Model Equations
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I. Introduction

Since “all politics are local,” the effects of policies on sub-national areas have always been of great interest in the policy-making process. If anything, the concern about regional economies is becoming greater. The reasons for this heightened concern have to do with a combination of economic realities, changing political structures, and the influence of economic research that has emerged over the last decade.

First, after decades of steadily expanding economic prosperity, evidence began to suggest that lagging economies may not inevitably catch up to more advanced areas. Coastal China has continued to develop more rapidly than the interior; much of the income growth in the U.S. in the past decade has been focused in leading metropolitan areas of the Northeast, Texas, and California; and regional disparities persist in almost every European country.

Second, national economies have become more open, through both globalization and regional blocks such as NAFTA and the EU. This changing political organization forces local economic regions to compete with each other, without the national protection of industries. Thus, regions within a country may have an economy that is much stronger or weaker than the national economy as a whole. For example, the states of eastern Germany still lag far behind those of western Germany, despite the overall strength of the German economy.

Finally, the “new economic geography” (see Fujita, et al.) has focused attention on the spatial dimension of the economy. In this emerging area of research, the geographic location of an economy may be even more significant than a national boundary. In fact, the new economic geography shows how economic disparities can surface even with equal resource endowments and in the absence of trade barriers. Since history plays an important role in the development of regional economies, these new research findings also suggest that economic policies may have a significant effect on local economic growth.

In light of this interest, regional policy analysis models can play an important role in evaluating the economic effects of alternative courses of action. Model users can answer “what if” questions about the economic effects of policies in areas such as economic development, energy, transportation, the environment, and taxation. Thus, simulation models for state, provincial, and local economies can help guide decision makers in formulating strategies for these geographical areas.

PI+ (and its predecessor Policy Insight) is probably the most widely applied regional economic policy analysis model. Uses of the model to predict the regional economic and demographic effects of policies cover a range of issues; some examples include electric utility restructuring in Wyoming, the construction of a new baseball park for Boston, air pollution regulations in California, and the provision of tax incentives for business expansion in Michigan. The model is used by government agencies on the national, state, and local level, as well as by private consulting firms, utilities, and universities.

The original version of the model was developed as the Massachusetts Economic Policy Analysis (MEPA, Treyz, Friedlander, and Stevens) model in 1977. It was then extended into a model that could be generalized for all states and counties in the U.S. under a grant from the National Cooperative Highway
In 1980, Regional Economic Models, Inc. (REMI) was founded to build, maintain, and advise on the use of the REMI model for individual regions. REMI was also established to further the theoretical framework, methodology, and estimation of the model through ongoing economic research and development.

Major extensions of the initial model include the incorporation of a dynamic capital stock adjustment process (Rickman, Shao, and Treyz, 1993), migration equations with detailed demographic structure (Greenwood, Hunt, Rickman, and Treyz, 1991; Treyz, Rickman, Hunt, and Greenwood, 1993), consumption equations (Treyz and Petraglia, 2001), and endogenous labor force participation rates (Treyz, Christopher, and Lou, 1996). A multi-regional national model has also been developed that has a central bank monetary response to economic changes that occur at the regional level (Treyz and Treyz, 1997).

Most recently, the model structure has been developed to include “new economic geography” assumptions. Economic geography theory explains regional and urban economies in terms of competing factors of dispersion and agglomeration. Producers and consumers are assumed to benefit from access to variety, which tends to concentrate production and the location of households. However, land is a finite resource, and high land prices and congestion tend to disperse economic activity.

Economic geography is incorporated in the model in two basic indexes. The first is the commodity access index, which predicts how productivity will be enhanced and costs reduced when firms increase access to intermediate inputs. This index is also used in the migration equation to incorporate the beneficial effect for consumers of having more access to consumer goods, which is factored into their migration decisions. The second index is the labor access index, which captures the favorable effect on labor productivity and thus labor costs when local firms have access to a wide variety of potential employees and are able to select employees whose skills best suit their needs.
II. Overview of the Model

PI+ is a structural economic forecasting and policy analysis model. It integrates input-output, computable general equilibrium, econometric, and economic geography methodologies. The model is dynamic, with forecasts and simulations generated on an annual basis and behavioral responses to compensation, price, and other economic factors.

The model consists of thousands of simultaneous equations with a structure that is relatively straightforward. The exact number of equations used varies depending on the extent of industry, demographic, demand, and other detail in the specific model being used. The overall structure of the model can be summarized in five major blocks: (1) Output and Demand, (2) Labor and Capital Demand, (3) Population and Labor Supply, (4) Compensation, Prices, and Costs, and (5) Market Shares. The blocks and their key interactions are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

Figure 1: REMI Model Linkages

![REMI Model Linkages](image-url)
The Output and Demand block consists of output, demand, consumption, investment, government spending, exports, and imports, as well as feedback from output change due to the change in the productivity of intermediate inputs. The Labor and Capital Demand block includes labor intensity and productivity as well as demand for labor and capital. Labor force participation rate and migration equations are in the Population and Labor Supply block. The Compensation, Prices, and Costs block includes composite prices, determinants of production costs, the consumption price deflator, housing prices, and the compensation equations. The proportion of local, inter-regional, and export markets captured by each region is included in the Market Shares block.

Models can be built as single region, multi-region, or multi-region national models. A region is defined broadly as a sub-national area, and could consist of a state, province, county, or city, or any combination of sub-national areas.

Single-region models consist of an individual region, called the home region. The rest of the nation is also represented in the model. However, since the home region is only a small part of the total nation, the changes in the region do not have an endogenous effect on the variables in the rest of the nation.

Multi-regional models have interactions among regions, such as trade and commuting flows. These interactions include trade flows from each region to each of the other regions. These flows are illustrated
for a three-region model in Figure 3. There are also multi-regional price and wage cost linkages as shown in the Figure at the end of Section III.

Figure 3: Trade and Commuter Flow Linkages

Multiregional national models also include a central bank monetary response that constrains labor markets. Models that only encompass a relatively small portion of a nation are not endogenously constrained by changes in exchange rates or monetary responses.

Block 1. Output and Demand

This block includes output, demand, consumption, investment, government spending, import, commodity access, and export concepts. Output for each industry in the home region is determined by industry demand in all regions in the nation, the home region’s share of each market, and international exports from the region.

For each industry, demand is determined by the amount of output, consumption, investment, and capital demand on that industry. Consumption depends on real disposable income per capita, relative
prices, differential income elasticities, and population. Input productivity depends on access to inputs because a larger choice set of inputs means it is more likely that the input with the specific characteristics required for the job will be found. In the capital stock adjustment process, investment occurs to fill the difference between optimal and actual capital stock for residential, non-residential, and equipment investment. Government spending changes are determined by changes in the population.

**Block 2. Labor and Capital Demand**

The Labor and Capital Demand block includes the determination of labor productivity, labor intensity, and the optimal capital stocks. Industry-specific labor productivity depends on the availability of workers with differentiated skills for the occupations used in each industry. The occupational labor supply and commuting costs determine firms’ access to a specialized labor force.

Labor intensity is determined by the cost of labor relative to the other factor inputs, capital and fuel. Demand for capital is driven by the optimal capital stock equation for both non-residential capital and equipment. Optimal capital stock for each industry depends on the relative cost of labor and capital, and the employment weighted by capital use for each industry. Employment in private industries is determined by the value added and employment per unit of value added in each industry.

**Block 3. Population and Labor Supply**

The Population and Labor Supply block includes detailed demographic information about the region. Population data is given for age, gender, and ethnic category, with birth and survival rates for each group. The size and labor force participation rate of each group determines the labor supply. These participation rates respond to changes in employment relative to the potential labor force and to changes in the real after-tax compensation rate. Migration includes retirement, military, international, and economic migration. Economic migration is determined by the relative real after-tax compensation rate, relative employment opportunity, and consumer access to variety.

**Block 4. Compensation, Prices and Costs**

This block includes delivered prices, production costs, equipment cost, the consumption deflator, consumer prices, the price of housing, and the compensation equation. Economic geography concepts account for the productivity and price effects of access to specialized labor, goods, and services.

These prices measure the price of the industry output, taking into account the access to production locations. This access is important due to the specialization of production that takes place within each industry, and because transportation and transaction costs of distance are significant. Composite prices for each industry are then calculated based on the production costs of supplying regions, the effective distance to these regions, and the index of access to the variety of outputs in the industry relative to the access by other uses of the product.

The cost of production for each industry is determined by the cost of labor, capital, fuel, and intermediate inputs. Labor costs reflect a productivity adjustment to account for access to specialized labor, as well as underlying compensation rates. Capital costs include costs of non-residential structures and equipment, while fuel costs incorporate electricity, natural gas, and residual fuels.
The consumption deflator converts industry prices to prices for consumption commodities. For potential migrants, the consumer price is additionally calculated to include housing prices. Housing prices change from their initial level depending on changes in income and population density.

Compensation changes are due to changes in labor demand and supply conditions and changes in the national compensation rate. Changes in employment opportunities relative to the labor force and occupational demand change determine compensation rates by industry.

**Block 5. Market Shares**

The market shares equations measure the proportion of local and export markets that are captured by each industry. These depend on relative production costs, the estimated price elasticity of demand, and the effective distance between the home region and each of the other regions. The change in share of a specific area in any region depends on changes in its delivered price and the quantity it produces compared with the same factors for competitors in that market. The share of local and external markets then drives the exports from and imports to the home economy.
III. Detailed Diagrammatic and Verbal Description

The first task in this section is to examine the internal interactions within each of the blocks. The second task is to examine the linkages between the blocks. Finally, the last task is to tie it all together by looking at the key inter-block and intra-block linkages.

Block 1. Output and Demand

Key Endogenous Linkages in the Output Block

This block incorporates the regional product accounts. It includes output, demand, consumption, government spending, imports, and exports. The commodity access index, an economic geography concept, determines the productivity of intermediate inputs. Inter-industry transactions from the input-output table are also accounted for in this block.

Output for each industry in the home region is determined by industry demand in all regions in the nation, the home region’s share of each market, and international exports from the region. The shares of home and other regions’ markets are determined by economic geography methods, explained in block 5.

Consumption, investment, government spending, and intermediate inputs are the sources of demand. Consumption depends on real disposable income per capita, relative prices, the income elasticity of demand, and population. Consumption for all goods and services increases proportionally with population. The consumption response to per capita income is divided into high and low elasticity consumption components. For example, the demand for consumer goods such as vehicles, computers, and furniture is highly responsive to income changes, while health services and tobacco have low income
elasticiies. Demand for individual consumption commodities are also affected by relative prices. Changes in demand by consumption components are converted into industry demand changes by taking the proportion of each commodity for each industry in a bridge matrix.

Real disposable income, which drives consumption, is determined by compensation, employment, non-compensation income, and the personal consumption expenditure price index. Labor income depends on employment and the compensation rate, described in blocks 2 and 4, respectively. Non-compensation income includes commuter income, property income, transfers, taxes, and social security payments. Disposable income is stated in real terms by dividing by the consumer price index.

Investment occurs through the capital stock adjustment process. The stock adjustment process assumes that investment occurs in order to fill the gap between the optimal and actual level of capital. The investment in new housing, commercial and industrial buildings, and equipment is an important engine of economic development. New investment provides a strong feedback mechanism for further growth, since investment represents immediate demand for buildings and equipment that are to be used over a long period of time. The need for new construction begets further economic expansion as inputs into construction, especially additional employment in this industry, create new demand in the economy.

Investment is separated into residential, nonresidential, and equipment investment categories. In each case, the level of existing capital is calculated by starting with a base year estimate of capital stock, to which investment is added and depreciation is subtracted for each year. The desired level of capital is calculated in the capital demand equations, in block 2. Investment occurs when the optimal level of capital is higher than the actual level of capital; the rate at which this investment occurs is determined by the speed of adjustment.

Government spending at the regional and local level is primarily for the purpose of providing people with services such as schooling and police protection. However, government spending is usually linked to revenue sources. Thus, changes in government spending are driven by changes in population as well as the overall size of the economy (GRP). The government spending equation takes into account regional differences in per capita and per GDP government spending, as well as differential government spending levels across localities within a larger region.

The demand for intermediate inputs depends on the requirements of industries that use inputs from other sectors. These inter-industry relationships are based on the input-output table for the economy. For example, a region with a large automobile assembly plant would have a correspondingly large demand for primary metals, since this industry is a major supplier to the motor vehicles industry.

Thousands of specialized parts are needed to assemble an automobile, and the close proximity of the parts suppliers to the assembly plant is particularly significant under just-in-time inventory management procedures. More generally, the location of intermediate suppliers is important to at least some extent for every industry. Thus, the economic geography of the producer and input suppliers is a key aspect of regional productivity.

The agglomeration economies provided by the proximity of producers and suppliers is measured in the commodity access index. This index determines intermediate input productivity. The commodity access
index for each industry is determined by the use of intermediate inputs, the effective distance to the input suppliers, and a measure of the productivity advantage of specialization in intermediate inputs. This productivity advantage is the elasticity of substitution between varieties in the production function. Although producers may be able to find a substitute for the precise component or service that they desire, access to the most favorable input provides a productivity advantage. When substitution between varieties is inelastic, then the productivity benefit of access to inputs is high. Thus, agglomeration economies are strong for the production of electrical equipment, computers, and machinery, and other industries that require specialized types of inputs for which substitution is difficult.

An increase in the output of an industry provides a larger pool of goods and/or services from which to choose. Since firms incur some fixed cost to produce a new variety, this increased pool of goods and services represents an increased availability of varieties. Therefore, an increase in industry output leads to a greater supply of differentiated goods and services, which can in turn lead to higher productivity and increase output. This positive feedback between tightly related clusters of industries is one source of regional agglomeration.

Since standard input-output analysis is often used to predict the effect of a firm either moving into or out of an area, it is important to explain why the results of the input-output analysis is incomplete. The following diagrams and explanation give an overview of the differences and similarities between PI' and Standard Input-Output.

In the first diagram (“Factors Included in Standard Input-Output Models”), white boxes indicate the linkages that constitute most I-O models.
Some input-output models differentiate consumption by average household spending rates based on average earnings by industry. REMI differentiates between changes in income per capita and income changes due to changes in population, and includes different income elasticities for purchases of different consumer products (e.g. the consumption type that includes cigarettes has a lower income elasticity than the type that includes motor vehicles). Also, most I-O models would not account for the inflow and outflow of commuter earnings.

Thus, the I-O model captures the inter-industry flows that occur as output changes (each extra dollar of steel used 3 cents of coke) and it has feedbacks to consumer spending that are generated by changes in workers’ income. Since population migration changes are not modeled, feedbacks to state and local governments in terms of new demands for per capita services are not included. Investment spending to construct new residential housing and commercial buildings cannot be modeled in static input-output models, because it is a transitory process that will occur when the need for housing and new stores occurs due to higher incomes and population but will return towards the baseline construction activity once the number of new houses and stores has risen enough to meet the one-time permanent increase in demand.

The change in the share of all markets as costs, the access to intermediate inputs, and the access to labor and feedback from other areas in a multi-region model are not included in standard I-O models. These all have effects in the short run, but the effects are even much larger in the long run. While an I-O
analysis just gives a partial static picture, the REMI model catches all of the dynamic effects for each year in the future.

In addition to the difference in the extent of the important feedbacks in the REMI model compared to I-O, there is a major difference in the options for inputting policy variables in the two models. The following diagram shows the way standard input for the I-O model is Export Sales (going into International Exports) in comparison to the large number of inputs in the REMI model for Block 1.

**REMI's Two Input Options vs. The Standard IO Single Option**

**Key Policy Variables for the Output and Demand Block**

**Block 1. Output and Demand**

Standard input-output models only account for the direct output changes entered into the model, neglecting the displacement effects or augmenting effects on similar businesses in the region (or regions) modeled. The REMI model also provides this option.

Only the REMI model provides for inputting the output of the new firm in a way that accounts for displacement of competing employers in the home region and other regions in the multi-region model.
The alternative way that the REMI model provides for the effect of a firm entering or leaving a region due to a policy change can have substantial effects on the predicted outcome. For example, if a new grocery store is subsidized to move in, but 95% of all groceries are bought in the home region in the baseline case, then most of the sales of the new firm would displace sales in the grocery stores that are currently in the home region. This would mean that the net increase in jobs would only be a fraction of the firm’s employment. The gain would mainly have to come from the increasing share in other regions, and this may be small if the initial shares indicate that the geographic area served by this industry is always very close to its source. In addition to considering the initial displacement, the REMI policy variable for a new firm will show how the future will be different if this new firm maintains its initial gain in share in the multi-region, the rest of the monetary union, and the rest of the world markets. Thus, the long-term effects will capture the differential effects of gaining share in an industry in which demand in the relevant markets is expanding rapidly versus those in which the demand is growing slowly. It will also capture the way that future projected changes in output per worker will mean that sales growth and employment growth may differ markedly.

The range of other policy variables for the output and demand block can be seen in the diagrams. These other ways that policy can influence the economic and demographic future of an area are not available for standard I-O models, because the linkages to most of the key processes that influence the outcomes in the region are not included in the structure of I-O models.
The Labor and Capital Demand block includes employment, capital demand, labor productivity, and the substitution among labor, capital, and fuel. Total employment is made up of farm, government, and private non-farm employment. Employment in private non-farm industries depends on employment demand and the number of workers needed to produce a unit of output. Employment demand is built up from the separate components of employment due to intermediate demand, consumer demand, local and regional government demand, local investment, and exports outside of the area. The employment per dollar of output depends on the national employment per dollar of output, the cost of other factors, and the access to specialized workers.

The availability of a large pool of workers within a region contributes to the labor force productivity. Each worker brings a set of unique characteristics and skills, even within the same occupational category. For example, a surgeon may specialize in heart, brain, or knee surgery. Although a brain surgeon may be able to perform a heart operation, the brain surgeon is likely to be less effective than a surgeon who has specific experience with heart surgery. Hospitals in major medical centers such as Houston are in an excellent position to meet their staff requirements because the number of qualified job applicants in the region is so large.

More broadly, locations that can be easily reached by a large number of potential employees can better match jobs with workers. The equation for labor productivity due to labor access is calculated separately.
for each occupation. Occupational productivity in each location is based on the residential location of all potential workers and their actual or potential commuting costs to that location.

The contribution of labor variety to productivity is measured by an occupation-specific elasticity of substitution based on a study that considered wages and commuting patterns across a large metropolitan area. While the match of workers in specialized roles that are consistent with their training has a large impact on productivity for medical occupations, it is significantly less important for workers in the food service sector. Industry productivity due to specialization is built up from occupational productivity, using the proportionate number of workers in each occupation that are employed by a given industry.

The number of employees needed per unit of output depends on the use of other factors of production as well as labor access issues. Labor intensity, which measures the use of labor relative to other factors, is determined by the cost of labor relative to the cost of capital and fuel. The substitution between labor, capital, and fuel is based on a Cobb-Douglas production function, which implies constant factor shares. Labor intensity is calculated for each industry.

Demand for capital is driven by the optimal capital stock equation for industries and for housing. The optimal level of capital is determined for non-residential structures and equipment for each industry. The regional optimal capital stock is based on the industry size measured in capital-weighted employment terms, the cost of capital relative to labor, and a measure of the optimal capital stock on the national level. The variable for employment weighted by capital use is determined by the capital weight, employment, and labor productivity. The capital weight is the ratio of industry capital to employment in the region compared to the capital to employment ratio for the nation. The national optimal capital stock is based on the investment in the nation, the actual capital stock, the speed of adjustment, and the depreciation rate.

The optimal level of capital for residential housing is determined by the real disposable income in the region relative to the nation, the optimal residential capital stock for the nation, and the price of housing. To account for the cost of fuel, the fuel components of production (coal mining, petroleum refining, electric and natural gas utilities) are taken out of intermediate industry transactions and considered as a value-added factor of production. Then, firms substitute between labor, capital, and fuel (electric, natural gas, and residual fuel) as the relative costs of factor inputs change.
The Population and Labor Supply block includes detailed demographic information about the region. The population is central to the regional economy, both as a source of demand for consumer and government spending and as the determinant of labor supply. As the composition of the population changes through births, deaths, and migration, so goes the region.

The demographic block is based on the cohort-survival method. Population in any given year is determined by adding the net natural change and the migration change to the previous year’s population. The natural change is caused by births and deaths, while migration occurs for economic and non-economic reasons. Population data is given for age, gender, and ethnic category.

Birth rates are the ratio of births to the number of women in each age group. The survival rate is equal to one minus the death rate, which is the ratio of deaths to population in each cohort. Since birth rates vary widely across age and ethnic groups, and survival rates vary widely for gender as well as age and ethnic category, the detailed demographic breakdown is needed to accurately capture the aggregate birth and survival rates.

Migration, economic or non-economic, also varies widely across population groups. Changes in retirement, international, and returning military migration are all assumed to occur for reasons that are not primarily due to with changing regional economic conditions. Retirement migration depends on the retirement-age population in the rest of the country for regions that have gained retirement population in
the past, and on the retirement-age population within the regions for places that tend to have a net loss of retirees. The probability of losing or gaining a retiree is age and gender specific for each age group.

International migration is also based on previous patterns. Changes in political restrictions on immigration and the economy of the immigrants’ country are more significant in determining international migration than are changes in the economy of the home region. Returning military migration patterns are also better explained by existing patterns than by regional economic conditions, so returning military is also an exogenous variable.

Economic migration is the movement of people to regions with better economic conditions. Economic migrants are attracted to places with relatively high wages and employment opportunities. Migrants are also attracted to places with high amenities. Potential migrants value access to consumer commodities, which depend on economic conditions. Thus, as the output of consumer goods and services increases, the amenity attraction of the region increases. Other amenities are due to non-economic factors. These amenities or compensating differentials are measured indirectly by looking at migration patterns over the last 20 years. In this way, the compensating differential is calculated as the expected compensation rate that would result in no net in- or out-migration. For example, people may be willing to work in Florida even if paid only 85% of the average U.S. compensation rate.

The labor force consists of unemployed individuals who are seeking work as well as employed workers. The labor force participation rate is thus the proportion of each population group that is working or looking for work. To predict the labor force, the model sums up the participation rate and cohort size for each demographic category. Participation rates vary widely across age, gender, and ethnic category; thus, the labor force depends in large part on the population structure of the region.

The willingness of individuals to participate in the labor force is also responsive to economic conditions. Higher compensation rates and greater employment opportunities generally encourage higher labor force participation rates. The extent to which rates change in response to these economic factors, however, differs substantially for different population groups. For example, the willingness of men to enter the labor force is more influenced by compensation, while women are more sensitive to employment opportunities.
This block includes compensation, consumer prices, production costs, housing prices, and composite wages and input costs. Compensation, prices, and costs are determined by the labor and housing markets. The labor market is central to the regional economy, and compensation differences are the primary source of price and cost differentials between regions. Demand for labor, from block 2, and labor force supply, from block 3, interact to determine compensation rates. Housing prices depend on changes in population density and changes in real disposable income.

Economic geography concepts account for productivity and corresponding price effects due to access to specialized labor and inputs into production. The labor access index from block 2, as well as the nominal compensation rate, determines the composite compensation rate. The composite cost of production depends on the productivity-adjusted compensation rate of the region, costs of structures, equipment, and fuel, and the delivered price of intermediate inputs.

The delivered price of a good or service is based on the cost of the commodity at the place of origin, and the distance cost of providing the commodity to the place of destination. This price measure is calculated relative to delivered prices in all other regions, and weights the delivered price from all locations that ship to the home region.
Block 5. Market Shares

The Market Shares block represents the ability of the region to sell its output within the local region, to other regions in the nation, and to other nations. Although the share of local markets is generally higher than any other market share, the equation for the market share of the home region is the same as for other regions within the nation. The share of international exports from the home region depends on national exports overall, and relative cost and output changes in the home region.

Changes in market shares within the nation depend on changes in industry production costs and output. Production cost increases lower market shares, but higher output raises market shares. Market shares rise with output increases, since higher output is better able to meet local and other regions’ demand for goods and services by providing more choices.
IV. Block by Block Equations

Block 1 – Output and Demand

Output Equations

The output in area $k$ for industry $i$ is determined by the following equation:

$$Q_i^k = \sum_{l=1}^{m} s_{ij}^k DD_l^i + sx_{i,\text{row}}^k X_i^u$$

(1-1)

Where:

- $Q_i^k$ = The output for industry $i$ in area $k$.
- $DD_l^i$ = The domestic demand for industry $i$ in area $l$.
- $X_i^u$ = Exports of industry $i$ from the nation ($u$).
- $s_{ij}^k$ = Area $k$’s share for industry $i$ of the market in area $l$.
- $sx_{i,\text{row}}^k$ = Area $k$’s share of the national exports of $i$ to the rest of the world ($\text{row}$).
- $m$ = The number of areas in the model (minimum 2). Also the letter that denotes the exogenous region (i.e. rest of the nation) for any model that does not incorporate a monetary feedback.

The $DD_l^i$ is the quantity demanded in $l$. The $s_{ij}^k$ term will incorporate the changes in $k$’s share of $i$ in $l$ that are due to the changes in $k$’s delivered price of $i$ to $l$ compared to the weighted average price charged by all of the areas that deliver to $l$, the variety of $i$ offered in $k$ compared with the variety offered by competitors in $l$, and the mix of fast-growing relative to slow-growing detailed industries that make up industry $i$ in area $k$ compared to the mix in the nation (see Block 5 below).

$$DD_l^i = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} Q_j^l + \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+c} a_{ij}^c C_j^l + \sum_{j=n+c+1}^{n+c+\text{inv}} a_{ij}^\text{inv} I_j^l + \sum_{j=n+c+\text{inv}+1}^{n+c+\text{inv}+g} a_{ij}^\text{inv} G_j^l \right) * sd_{ij}^l$$

(1-2)

Where:

- $DD_l^i$ = Domestic demand for industry $i$ in area $l$.
- $a_{ij}^u$ = The average $i$ purchased per dollar spent on $j$ in the nation ($u$) in the current time period.$^1$

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$^1$ Where input-output accounts use a commodity-by-industry input-output framework in which commodities and industries are classified separately, the make and use tables can be used to convert to an industry-by-industry framework.
\[ a_{ij,t}^l = \frac{a_{ij}^u}{MCPROD_{ij}^l} \] (1-3)

Where;

- \( a_{ij,t}^l \): The average \( i \) purchased per dollar spent on producing \( j \) in region \( l \) in period \( t \).
- \( MCPROD_{ij}^l \): The moving average of \( MCPROD_{ij}^l \).
- \( sd_{it}^l \): The share of area \( l \)’s demand for good \( i \) in time \( t \) that is supplied from within the nation.
- \( n \): The number of industries.
- \( c \): The number of final demand consumption categories.
- \( inv \): The number of investment sectors.
- \( g \): The number of government sectors.
- \( Q_j^l \): The output of industry \( j \) in area \( l \).
- \( C_j^l \): The demand for consumption category \( j \) in area \( l \).
- \( I_j^l \): The demand for investment category \( j \) in area \( l \).
- \( G_j^l \): The spending by government type \( j \) in area \( l \).

\[
MCPROD_{ij}^l = \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{Q_{ij,t}}{\sum_{j=1}^{m} Q_{ij,t}} \left( ED_{jk}^l \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma_i}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma_i}}} {\sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( \frac{Q_{ij,t}}{\sum_{j=1}^{m} Q_{ij,t}} \left( ED_{jk}^l \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma_i}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma_i}}} \right] \quad (1-4)
\]

\( MCPROD_{ij}^l \) = Intermediate Input Access Index. It predicts the change in the productivity of intermediate inputs due to changes in the access to these inputs in area \( l \).

Where;

- \( \sigma_i \): The price elasticity of demand for industry \( i \). (This parameter is estimated econometrically as the change in market share due to changes in area \( k \)’s delivered price compared to other competitors in each market in which area \( k \) sells products of industry \( i \).)

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2 All local government demands in a local area translate into local government spending in that area. However, demand for state government services in a county within a state results in government spending on services in the counties where state government services are supplied, which may only lead to a small amount of extra state government services or spending in the area where the demand arises. Likewise, national government demand may result in national spending or services in different areas of a country.
\( ED^k \) = The “effective distance” between \( l \) and \( k \). (This variable is obtained by aggregating from the small area trade flows in our database.)

\( Q_i^l \) = Output of \( i \) in \( l \).

\( \eta_i \) = Distance deterrence elasticity. This is estimated using the exponent in the gravity equation \( (\beta_i) \) and the estimated price elasticity \( \sigma_i \) and then using the identity \( \eta_i = \frac{\beta_i}{\sigma_i - 1} \).

\[
MCPRODA_i = .2MCPROD_i + .8MCPRODA_{i-1}
\]  

(1-5)

\[
CPROD^k_j = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( MCPRODA^k_i \right)^{PCE^k_{i,j}}
\]

\( CPROD^k_j \) = The consumption commodity \( j \) access index in area \( k \).

\( PCE^k_{i,j} \) = The proportion of each industry’s input to consumption commodity \( j \).

\( n \) = The number of industries.

\[
MIGPROD^k_j = \prod_{j=1}^{c} \left( CPROD^k_j / CPROD^k_{j-1} \right)^{WC^C_{j-1}} \cdot MIGPROD^k_{j-1}
\]  

(1-6)

\( MIGPROD \) = The consumer access index.

\( c \) = The number of consumption commodities.

\[
WC^C_{j-1} = \frac{C^C_{j-1}}{\sum_{j=1}^{c} C^C_{j-1}}
\]

Consumption Equations

The following consumption equation is used, which substitutes for the equation published in a 2001 article by George Treyz and Lisa Petraglia.3

\[
C^k_{j,t} = 1 [\text{calibration effect}] \times 2 [\text{age composition effect}] \times 3 [\text{regional effect}] \times 4 [\text{marginal income effect}] \times 5 [\text{region-specific marginal price effect}] \times 6 [\text{national consumption per capita effect}] \times 7 [\text{local population}]
\]  

(1-7)

---

Variable Definitions

RYD = Real Disposable Income
YD = Nominal Disposable Income
N = Population
P = Price = $CIFP$

$\overline{P}^k$ = Average price in area for the weighted average of all the commodities that make up total consumption

C = Consumption

%DG = percentage of Demographic Age Group

PC = Propensity to consume

Subscripts

t = time period
T = last history year time period
j = consumption commodity
l = age group

Superscripts

k = local region
u = entire nation

$\beta_i$ = marginal income elasticities (estimated separately for luxuries and necessities)

$\gamma_i$ = marginal price elasticities (estimated separately for luxuries and necessities)

R = major region of the country (Northeast, Midwest, South, West)
Real Disposable Income Equations

Real disposable income (RYD) in the region equals personal income \( (YP) \) adjusted for taxes \( (TAX) \) and the PCE-Price Index, which represents the cost of living \( (\pi^c) \). Total personal income \( (YP) \) depends on compensation \( (COMP) \), and proprietors’ income \( (YPI) \), property income \( (YPROP) \), employee and self-employed contributions for government social insurance \( (TWPER) \), employer contributions for government social insurance \( (EGSI) \), transfer payments \( (\nu) \), and an adjustment to account for the difference between place-of-work and place-of-residence earnings \( (RA) \).

Compensation, \( COMP \), is an aggregation of individual industry wages and salaries and supplements to wages and salaries. Thus,

\[
COMP = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_i * CR_i
\]  

(1-10)

Where;

\( E_i \) is employment in industry \( i \), and \( CR_i \) is the compensation rate of industry \( i \).

The self-employed generate proprietors’ income.

\[
YPI_i = YLP_i - COMP_i
\]  

(1-11)

Where;

\( YPI_i \) is proprietors’ income for industry \( i \)

Total labor and proprietors’ income, \( YLP \), (also referred to as earnings by place of work) for all industries in the region can be calculated as

\[
YLP = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [E_i * ER_i]
\]  

(1-12)

Where;

\( ER_i \) is the earnings rate for industry \( i \)

Wage and salary disbursements, \( WSD \), are predicted as

\[
WSD_i = E_i * WR_i
\]  

(1-13)

Where;

\( WR_i \) is the wage rate for industry \( i \)
Property income, \(YPROP\), depends on the population and its age distribution, as well as historical regional differences in property income received.

\[
YPROP = \lambda_{YPROP} NP \left( \frac{YPROP}{NP} \right)
\]

(1-14)

and

\[
NP = L65 + m65 * G65
\]

(1-15)

Where \(m65\) is the national ratio of per capita property income received for persons 65 years and older (\(G65\)) relative to property received by persons younger than 65 (\(L65\)), and \(\lambda_{YPROP}\) adjusts for regional differences and is calculated in the last historical year by solving equations (1-14) and (1-15).

Employee and self-employed contributions for government social insurance, \(TWPER\), are predicted as

\[
TWPER = \lambda_{TWPER} WSD \left( \frac{TWPER}{WSD} \right)
\]

(1-16)

Where \(\lambda_{TWPER}\) is a coefficient calculated in the last historical year to adjust for regional differences in the \(TWPER\) per dollar of wage and salary disbursements, and \(WSD\) equals wage and salary disbursements.

Employer contributions for government social insurance, \(EGSI\), are predicted as

\[
EGSI = \lambda_{EGSI} WSD \left( \frac{EGSI}{WSD} \right)
\]

(1-17)

Where \(\lambda_{EGSI}\) is a coefficient calculated in the last historical year to adjust for regional differences in the \(EGSI\) per dollar of wage and salary disbursements.

The residence adjustment, \(RA\), is used to convert place-of-work income (compensation, proprietors’ income, and contributions for government social insurance) to place-of-residence income.

\[
RA^k = GI^k - GO^k
\]

(1-18)

\[
\mathcal{R} S_t^{k,l} = \frac{LF_t^l * (P_t^l) (1-\sigma) * (D_t^k,l)^{-\beta}}{\sum_{k \neq l} LF_t^j * (P_t^j) (1-\sigma) * (D_t^j,k)^{-\beta}}
\]

\(\mathcal{R} S_t^{k,l}\) = the share of commuters who live in region \(l\) and work in region \(k\) in time period \(t\).

\(LF_t^l\) = labor force in region \(l\) in time period \(t\).
\( P_t^l \) = the consumer price index including housing price in region \( l \) in time period \( t \).

\( D^{k,l} \) = the commute distance from region \( l \) to region \( k \).

\( \sigma \) = Sigma value, the estimated parameter for consumer price.

\( \beta \) = Beta value, the estimated parameter for distance decay.

\[
CI_{t}^{k,l} = \sum_{k \neq l}^{n} rs_{t}^{k,l} \times \left( COMPT_{i}^{k} - COMP_{i}^{nFM,k} - TWPER_{i}^{k} - EGSI_{i}^{k} \right)
\]

\( CI_{t}^{k,l} \) = the commuter income flow from commuters who live in region \( l \) and work in region \( k \) in time period \( t \).

\[
GI_{t}^{k} = \sum_{k \neq l}^{n} CI_{t}^{l,k}
\]

(1-19)

\( GI^{k} \) = Gross inflow of commuter dollars for residents of region \( k \) who work in all other areas.

\[
GO_{t}^{k} = \sum_{k \neq l}^{n} CI_{t}^{k,l}
\]

(1-20)

\( GO^{k} \) = Gross outflow from region \( k \) to all other areas (\( m \)).

Transfer payments, \( V \), depend on the number of persons in each of three groups: persons 65 years and older, persons younger than 65 who are not working, and all persons who are not working. Transfer payments also are adjusted for historical regional differences.

\[
V = \lambda_{p} NV \left( \frac{V^{p}}{NV^{p}} \right)
\]

(1-21)

and

\[
NV = VG \left( G65 \right) + VL \left[ 65 - E \left( 1 + \frac{RA}{WSDT} \right) \right] + \left[ N - E \left( 1 + \frac{RA}{WSDT} \right) \right]
\]

(1-22)

Where \( VG \) are per capita transfer payments for persons 65 years and older relative to per capita transfer payments for all persons not working, \( VL \) are per capita transfer payments for persons younger than 65 who are not working, \( \lambda_{p} \) adjusts for regional differences and is calculated in the last historical year by solving equations (1-16) and (1-17), and \( E \) and \( N \) are, respectively, total employment and population in the region and \( WSDT \) is the total wage and salary disbursements.
The variable $TAX$ depends on net income after subtracting transfer income. It is adjusted for regional differences by $\lambda_{TAX}$ and changes as national tax rates change.

$$TAX = \lambda_{TAX} \left( YP - V \left[ TAX^* \left( YP^* - V^* \right) \right] \right) \quad (1-23)$$

**Investment Equations**

There are three types of fixed investment to be considered: residential, nonresidential, and equipment. Change in business inventories is the other component of investment, and is based on the national change in inventories as a proportion of sales applied to the size of the local industry.

The way in which the optimal capital stock ($K^*$) is calculated for each structure investment category (residential and non-residential) is explained in the factor and intermediate demand section below. Introducing time explicitly into the model, we can write equations that apply for residential and nonresidential fixed capital.

$$IL_{p,t} = \alpha \left[ (K^*_t) - \left( 1 - dr^*_t \right) K_{t-1} \right] \quad (1-24)$$

$$K_{t-1} = \left( 1 - dr^*_{t-1} \right) K_{t-2} + IL_{t-1} \quad (1-25)$$

Using equation (1-24), the actual capital stock in equation (1-25) can be replaced with the sum of the surviving initial capital stock ($K^*_0$) and the surviving previous investment expenditures. The investment equation is

$$KC_{j,t} = K_{j,t-1} - \left( K_{j,0} \prod_{i=1}^{t-1} \left( 1 - dr_{j,i} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \prod_{i=1}^{t} \left( 1 - dr_{j,i} \right) \right) \quad (1-26)$$

$$KGA_{j,t} = 0.5 \cdot KC_{j,t} + 0.5 \cdot KGA_{j,t-1}$$

$$IL_{j,t} = \alpha_j \cdot KGA_{j,t}$$

$$I_{j,t} = \sum_j inv_{j,t} IL_{j,t} \quad (1-27)$$

$KC_{j,t}$ is the gap between current year’s optimal and actual capital stock

$KGA_{j,t}$ is Moving average (two-year) of gap between optimal and actual capital stock for current year.

$KGA_{j,t-1}$ is Moving average of gap between optimal and actual capital stock for previous year.
Investment demand for output from industry $i$, time $t$, region $k$  

$\text{II}_i^{(k)} = \text{Investment demand for investment type } j, \text{ time } t, \text{ region } k$

$\text{inv}_{ij,t} = \text{Coefficient denoting the proportion of investment category } j \text{ supplied by industry } i, \text{ time } t.$

$K_{j,t}^k = \text{Optimal capital stock, type } j, \text{ time } t, \text{ region } k.$

$K_{j,0}^k = \text{Capital stock, type } j, \text{ time } 0, \text{ region } k.$

$dr = \text{Depreciation rate, type } j.$

$\alpha_j = \text{Speed of adjustment, type } j.$

(For additional details see Rickman, Shao and Treyz, 1993).

Producers’ durable equipment investment is calculated somewhat differently from residential and nonresidential investment. Since a very large part of equipment investment is for replacement, and not net new purchases, the following equation is used:

$$IL_{PDE,t}^k = 0.14 \ast (IL_{NRS,t}^k / IL_{NRS,t}^u) \ast IL_{PDE,t}^u + 0.86 \ast ((K_{NRS,t}^k / K_{NRS,t}^u) \ast IL_{PDE,t}^u) \quad (1-28)$$

$I_{PDE,t}^k$ = Investment demand for producers’ durable equipment, time $t$, region $k$.

$I_{NRS,t}^k = \text{Investment demand for nonresidential, time } t, \text{ region } k.$

$I_{NRS,t}^u = \text{Investment demand for nonresidential, time } t, \text{ national (u).}$

$I_{PDE,t}^u = \text{Investment demand for producers’ durable equipment, time } t, \text{ national (u).}$

$K_{NRS,t}^k = \text{Capital stock for nonresidential, time } t, \text{ region } k.$

$K_{NRS,t}^u = \text{Capital stock for nonresidential, time } t, \text{ national (u).}$

The national change in business inventories is allocated according to the regional share of employment.

$$CBI_i^l = \left( \frac{E_i^l}{E_i^u} \right) \ast CBI_i^u$$

$CBI_i^l$ = The change in business inventories, industry $i$, region $l$.

$CBI_i^u$ = The change in business inventories, industry $i$, national (u).

$E_i^l = \text{Employment, industry } i, \text{ region } l.$

$E_i^u = \text{Employment, industry } i, \text{ national (u).}$
Government Spending Equations

The state and local government demand equations are driven based on the average per capita and per GDP demands for these services in the last history year \((T)\).

\[
G_{\text{state},l,t}^l = \lambda_{\text{state}} * N_{l,t}^l \times \left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^l}{N_{l,t}^l} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \times \left(\frac{G_{\text{state},l,t}^u}{N_T^u} \div \frac{N_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right)
\]

\[(1-30a)\]

\[
G_{\text{state},l,t}^l = \left[\left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^l}{N_{l,t}^l} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \div \left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_{l,t}^u} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right)\right]^{\beta} \times \left(\frac{G_{\text{state},l,t}^u}{N_{l,t}^u} \div \frac{G_{\text{state},l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \times \left(\frac{N_{l,t}^l}{N_T^u}\right) \times G_{\text{state},l,t}^l
\]

\[(1-30b)\]

\[
G_{\text{local},l,t}^l = \lambda_{\text{local}} * N_{l,t}^l \times \left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^l}{N_{l,t}^l} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \times \left(\frac{G_{\text{local},l,t}^u}{N_{l,t}^u} \div \frac{N_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right)
\]

\[(1-31a)\]

\[
G_{\text{local},l,t}^l = \left[\left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^l}{N_{l,t}^l} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \div \left(\frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_{l,t}^u} \div \frac{GDP_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right)\right]^{\gamma} \times \left(\frac{G_{\text{local},l,t}^u}{N_{l,t}^u} \div \frac{N_{l,t}^u}{N_T^u}\right) \times \left(\frac{N_{l,t}^l}{N_T^u}\right) \times G_{\text{local},l,t}^l
\]

\[(1-31b)\]

Where;

- \(G_{\text{state},l,t}^l\) = The demand for state services in region \(l\), time \(t\).
- \(G_{\text{local},l,t}^l\) = The demand for local services in region \(l\), time \(t\).
- \(\lambda_{\text{state}}\) = The local calibration factor for state government demand.
- \(\lambda_{\text{local}}\) = The local calibration factor for local government demand.
- \(N_{l,t}^l\) = The total population, region \(l\), time \(t\).
- \(GDP_{l,t}^l\) = The total gross domestic product, region \(l\), time \(t\).
- \(\beta\) = The GDP elasticity of state government expenditures.
- \(\gamma\) = The GDP elasticity of local government expenditures.

Superscript \(u\) indicates similar values for the nation.

In the absence of adequate local demand estimates for state and local government separately, it is necessary to approximate these relative values based on assuming uniform productivity across all state and local government employees in the nation. It is important to note that local demand for local
government services will be met in the local area, whereas the demand for state services in a local area may be met in part by state employees in the counties that provide state services, as set forth in the section on Market Shares below.

**Block 2 – Labor and Capital Demand**

**Labor Demand Equations**

The productivity of labor depends on access to a labor pool. In this instance, we have chosen to use employment by occupation as the measure of access to the specialized labor pool. Thus, the variety effect on the productivity of labor by occupation is expressed in the following equation:

\[
FLO_{j,t}^k = \frac{1}{1 - \sigma_j} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{EO_{i,j,t}^{l}}{EO_{i,j,t}^{n}} \ast \left( 1 + cc_{i,j}^{l,k} \right)^{-\sigma_j} \right)^{1-\sigma_j} 
\]

\[
RCW_{i,j} = \frac{1}{1 - \sigma_j} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{EO_{i,j,t}^{l}}{EO_{i,j,t}^{u}} \ast \left( 1 + cc_{i,j}^{l,k} \right)^{-\sigma_j} \right)^{1-\sigma_j} 
\]

**Notes**

- \( FLO_{j,t}^k \) = Labor productivity for occupation type \( j \) that depends on the relative access to labor in occupation \( j \) in region \( k \), time \( t \).
- \( RCW_{i,j} \) = Relative labor productivity due to industry concentration of labor.
- \( EO_{i,j,t}^{l} \) = Labor of occupation type \( j \) in region \( l \), time \( t \).
- \( \sigma_j \) = Elasticity of substitution (i.e. cost elasticity).
- \( cc_{i,j}^{l,k} \) = Commuting time and expenses from \( l \) to \( k \) as a proportion of the wage rate.
- \( EO_{i,j,t}^{u} \) = Labor of occupation type \( j \), national (\( u \)), time \( t \).
- \( E_{i,j,t}^{l} \) = Employment in industry \( i \), time \( t \), in region \( l \).
- \( m \) = Number of regions in model including the rest of the nation region.

The value of \( \sigma_j \) is based on elasticity estimates made by REMI under a grant from the National Cooperative Highway Research Program (Weisbrod, Vary, and Treyz, 2001) based on cross-commuting among workers in the same occupation observed in 1300 Traffic Analysis Zones in Chicago. Key data inputs on travel times were provided by Cambridge Systematics, Inc.

In order to determine labor productivity changes by industry due to access to variety, a staffing pattern matrix is used as follows:
Relative labor productivity due to labor access to industry and relevant occupations by industry $i$, region $k$, time $t$, normalized by $FL_i^k$, labor productivity for occupation $j$'s proportion of industry $i$'s employment.

$FLO_i^k = \frac{\sum q_j d_j * FLO_i^k_j}{RCW_i^k} + RCW_i^k$ in region $k$, time $t$, occupation $j$, normalized by $FLO_i^k$.  

$RCW_i^k = \frac{Relative labor productivity due to industry concentration of labor}{Relative labor productivity due to access by industry $i$ in region $k$ in the last year of history.}$

Relative labor productivity due to access by industry $i$ in region $k$ in the last year of history.

$RC_i^k = Relative labor productivity due to industry concentration of labor$ before accounting for labor productivity effects.

$RFC_i^k = Relative fuel cost industry $i$, time $t$, region $k$, equals $CR_i^k$.
Simplified, the above equation can be written as,

\[ L_{i,t}^k = L_{i,t-1}^k + \left( \frac{I_{nx,t}^k}{K_{nx,t}^k} \right) * (h_{i,t} - L_{i,t-1}^k) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2-3)

Where;

\[ EPV_{i,t}^k = \frac{L_{i,t}^k}{L_{i,t}^k} * \left( \frac{E_{i,T}^k / Q_{i,T}^k}{E_{i,T}^u / Q_{i,T}^u} \right) * (F_l_{i,t}^k)^{\alpha_t} * epvindx_{i,t} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2-4)

\( EPV_{i,t}^k \) = Employees per dollar of output in industry \( i \), time \( t \), region \( k \).

\( L_{i,t}^k \) = Labor intensity due to relative factor costs, industry \( i \), time \( t \), region \( k \).

\( E_{i,T}^u / Q_{i,T}^u \) = Employees per dollar of output in the nation \( (u) \) in time \( t \).

\( \alpha_t \) = Labor share of industry \( i \).

\( F_l_{i,t}^k \) = Labor productivity due to labor access by industry \( i \), time \( t \), divided by \( F_l_{i,t}^k \).

\( E_{i,T}^u / Q_{i,T}^u \) = Employees per dollar of output in the nation \( (u) \) in the last history year.

\( E_{i,T}^k / Q_{i,T}^k \) = Employees per dollar of output in region \( k \) in the last history year.

Where;

\[ Q_{i,T}^k = \frac{WSD_{i,T}^k}{WSD_{i,T}^u} * Q_{i,T}^u \]

\( L_{i,t}^k \) = Labor intensity due to relative factor costs in industry \( i \) in the last history year \( (T) \).

\( epvindx_{i,t} \) = Change in region’s 3-digit industry mix relative to the nation since the last year of history \((=1 \ if \ 3\text{-}digit \ national \ forecast \ is \ not \ used)\).

In a multi-industry model, total employment in the area can be divided into three categories consisting of private non-farm industries, employment in the farm sector, and employment in government. Government is further divided into employment in state and local government sectors, and employment in federal civilian and military sectors. Output in private non-farm industries is determined by demand for inputs into the production process (intermediate demand) and demand from personal consumption, government, investment, and exports (final demand), and employees per unit of output \((EPV_i)\). The equation for employment in private industry \( i \) for the single area model is
\[ E_i = EPV_i \times (QLI_i + QLC_i + QLG_i + QLINV_i + QXRMA_i + QXROU_i + QXROW_i) \]

\[ i = 1, \ldots, n \] (2-5)

Where;

- \( QLI \) are sales of industry \( i \)'s product dependent on local intermediate demand,
- \( QLC \) are sales dependent on local consumer demand, \( QLG \) are sales dependent on local and on state government demand, \( QLINV \) are sales dependent on local investment, and \( QXRMA \) are sales to other areas in the multi-area model. \( QXROU \) and \( QXROW \) are sales to the rest of the nation, and rest of the world.

Federal government employment in the local area is a fixed proportion of government employment in the nation, based on the last observed proportion. The equations for federal civilian employment and federal military employment are

\[ EG_{FC,t}^k = \frac{EG_{FC,T}^k}{EG_{FC,T}^u} \times EG_{FC,t}^u \] (2-6)

\[ EG_{FM,t}^k = \frac{EG_{FM,T}^k}{EG_{FM,T}^u} \times EG_{FM,t}^u \] (2-7)

Where;

- \( EG_{FC,t}^k \) = Federal civilian employment in area \( k \) in time \( t \) (where \( T \) is the last history year)
- \( EG_{FM,t}^k \) = Federal military employment in area \( k \) in time \( t \) (where \( T \) is the last history year)
- \( ^u \) = As a superscript, denotes the federal union area.

State \( (EG_i) \) and local government \( (EG_t) \) employment are based on estimated output per state or local government employee. In the absence of such regional data the national average is used as the ratio of state and local output to state and local government employment. Changes in per capita state and local government in the U.S. and changes in the population that is served by state and/or local government drive state and local employment. Thus, non-farm employment, \( ENF \), is

\[ ENF = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_i + EG_L + EG_S + EG_{F,C} + EG_{F,M} \] (2-8)

Farm employment is estimated as a fixed share of national farm employment based on the last year of history. The equation for total employment (TE) is
\[ TE = ENF + EF \]  
(2-9)

Where \( EF \) is farm employment.

**Capital Demand Equations**

The optimal capital stock equation for non-residential structures \((j=1)\) is:

\[
K_{1,t}^* = \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i,t} \cdot RLC_{i,t}^k}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i,t} \cdot RCC_{i,t}^k} \right) \cdot \frac{AE_{1,t}^k}{AE_{1,t}^u} \cdot K_{1,t}^u \cdot KP_{1}^k 
\]

(2-10)

\( K_{1,t}^* \) = Optimal capital stock for non-residential structures \((j)\), time \( t \), region \( k \).

\( k_{i,t} \) = Industry \( i \)’s share of total capital stock, time \( t \).

\( RLC_{i,t}^k \) = Relative labor cost, industry \( i \), time \( t \), region \( k \)

\( RCC_{i,t}^k \) = Relative capital cost, industry \( i \), time \( t \), region \( k \).

\( AE_{1,t}^k \) = Employment weighted by capital use, time \( t \), region \( k \) (used instead of employment because the variation in capital use per employee across industries is very large).

\( AE_{1,t}^u \) = Capital weighted employment, time \( t \), national capital per employee in the industry and adjustment for labor productivity.

\( K_{1,t}^u \) = National optimal capital stock for non-residential structures \((j)\), time \( t \).

\( KP_{1}^k \) = Capital preference parameter, for non-residential structures \((j)\), region \( k \), if calculated (otherwise \( = 1 \)).

The term of \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i,t} \cdot RLC_{i,t}^k \) (or \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i,t} \cdot RCC_{i,t}^k \)), in equation 2-10 above, is the average relative compensation rate (or average relative capital cost) weighted by capital in use. The equation used to determine the variable \( AE \) is

\[
AE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{K_{i,t}^u}{E_{i,t}^u} \cdot \frac{TK_{i,t}^u}{TE_{i,t}^u} \cdot E_{i,t} \cdot (FL_i)^\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^{n} kwe_{i,t} \cdot E_{i,t} \cdot (FL_i)^\alpha 
\]

(2-11)

\( kwe_{i,t} \) = The average capital per employee in the \( u \) area

In equation 2-11, \( AE \) is the capital using economic activity in employment terms. \( TK \cdot (=\sum K_{i}^{u}) \) and \( TE (=\sum E_{i}^{u}) \) are total capital and total employment in the nation. It is necessary to use \( AE \) instead of \( E \) in equation 2-10, because the variation in capital use per employee across industries is very large. The
term $FL_t$ in equation 2-11 shows relative labor productivity based on labor force availability raised to labor share to reflect labor substitution for capital.

The optimal capital stock for residential housing \((j=2)\) is based on the following equation:

$$K^*_{2,t} = \left( \frac{RYD^K_t}{RYD^K_t} \right) K^*_{2,t} * KP^{j}$$  
(2-12)

Where $\frac{RYD^K_t}{RYD^K_t}$ shares out the optimal national residential capital stock, based on the proportion of real disposable income in the region. The optimal capital stock of the nation for type \(j (j=1,2)\) capital \((K^*_n)\) is determined from equation 2-13.

$$K^*_{j,t} = \left( \frac{I^*_{j,t}}{\alpha_j} \right) + (1 - d_{j,t}^{u}) K^*_{j,t-1}$$  
(2-13)

Thus, if we know the speed \(\alpha_j\) at which investment fills the gaps between the optimal \((K^*_{j,t})\) and actual capital stock \((K^*_{j,t})\), and we know investment in the nation \((I^*_{j,t})\) and the depreciation rate of capital \((d_{j,t}^{u})\), we can determine the optimal capital stock \((K^*_{n})\).

**Demand for Fuel**

Demand for fuel is not explicit in the model. As evident in equation (2-2), the cost of fuel does enter the demands for labor and capital and plays an important role in the model. The treatment of fuel is unique in that the detailed intermediate outputs for oil and gas extraction, coal mining, petroleum and coal products manufacturing, electric power generation, transmission and distribution, and natural gas distribution are excluded from the intermediate industry transactions and treated as a value added factor for purposes of calculating relative costs and labor intensity. As value added factors, fuel, capital, and labor are the Cobb-Douglas substitutes in the production function.

**Block 3 – Population and Labor Supply**

The population block includes a full cohort survival equation by single year of age, by gender, and by racial/ethnic group. Births are determined by the number of females in each relevant age group, and are specific by area and ethnicity. The survival rates are area-specific and are by age, racial/ethnic group, and gender. Retired migrants are based in part by migration patterns for people at and above retirement age 65. In particular a “risk” probability model is used. For areas that experienced an inflow of retired migrants, the probability of a person over age 65 moving into the area is based on the proportion of that population captured in the past. This probability is applied each year in the future to the population age 65 and above in the nation. For areas experiencing net outward migration of the retired population, the
past proportion of loss is applied to the number of people in the local area that are age 65 and older. When the data supports it, the above-65 population can be divided into gender and age categories.

In particular, the equation for retired migrants is

\[
RTMG_i^l = rm_i^l \left( (1 - RTDUM_i^l) * N_i^l + RTDUM_i^l * N_i^u \right)
\]

(3-1)

Where;

- \(RTMG_i^l\) = The net inflow or outflow of migrants of age \(i\) \((i=65,66,\ldots100+)\) to region \(l\)
- \(rm_i^l\) = The net proportion of the relevant population that has historically migrated into or out of area \(l\).
- \(N_i^l\) = The 65 and above population in area \(l\).
- \(N_i^u\) = The 65 and above population in area \(u\).

\[
RTDUM_i^l = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } rm_i^l > 0 \\
0 & \text{if } rm_i^l < 0
\end{cases}
\]

The economic migration equation in the model is very important to forecasting the effects of alternative policies. It is based on the assumption that economic migrants will make their migration decisions based on the relative expected after-tax real earned income in alternative locations and the relative amenity attractiveness of these locations.

The migration equation is

\[
ECMG_i^l = \left[ \lambda' + \beta_1 \ln\left( REO_i^l \right) + \beta_2 \ln\left( RWR_i^l \right) + \beta_1 \ln\left( MIGPROD_i^l \right) \right] * LF_{i-1}^l
\]

(3-2)

Where;

- \(ECMG_i^l\) = Net economic migrants (all migrants less than 65 years of age) in area \(l\).
- \(LF_{i-1}^l\) = The labor force last period in area \(l\).

\[
REO_i^l = \frac{RAE_i^l}{LF_i^l} = \text{The relative employment opportunity in area } l \text{ in period } t.
\]

\[
RAE_i^l = \text{Residence-adjusted employment in area } l \text{ in period } t.
\]

Residence adjusted employment \((RAE)\) is calculated by scaling the non-military employment in the region by the share of residence adjustment relative to total labor and proprietor’s income \((YLET)\):

\[
RAE_i^l = (1 + (RAE_i^l / YLET_i^l)) \times (EMPT_i^l - EMP^FMI_i)
\]

\(MIGPROD_i^l\) = The consumption access index in area \(l\) in period \(t\).
\[ RWR_l^t = \left( \frac{CR_l^t}{CR_l^u} \right) \left( \frac{\frac{RYD}{YP}^l}{\frac{RYD}{YP}^u} \right) \] = The relative real compensation rate in area \( l \) in period \( t \). \hfill (3-3)

\[ CR_l^t = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{E_{i,l}^t}{TE_{i,l}}}{C_i} = \text{Local average compensation rate} \]

\[ CR_l^u = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{E_{i,l}^u}{TE_{i,l}}}{C_i} = (u) \text{average industry compensation weighted by the employment industry shares in } l. \]

\( \lambda_i \) = A fixed effect that captures the relative attractiveness of area \( l \).

\( \beta_1, \beta_2 = \text{Estimated coefficients.} \)

The total number of economic migrants is distributed to age, gender, and ethnicity cohorts based on a national distribution.

**Labor Force Equations**

\[ LF_k^t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} PR_i^k \times COH_i^k \] \hfill (3-4)

\[ PR_i^k = \beta_i \times \left( \frac{RE\lambda_i}{EA_i} \right)^{\beta_i} \times \left( \frac{RWR_i}{EA_i} \right)^{\beta_i} \times PR_i^u \] \hfill (3-5)

Where:

\( PR_i^k = \text{The participation rate (i.e. the proportion of the relevant population that is in the labor force).} \)

\( LF_k^t = \text{The labor force in area } k. \)

\( COH_i^k = \text{The number of people in cohort } i \text{ in area } k. \)

\( \beta_i = \text{The fixed effect for area } k. \)

\( \beta_2, \beta_3 = \text{The parameters estimated on the bases of pooled or national time series.} \)

\( RE\lambda_i = \frac{EA_i}{E_i} \)

\( EA_i = EA_{i-1} + \lambda_x \left( EO_i - EA_{i-1} \right) \)

\( EA_i = EA_{i-1} + \lambda_x \left( EO_i - EA_{i-1} \right) \)
A synthetic labor force based on the local population at fixed national participation rates.

The Residence Adjusted Employment.

The relative real compensation rate.

An estimated parameter $0 < \lambda_k < 1$.

The $\beta$ and $\lambda_k$ values by age cohorts, gender, and racial/ethnic groups have been estimated for 160 (20x2x4) age cohorts in the U.S. The $\beta_i$ parameter is a fixed effect for area $k$ calibrated to the measured labor force (see Treyz, Christopher, and Lou, 1996). For other countries, these estimates will be modified using an iterative process to minimize the squared error of fit for labor force participation rates in the country for which a REMI model is being constructed.

**Block 4 – Compensation, Prices and Costs**

**Production Costs**

$$\Omega^k_i = \left[ \left( \frac{CAD_{i,j}^k}{CR_i^u} \right)^{\gamma_{ij}} \prod_{j=2}^{6} \left( \frac{FC_j^k}{FC_j^u} \right)^{\gamma_{ij}} \right] \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j^{\mu} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j' \right) \left( \frac{CIFP_i^k}{CIFP_i^T} \right) * LAMOMG_{i,T}$$

Where;

$\Omega^k_i$ = The composite cost of production. (This is a composite cost because it incorporates productivity change due to access to material inputs).

$CAD_{i,j}^k = \frac{CR^k}{\left(FL_i^k + FL_{i,T}^k\right)Flmult_{i,j}}$ = The productivity adjusted compensation rate in area $k$.

$CR_i^k$ = The compensation rate in $k$.

$FL_i^k$ = The labor productivity in $k$ in period $t$ divided by $FL_{i,T}^k$.

$FC_j^k$ = $j = 2$, the price of structures; $j = 3$, the rental price of equipment; $j = 4, 5, 6$, the price of electricity, natural gas, and residual fuel, respectively.

$b_{i,j} = $ Contribution to value added of factor $j$, industry $i$ as a proportion of all factor inputs.

$CAD_i^u$ = The productivity-adjusted compensation rate in the nation ($u$).

$a_{i,j} = $ The proportion of input $j$ in all the intermediate inputs modified by changes in the industry access effect of material input productivity (see equation 1-3).
\( Flmult^e \) = An adjustment to reconcile the aggregated data to the primary source data.

\( LAMOMG^e \) = An adjustment for aggregation and normalization in the last history year \((T)\).

\( \sum a^{u}_{j,t} \) = The proportion of all factor inputs in the total inputs into production.

\[
CP^k_{t,j} = CP^k_{t,j} \times \frac{CIFP^k_{i,j,d} \times \frac{1}{MCPRODA_{i,d}}}{CIFPA_{i,d}}
\]

\( CP^k_{t,j} \) = The composite input cost based on composite prices calculated in the database at the smallest geographic size available.

\( CIFP^k_{i,j,d} \) = The delivered average price. The local share of the price includes the composite price of production because it is based on the productivity of the inputs due to access to those inputs.

Delivered Prices

\[
CIFP^k_{i,j} = \left[ \prod_{j=1}^{m} \left( \frac{\Omega^j_{i,d} \times (ED^j_{i,d})}{\gamma_{i,j}} \right) \right] \times \frac{\gamma_{i,j}}{\gamma_{i,d-1}} \times CIFP^k_{i,j-1} \]

Where;

\( CIFP^k_{i,j} \) = The weighted average of the delivered prices of good \( i \) sold in \( k \) in time period \( t \).

\( \Omega^j_{i,d} \) = The cost of producing output in industry \( i \) sold in \( k \).

\( T^j_{i,k} \) = The trade flow for good \( i \) from \( j \) to \( k \).

\( ED^j_{i,k} \) = The “effective distance” from \( j \) to \( k \) for good \( i \).

\( \gamma_{i} \) = A parameter that is estimated based on observed actual transportation costs.

Cost of Equipment

\[
PEQP^l = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a^{u}_{i,Eqp} CP^l_{i}
\]

Where;

\( PEQP^l \) = The cost of producers’ durable equipment in \( l \).

\( a^{u}_{i,Eqp} \) = industry \( i \) input to the final demand for producers’ durable equipment.
\[ \text{rec}_{\text{equi}} = \left( \frac{CEQP^k}{CEQP^*} \right) PEQP^k \]  \hspace{1cm} (4-5)

\( CEQP \) = Implicit rental cost of equipment for each dollar of equipment.

\( \text{rec}_{\text{equi}} \) = Relative implicit rental capital cost of equipment at local purchase prices for equipment.

**Consumption Deflator**

For consumption category \( j \) in time \( t \) we assume Cobb-Douglas substitutability of the sectors that are inputs into this consumption commodity.

\[ CIFP_{ij}^l = CIFP_{ij}^u \times \prod_i CIFP_{PCE,ij}^{PCE,i,j} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4-6)

Where;

\( PCE_{i,j} \) = The proportion of commodity \( j \) obtained from industry \( i \).

\( CIFP_{ij}^t \) = The delivered (CIF) consumer price of consumption commodity \( j \) in time \( t \) in area \( l \).

\( CIFP_{P}^l \) = The average delivered (CIF) consumer price of consumption commodity \( j \) in time \( t \) in the nation or larger monetary areas.

\( CIFP_{i,j}^l \) = The delivered (CIF) price of industry \( i \) in region \( l \) in time \( t \).

**Consumer Price Index Based on Delivered Costs**

\[ CIFP_i^t = \left( \prod_j \left( \frac{CIFP_{ij}^t}{CIFP_{ij}^t_{ij-1}} \right)^{WC_{ij}} \right)^{WC_{ij}} \times CIFP_{ij-1} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4-7)

Where;

\( CIFP_i^t \) = The consumer price index in region \( l \).

\( WC_{ij} \) = The proportion of commodity \( j \) in time \( t \) in the total union of regions consumption.

\( CIFP_{ij}^t \) = The CIF consumer price of consumer commodity \( j \) in region \( l \).

**Consumer Price to be Used for Potential In or Out Migrants**

\( CIFPH_i^t \) = Equation (4-7) with the housing cost replaced by relative price of purchasing a house.

\( CIFP_{PH}^t = PH_i^t \)

Where;
$PH_i^t = \text{Relative housing price at time } t \text{ in area } l.$

$CIFP_i^t = \text{The cost of living in area } l \text{ when the relative price of buying a new house is used in the consumer price index for housing costs.}$

**Housing Price Equations**

The REMI housing price equation has two coefficients for all regions in the model: the estimated elasticity of response to a change in real disposable income and the estimated elasticity of response to a change in population. Both of these coefficients are currently based on state or metropolitan-level averages and used as standard default elasticity measurements evident in the Housing Price equation below.

$$PH_i^t = \left\{ \left( \varepsilon_1 \left( \frac{RYD_i^t \div RYD_{u-1}^{\mu}}{RYD_{i-1}^t \div RYD_{i-1}^{\mu}} - 1 \right) \right) + \varepsilon_2 \left( \frac{N_i^t \div N_{u-1}^{\mu}}{N_{i-1}^t \div N_{i-1}^{\mu}} - 1 \right) + 1 \right\} \ast PH_{t-1}$$

$PH = \text{Relative housing price.}$

$RYD = \text{Real disposable income.}$

$\varepsilon_1 = \text{the estimated (or user-entered) elasticity of response to a change in real disposable income.}$

$\varepsilon_2 = \text{the estimated (or user-entered) elasticity of response to a change in population.}$

$N = \text{Population.}$

$N^\mu = \text{Population in } u.$

The values of $\varepsilon_1$ and $\varepsilon_2$ are estimated for each state and metropolitan area through a regression analysis that compares the housing price changes to the number of houses using data from 1998 to 2004. The user may also enter alternative values.

The region-specific approach estimates price responses to changes in demand, which vary by state or metropolitan-level area. Changes in demand have been estimated using building permit and housing unit data from Freddie Mac, Conventional Mortgage Home Price Index, State Indices.

The region-specific approach scales the previously estimated national housing price response according to the proportion of the regions’ price response to the average U.S. price response. This may more accurately reflect the regions’ change in demand, and will therefore yield a more accurate forecast.

**The Compensation Equation**

The final form of the compensation rate (CR) equation for area $l$ is

$$CR_{l,t}^i = \left[ \left( 1 + \Delta CRD_{l,t}^i \right) \left( 1 + k_{l,t}^u \right) \right] \ast CR_{l,t-1}^i$$

(4-9)

Where;
\[ CR^i_{t,t} = \text{Compensation rate in industry } i \text{ in time } t. \]

\[ \Delta CRD^i_{t,t} = \text{The predicted change in the compensation rate in industry } i \text{ due to changes in demand and supply conditions in the labor market in area } l. \]

\[ k^u_i = \text{The change in the national compensation rate that cannot be explained by changes in the national (u) average compensation rate for all industries, which is due to change in demand and supply conditions and to industry mix changes in the nation.} \]

\[ \Delta CRD^l_{i,t} = \alpha_1 \left[ \left( \frac{E^l_{t} \div EA^l_{t}}{LF^l_{t}} - 1 \right) \right] + \alpha_2 \left[ \left( \frac{EO^l_{i,t}}{EOA^l_{i,t}} \right) - 1 \right] \] (4-10)

\[ LF^l_{t} = \text{The labor force.} \]

\[ LF^l_{A} = \text{A geometrically declining weighted average of the labor force.} \]

\[ LF^l_{A} = 0.2LF^l_{i} + 0.8LF^l_{i-1} \]

\[ \alpha_1 = \text{Estimated parameter using pooled time series data.} \]

\[ \alpha_2 = \text{Estimated parameter using pooled time series data.} \]

\[ E^l_{A} = 0.2E^l_{i-1} + 0.8E^l_{A_{i-1}} \]

\[ \frac{EO^l_{i,t}}{EOA^l_{i,t}} = \text{The demand relative to past demand for the occupations used by industry } i. \]

\[ d_{j,i} = \text{Occupation } j \text{'s proportion of industry } i. \]

After the \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) values are estimated using equation (4-11) over all regions \( l \), equation (4-12) can be used to predict \( \Delta CRD^u_{i,t} \).

\[ \Delta CRD^u_{i,t} = \alpha_1 \left[ \left( \frac{E^u_{i,t} \div EA^u_{i,t}}{LF^u_{i,t}} - 1 \right) \right] + \alpha_2 \left[ \left( \frac{EO^u_{i,t}}{EOA^u_{i,t}} \right) - 1 \right] \] (4-12)

Then, it is possible to predict the demand and supply effect on national (u) compensation and thus determine the national compensation change by industry.

Since
\[ CR_{i,t} = \left(1 + \Delta CRD_{i,t}\right) \ast CR_{i,t-1} \]  

(4-13)

The average compensation in year \( t \) in the nation \((u)\) area, taking into account the change in the mix of industries as well as demand and supply labor market conditions, can be calculated as follows:

\[ CRDM_{t} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} E_{i,t}^u \left(1 + \Delta CRD_{i,t}\right) \ast CR_{i,t-1} \]  

(4-14)

Where;

\[ CRDM_{t} = \text{The average compensation in the year} \ t \ \text{based on year} \ t \ \text{compensation mix changes, demand change for occupations, and demand vs. supply in the labor market.} \]

\[ E_{i,t}^u = \text{Employment in industry} \ i \ \text{in period} \ t \ \text{in the nation} \ (u) \ \text{area.} \]

\[ E_{i,t}^u = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_{i,t}^u \]

Then \( k_{t}^u \) is determined as:

\[
k_{t}^u = \left(\frac{\left(COMP_{t}^u / E_{t}^u\right) - CRDM_{t}^u}{\left(COMP_{t-1}^u / E_{t-1}^u\right)}\right) \times \frac{\left(\frac{\sum E_{i,t}^u \ast CR_{i,t}^u}{E_{t-1}^u}\right)}{\frac{\sum E_{i,t-1}^u \ast CR_{i,t-1}}{E_{t}^u} \right) \]  

(4-15)

Where;

\[ COMP_{t}^u = \text{Compensation in the nation} \ (u) \ \text{area in time period} \ t. \]

\[ k_{t}^u = \text{all national} \ (u) \ \text{compensation changes not represented by changes in industry mix and labor market demand and supply conditions, relative to the hypothetical average compensation in} \ t-1, \ \text{using the} \ u \ \text{compensation rate for each industry in year} \ t-1 \ \text{and the current year’s industry mix. This value,} \ k, \ \text{is then used in equation (4-9) to align the weighted average of the compensation changes over all of the component regions within the} \ u \ \text{area. Thus, the local areas will then reflect determinants of compensation changes, such as changes in labor market legislation, increased union militancy, cost of living adjustments, etc., at the} \ u \ \text{level, which are not due to labor force supply and demand changes or industry shifts.} \]

The Wage and Salary Disbursements Equation

The wage equation follows the same form as the compensation equation, but the \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) parameters have been estimated separately so have different values.

The Earnings by Place of Work Equation
The earnings equation follows the same form as the compensation equation, but the $\alpha_i$ and $\alpha_z$ parameters have been estimated separately so have different values.

**Block 5 - Market Shares**

\[
\begin{align*}
S_{i,t}^{k,l} &= \frac{DQ_{i,t}^{j} \left( \frac{\Omega A_{i,t}^{k}}{\Omega A_{i,T}^{k}} \right)^{1-\sigma_i} \left( \text{IMIX}^{k}_{i,j} \right)^{\lambda_i} \left( ED_{i}^{k,j} \right)^{-\beta_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{m} DQ_{i,t}^{j} \left( \frac{\Omega A_{i,t}^{j}}{\Omega A_{i,T}^{j}} \right)^{1-\sigma_i} \left( \text{IMIX}^{j}_{i,j} \right)^{\lambda_i} \left( ED_{i}^{j,i} \right)^{-\beta_j}} 
\end{align*}
\]  

(5-1)

$s_{i,t}^{k,l}$ = The share of the domestic demand in area $l$ supplied by area $k$, for industry $i$ in time period $t$.

$DQ_{i,t}^{j} = $ Domestic output in the last history year.

$T$ = As a subscript, indicates the last history year.

$\Omega A_{i,t}^{k}$ = The cost of production in $k$ in the last history year.

$\Omega A_{i,T}^{j}$ = The moving average of the cost of production in $k$.

$ED = $ An effective distance equivalent to calibrate the model to detailed balanced trade flows at a low geographic level.

$\beta_i = $ The distance decay parameter in a gravity model.

$\sigma_i = $ The estimated price elasticity.

$\lambda_i = $ A parameter between $0 < \lambda_i < 1$, as estimated econometrically, that shows the effect of the detailed (3-digit SIC) mix on the change in $k$’s share of the market due to differential growth rates predicted in $u$ for the detailed industry and the difference in $k$’s participation in these industries relative to $u$ (see IMIX below).

For $l = 1,..,m$ and $n$ is the number of sub-national regions in the model. The value for $\sigma_i$ is calculated by isolating movements along the demand curve. The movement along the curve yields an elasticity of substitution ($\sigma_i$) estimate. These estimates are obtained from a pooled non-linear search over all regions. The $\beta_i$ value is found using a dynamic search for the distance decay parameter in a gravity model for each industry.
\[ IMIX^k_{t,i} = \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^{\Omega} \left( \frac{Q^u_{ij}}{Q^u_{ij-1}} \right)^{\omega W_{ij-1}} \right\} IMIX_{t,i-1} \]  

\[ w_{t,i}^k = \left( \frac{Q^k_{t,i-1}}{\sum Q^k_{t,i-1}} \right) \quad w_{t,i}^u = \left( \frac{Q^u_{t,i-1}}{\sum Q^u_{t,i-1}} \right) \]

\[ IMIX_{t,i} = 1 \]

\[ IMIX = \text{A variable using local shares at a detailed level in the numerator applied to } u \text{ growth rates, and shares in the denominator applied to the same rates. Equals 1 if no detailed industry or forecasts are available.} \]

\[ sx_{t,i}^{k,row} = \frac{X_{t,i}^{k,row}}{X_{t,i}^{u,row}} \ast \left( \frac{\Omega A_{i,j}}{\Omega A_{i,T}} \right)^{1-\sigma_i} \]  

Where;

\[ sx_{t,i}^{k,row} = \text{Area } k \text{’s share of national exports to the rest of the world } (\text{row}). \]

\[ X_{t,i}^{k,row} = \text{Area } k \text{’s exports to the rest of the world in the last history year } (T). \]

\[ X_{t,i}^{u,row} = \text{The united areas’ } (u) \text{ exports to the rest of the world in the last history year } (T). \]

\[ \Omega A_{i,j} = \text{A moving average (with geometrically declining weights) of the relative cost of production in time period } t \text{ (if the last history year of the series).} \]

\[ Q_i = \text{Output of industry } i. \]

\[ sd_{t,i}^k = 1 - \left( \frac{M_{t,i}^{k,row} \ast M_{t,i}^{u,row}}{D_i^I \ast \Omega A_{i,i}^k \ast D_i^I \ast \Omega A_{i,i}^k} \right) \]  

Where;

\[ sd_{i,t}^l = \text{The share of area } l \text{’s demand for good } i \text{ that is supplied from within the nation } (u). \]

\[ M_{t,i}^{k,row} = \text{area } k \text{’s imports from the rest of the world in the last history year } (T). \]

\[ M_{t,i}^{u,row} = \text{imports of } i \text{ into the nation } (u) \text{ in the last history year } (T). \]

For further information about the incorporation of the new economic geography as shown in this section and in section 4 above, please see Fan, Treyz, and Treyz, 2000.
List of References


