) - \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} (s-r)^2 ds \right] \varepsilon''(r) \\ = g_2^*(r).$$

If the integrals in Equations (A.7)–(A.8) can be solved analytically then the bracketed quantities are functions of r alone. So (A.7)–(A.8) become a linear system of ordinary differential equations that can be solved if we use an appropriate number of boundary conditions.

To construct boundary conditions, we take the first and second derivative of Equations (A.3)–(A.4) wrt to r and then substitute $y(r)$, $\varepsilon(r)$ for $y(s)$, $\varepsilon(s)$:

$$y'(r) = \left[\phi \int_0^S -2\zeta(r-s) e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) + g_1^{*'}(r) \quad (A.9)$$

$$y''(r) = \left[\phi \int_0^S [-2\zeta + 4\zeta^2(r-s)^2] e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) + g_1^{*''}(r) \quad (A.10)$$

$$\varepsilon'(r) = \left[-\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S -2\delta(r-s) e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds \right] y(r) + \quad (A.11)$$

$$\left[\frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S -2\zeta(r-s) e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) + g_2^{*'}(r)$$

$$\varepsilon''(r) = \left[-\frac{\gamma\delta}{c} \int_0^S [-2\delta + 4\delta^2(r-s)^2] e^{-\delta(r-s)^2} ds \right] y(r) + \quad (\text{A.12})$$

$$\left[\frac{(1-b)\phi + b\kappa}{c} \int_0^S [-2\zeta + 4\zeta^2(r-s)^2] e^{-\zeta(r-s)^2} ds \right] \varepsilon(r) + g_2^*(r).$$

From Equations (A.9)–(A.12), $y'(r)$, $y''(r)$, $\varepsilon'(r)$, $\varepsilon''(r)$ are functions of $y(r)$, $\varepsilon(r)$, $g_1^*(r)$, $g_1^{*'}(r)$, $g_2^*(r)$, $g_2^{*'}(r)$. Substituting them into Equations (A.7) and (A.8), we have a linear system of two algebraic equations that can be solved using Mathematica.

Appendix B

The same method of modified Taylor-series expansion was used in order to solve for the market allocations. We take the logs of the system (15)–(16) and follow the same process as the one described in Appendix A and in the Online Appendix in full detail.

Appendix C

Proof of the existence and the uniqueness of the solution:

1. A function $h(r, s)$ defined on $[0, S] \times [0, S]$ is an L_2 -kernel if it has the property that $\int_0^S \int_0^S |h(r, s)|^2 dr ds < \infty$.

The kernels of our model have the formulation $e^{-\xi(r-s)^2}$ with $\xi = \delta, \zeta$ (positive numbers) and are defined on $[0, S] \times [0, S]$. It is easy to show that $\int_0^S \int_0^S |e^{-\xi(r-s)^2}|^2 dr ds < \infty$, which implies that the kernels of our system are L_2 -kernels.

2. If $h(r, s)$ is an L_2 -kernel, the integral operator

$$(W\phi)(r) = \int_0^S h(r, s)\phi(s)ds, \quad 0 \leq s \leq S$$

that it generates is bounded and $\|W\| \leq \left\{ \int_0^S \int_0^S |h(r, s)|^2 dr ds \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

In our model the upper bound of the norm of the operator generated by the L_2 -

kernel is $\|W\| \leq \left\{ \int_0^S \int_0^S |h(r, s)|^2 dr ds \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left\{ \int_0^S \int_0^S \left| \frac{1}{e^{\xi(r-s)^2}} \right|^2 dr ds \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq S$.

3. If $h(r, s)$ is an L_2 -kernel and W is a bounded operator generated by h , then W is a compact operator.
4. If $h(r, s)$ is an L_2 -kernel and generates a compact operator W , then the integral equation

$$Y - \left(\frac{1}{1-a-b-c} \right) WY = G \quad (\text{C.1})$$

has a *unique* solution for all square integrable functions G if $(1-b-c)$ is not an eigenvalue of W (Moiseiwitsch, 2005). If $(1-b-c)$ is not an eigenvalue of W , then $(I - \frac{1}{1-b-c} W)$ is invertible.

5. Both systems (6)–(7) and (20)–(21) can be transformed into a second kind Fredholm integral equation of the form (C.1). Thus, a unique optimal and equilibrium distribution of inputs and output exists.²¹

In order to transform the system of Equations (6)–(7) to a single Fredholm equation of second kind (Polyanin and Manzhirov, 1998), we define the functions $Y(r)$ and $G(r)$ on $[0, 2S]$, where $Y(r) = y_i(r - (i - 1)S)$ and $G(r) = g_i(r - (i - 1)S)$ for $(i - 1)S \leq r \leq iS$.²² Next, we define the kernel $\Gamma(r, \bar{r})$ on the square $[0, 2S] \times [0, 2S]$ as follows: $\Gamma(r, \bar{r}) = h_{ij}(r - (i - 1)S, \bar{r} - (j - 1)S)$ for $(i - 1)S \leq r \leq iS$ and $(j - 1)S \leq \bar{r} \leq jS$.

So, the system of Equations (6)–(7) can be rewritten as the single Fredholm equation:

$$Y(r) - \frac{1}{1-b-c} \int_0^{2S} \Gamma(r, s) Y(s) ds = G(r), \text{ where } 0 \leq r \leq 2S.$$

If the kernel $h_{ij}(r, s)$ is square integrable on the square $[0, S] \times [0, S]$ and $g_i(r)$ are square integrable functions on $[0, S]$ then the kernel $\Gamma(r, s)$ is square integrable on the new square: $[0, 2S] \times [0, 2S]$ and $G(r)$ is square integrable on $[0, 2S]$. Functions $g_i(r)$, as described in Appendix A by Equations (A.2)–(A.3) are square integrable.

- 21 The linear behavior of the unknown functions ($y(r)$ and $\varepsilon(r)$) under the integrals of (6)–(7) and (20)–(21) allows us to show that both systems have a unique solution as systems of linear integral equations if $(1 - b - c)$ is not an eigenvalue of W . In that sense, for a given set of parameters (b, c) that satisfies the non-eigenvalue condition, there exist unique distributions $L(r)$, $E(r)$ that solve the systems (6)–(7) and (20)–(21) (Moiseiwitsch, 2005). This is in line with Lucas and Rossi-Hansberg's (2002) results, where they prove a unique equilibrium allocation while using Cobb–Douglas functional forms and a similar functional form to describe the production externalities.
- 22 We assume that $y_1 = y$ and $y_2 = \varepsilon$, so as to follow the notation of our model.