

Eurostat regional yearbook 2009



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Preface

Dear Readers,

Five years ago, 2004, was a momentous year, with 10 new Member States joining the European Union on 1 May. This *Eurostat regional yearbook 2009* is eloquent testimony to the economic and social progress made by these regions since then and highlights those areas where redoubled efforts will be needed to reach our goal of greater cohesion.

The 11 chapters of this yearbook investigate interesting aspects of regional differences and similarities in the 27 Member States and in the candidate and EFTA countries. The aim is to encourage readers to track down the regional data available on the Eurostat website and make their own analyses of economic and social developments.

In addition to the fascinating standard chapters on regional population developments, the regional labour market, regional GDP, etc., this year's edition features a new contribution on the regional development of information society data. As in recent years, the description of regional developments is rounded off by a contribution on the latest findings of the Urban Audit, a data collection containing a multitude of statistical data on European towns and cities.

We are constantly updating the range of regional indicators available and hope to include them as topics in future editions, provided the availability and quality of these data are sufficient.

I wish you an enjoyable reading experience!



Walter Radermacher
Director-General, Eurostat



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Introduction





Statistics on regions and cities

Statistical information is essential for understanding our complex and rapidly changing world. Eurostat, the Statistical Office of the European Communities, is responsible for collecting and disseminating data at European level, not only from the 27 Member States of the European Union, but also from the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey) and the four EFTA countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland).

The aim of this publication, the *Eurostat regional yearbook 2009*, is to give you a flavour of some of the statistics on regions and cities that we collect from these countries. Statistics on regions enable us to identify more detailed statistical patterns and trends than national data, but since we have 271 NUTS 2 regions in the EU-27, 30 statistical regions on level 2 in the candidate countries and 16 statistical regions on level 2 in the EFTA countries, the volume of data is so great that one clearly needs some sorting principles to make it understandable and meaningful.

Statistical maps are probably the easiest way for the human mind to sort and 'absorb' large amounts of statistical data at one time. Hence this year's *Eurostat regional yearbook*, as in previous editions, contains a lot of statistical maps where the data is sorted by different statistical classes represented by colour shades on the maps. Some chapters also make use of graphs and tables to present the statistical data, selected and sorted in some way (different top lists, graphs with regional extreme values within the countries or only giving representative examples) to make it easier to understand.

We are proud to present a great variety of subjects tackled in the 11 chapters in this year's edition of the *Eurostat regional yearbook*. The first chapter on **Population** gives us detailed knowledge of different demographic patterns, such as population density, population change and fertility rates in the countries examined. This chapter can be considered the key to all other chapters, since all other statistics depend on the composition of the population. The second chapter focuses on **European cities** and explains in detail the definitions of the various spatial levels used in the Urban Audit data collection, with some interesting examples on how people travel to work in nine European capitals.

The chapter on the **Labour market** mainly describes the differences in weekly working hours

throughout Europe and offers a couple of explanations for why they vary so much from region to region. The three economic chapters on **Gross domestic product**, **Household accounts** and **Structural business statistics** all give us detailed insight into the general economic situation in regions, private households and different sectors of the business economy.

We are particularly proud to present a new and very interesting chapter on the **Information society**, which describes the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) among private persons and households in European regions. This chapter tells us, for example, how many households use the Internet regularly and how many have broadband access. The next two chapters are on **Science, technology and innovation** and **Education**, three areas of statistics that are often seen as key to monitoring achievement of the goals set in the Lisbon strategy to make Europe the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world.

In the next chapter we learn more about regional statistics on **Tourism**, and which tourist destinations are the most popular. The last chapter focuses on **Agriculture**, this time mainly crop statistics, revealing which kind of crop is grown where in Europe.

The NUTS classification

The nomenclature of territorial units for statistics (NUTS) provides a single uniform breakdown of territorial units for the production of regional statistics for the European Union. The NUTS classification has been used for regional statistics for many decades, and has always formed the basis for regional funding policy. It was only in 2003, though, that NUTS acquired a legal basis, when the NUTS regulation was adopted by the Parliament and the Council ⁽¹⁾.

Whenever new Member States join the EU, the NUTS regulation is amended to include the regional classification in those countries. This was the case in 2004, when the EU took in 10 new Member States, and in 2007 when Bulgaria and Romania also joined the European Union.

The NUTS regulation states that amendments of the regional classification, to take account of new administrative divisions or boundary changes in the Member States, may not be carried out more frequently than every three years. In 2006, this review took place for the first time, and the re-

⁽¹⁾ More information on the NUTS classification can be found at http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/ramon/nuts/splash_regions.html



sults of these changes to the NUTS classification have been valid since 1 January 2008.

Since these NUTS changes were introduced quite recently, the statistical data are still missing in some cases or have been replaced with national values on some statistical maps, as indicated in the footnotes to each map concerned. This applies in particular to Sweden, which introduced NUTS level 1 regions, to Denmark and Slovenia, which introduced new NUTS level 2 regions, and to the two northernmost Scottish regions, North Eastern Scotland (UKM5) and Highlands and Islands (UKM6), where the border between the two regions has changed. The regional data availability for these countries will hopefully soon be improved.

Please also note that some Member States have a relatively small population and are therefore not divided into more than one NUTS 2 region. Thus, for these countries the NUTS 2 value is exactly the same as the national value. Following the latest revision of the NUTS classification, this now applies to six Member States (Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Malta), one candidate country (the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) and two EFTA countries (Iceland and Liechtenstein). In all cases the whole country consists of one single NUTS 2 region.

A folding map on the inside of the cover accompanies this publication and it shows all NUTS level 2 regions in the 27 Member States of the European Union (EU-27) and the corresponding level 2 statistical regions in the candidate and EFTA countries. In the annex you will find the full list of codes and names of these regions. This will help you locate a specific region on the map.

Coverage

The *Eurostat regional yearbook 2009* mainly contains statistics on the 27 Member States of the European Union but, when available, data is also

given on the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey) and the four EFTA countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland).

Regions in the candidate countries and the EFTA countries are called statistical regions and they follow the same rules as the NUTS regions in the European Union, except that there is no legal base. Data from the candidate and EFTA countries are not yet available in the Eurostat database for some of the policy areas, but the availability of data is constantly improving, and we hope to have even more complete coverage from these countries in the near future.

More regional information

In the subject area 'Regions and cities' under the heading 'General and regional statistics' on the Eurostat website you will find tables with statistics on both 'Regions' and the 'Urban Audit', with more detailed time series (some of them going back as far as 1970) and with more detailed statistics than this yearbook contains. You will also find a number of indicators at NUTS level 3 (such as area, demography, gross domestic product and labour market data). This is important since some of the countries covered are not divided into NUTS 2 regions, as mentioned above.

For more detailed information on the content of the regional and urban databases, please consult the Eurostat publication *European regional and urban statistics — Reference guide — 2009 edition*, which you can download free of charge from the Eurostat website. You can also download Excel tables containing the specific data used to produce the maps and other illustrations for each chapter in this publication on the Eurostat website. We do hope you will find this publication both interesting and useful and we welcome your feedback at the following e-mail address: estat-regio@ec.europa.eu

European cities

2





Introduction

Data on European cities were collected in the Urban Audit project. The project's ultimate goal is to help improve the quality of urban life: it supports the exchange of experience among European cities; it helps to identify best practices; it facilitates benchmarking at European level; and it provides information on the dynamics both within the cities and with their surroundings.

The Urban Audit has become a core task of Eurostat. Even so, the project would not have been possible without sustained help and support from a wide range of colleagues. In particular, we would like to acknowledge the effort made by the cities themselves, the national statistical institutes and the Directorate-General for Regional Policy of the European Commission.

The Urban Audit celebrates its 10th anniversary this year. The 'Urban Audit pilot project' was the first attempt to collect comparable indicators on European cities, and was first conducted by the Commission in June 1999. The past 10 years have brought many changes, and we have constantly made efforts to improve the quality of the data — including coverage, comparability and relevance. So, where are we now? The list of indicators has been enhanced to take account of new policy needs; the periodicity has been reduced to satisfy users; and geographical coverage has been extended following successive rounds of EU enlargement.

Enhanced list of indicators

There have been three major revisions of the list so far. Policy relevance, data availability and experience with previous collections have been reviewed to produce the current list of more than 300 indicators. These indicators cover several aspects of quality of life, such as demography, housing, health, crime, labour market, income disparity, local administration, educational qualifications, the environment, climate, travel patterns, the information society and cultural infrastructure. They are derived from the variables collected by the European Statistical System. Data availability differs from domain to domain: in the domain of demography, for example, data are available for more than 90 % of the cities, whereas for the environment data are available for less than half of the cities. In 2009 we will introduce new indicators to symbolise the relationship between the city and its hinterland.

Moving from five-year periodicity to annual data collection

Four reference years have been defined so far for the Urban Audit: 1991, 1996, 2001 and 2004. For the years 1991 and 1996, data were collected retrospectively only for a reduced number of 80 variables. Where data for these years were not available, data from adjacent years were also accepted. In 2009 Eurostat launched an annual Urban Audit, requesting data for a limited number of variables. The annual data will help users to monitor certain urban developments more closely.

Extended geographical coverage

The pilot study in 1999 covered 58 cities from 15 countries. Since then the number of participating countries has doubled and the number of cities has grown sixfold. At present the Urban Audit covers 362 cities from 31 countries — including the EU-27, Croatia, Turkey, Norway and Switzerland. The 321 Urban Audit cities in the EU-27 have more than 120 million inhabitants, covering approximately 25 % of the total population. This extended sample ensures that the results give a reliable portrait of urban Europe.

The number of cities was limited and the ones selected should reflect the geographical cross-section of each country. Consequently, in a few countries some large cities (over 100 000 inhabitants) were not included. To complement the Urban Audit data collection in this respect, the Large City Audit was launched. The Large City Audit includes all 'non-Urban Audit cities' with more than 100 000 inhabitants in the EU-27. For these cities a reduced set of 50 variables is collected.

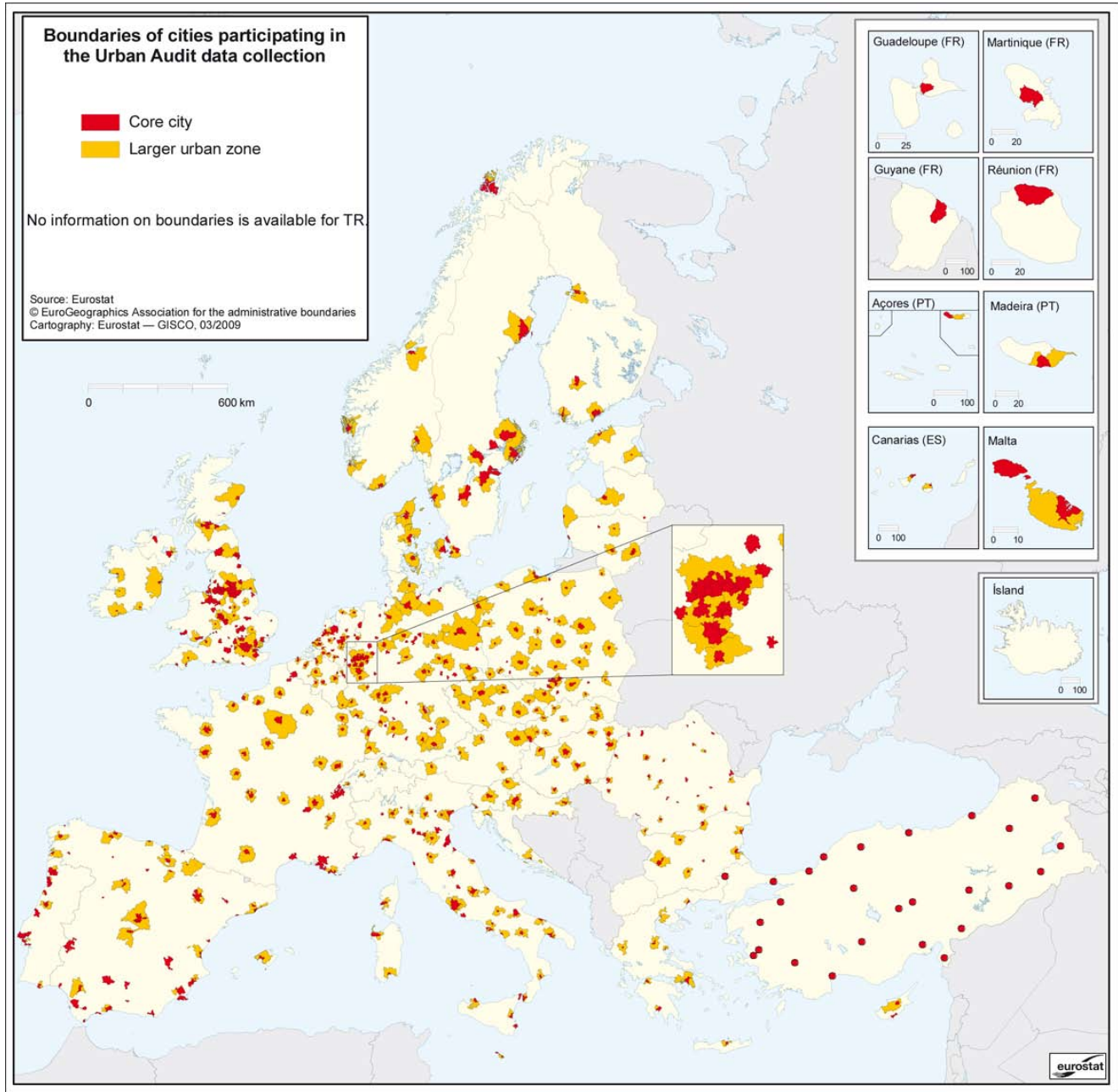
We invite all readers to explore the wealth of information gathered in the past 10 years by browsing the Urban Audit data on Eurostat's website.

Discovering the spatial dimension

Cities are usually displayed as distinct unconnected dots on a map. This visualisation method increases visibility but it misrepresents reality and distorts the understanding of linkages between a city and its hinterland and the understanding of linkages between cities. Cities can no longer be treated as discrete unrelated entities without a spatial dimension. The recent developments in transport, communication and information technology infrastructure ease the flow of people and resources from one area to another considerably. Urban-rural connectivity



Map 2.1: Boundaries of cities participating in the Urban Audit data collection





(²) A detailed description of the CLC2000 project and the UMZ creation is available on the website of the European Environment Agency (<http://www.eea.europa.eu>).

and inter-urban relations have become critical for balanced regional development.

To facilitate the analysis of the interaction between the city and its surroundings for each participating city, different spatial levels were defined. Most of the data are collected at core city level, i.e. the city as defined by its administrative/political boundaries. In addition, a level called the larger urban zone was described. The larger urban zone is an approximation of the functional urban area extending beyond the core city.

Map 2.1 illustrates the cities participating in the Urban Audit data collection, showing the boundaries of core cities and larger urban zones. Not surprisingly, the largest cities in Europe in terms of population — London, Paris, Berlin and Madrid — tend to have the greatest larger urban zones in terms of area, and are readily identifiable on the map. In most cases the larger urban zone includes only one core city. However, there are exceptions, such as the German Ruhr area, which includes several core cities (see inset in Map 2.1). The demarcation of core cities is illustrated in detail in Map 2.2 while the larger urban zones are shown in Map 2.3. The spatial data used to produce most of the maps presented in this chapter are available from the Geographic Information System of the European Commission (GISCO) — a permanent service of Eurostat (for more information, visit Eurostat's website).

Core cities

Throughout Europe's history — in ancient Greece, in ancient Rome and in the Middle Ages — a city was as much a political entity as a collection of buildings. This collection of buildings was usually surrounded by fortified walls. As the city grew the walls were expanded. In the modern era the significance of the city walls as part of the defence system declined and most of them were demolished. The boundary of the city as a political entity and the boundary of the built-up area were no longer linked and the location of these boundaries is no longer evident. Nowadays, a city could be designated as an urban settlement or as a legal, administrative entity. The Urban Audit uses this later concept and demarcates the core city by political boundaries. This ensures that data are directly relevant to policymakers.

Map 2.2 illustrates the difference between the two concepts using the examples of Hamburg (Germany) and Lyon (France). Maps in the top row show the land cover based on Corine land cover 2000 (CLC2000) in the area surrounding

the cities. Different land covers were grouped into 44 classes in the CLC2000 (²). Each colour on the map represents a different land cover class. Some of these classes are particularly important for our analysis of cities. Red areas, for instance, are territories covered with urban fabric: roads, residential buildings, buildings belonging to the local administration or to public services, etc. Purple areas are used for commercial or industrial purposes. Light purple represents green urban areas like parks, botanical gardens, etc. The areas of these three land cover classes lying less than 200 m apart were merged together to define 'built-up' area. Port areas, airports and sport facilities were included if they were neighbours of the previously defined 'built-up' area.

As a next step, road and rail networks and water courses were added if they were within 300 m of the area defined beforehand. The area identified by this procedure is called the 'urban morphological zone' (UMZ). The urban morphological zones of Hamburg and Lyon are shown in the middle row of Map 2.2. These maps also make it possible to compare the UMZ and core city in terms of area. In Hamburg 82 %, and in Lyon 73 %, of the area of the UMZ lies within the boundaries of the core city. In terms of population the intersections are even greater: 90 % of the population of the core city of Hamburg lives in the UMZ, and in Lyon the respective figure is 98 %. As we expected, the two areas are not identical but they overlap each other to a large extent, thus ensuring that the data collected at core city level are relevant and meaningful for the morphological city as well.

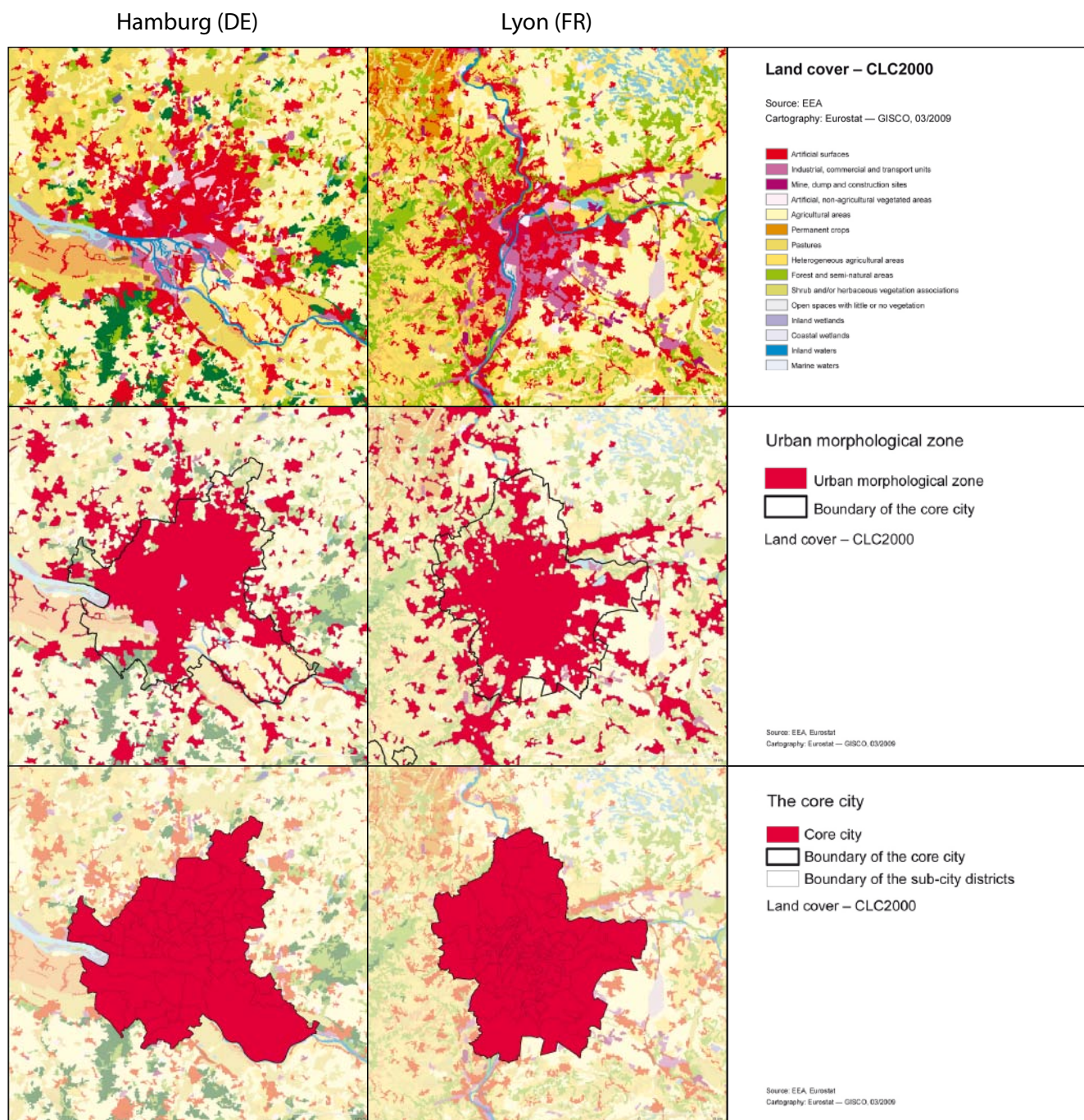
To measure spatial inequalities within the city, the area of the core city was divided into sub-city districts. Sub-city districts were defined in such a way as to keep to the population thresholds set — minimum 5 000 and maximum 40 000 inhabitants — as far as possible. The bottom row of Map 2.2 illustrates the sub-city districts of Hamburg and Lyon. Key demographic and social indicators are available in the Urban Audit database for the more than 6 000 sub-city districts.

Larger urban zones

City walls, even if they are preserved, no longer function as barriers between the people living inside and outside of the city. Students, workers and persons looking for healthcare or for cultural facilities regularly commute between the city and the surrounding area. Economic activity, transport flows and air pollution clearly cross the administrative boundaries of a city as well. Consequently, collecting data exclusively at core city level is

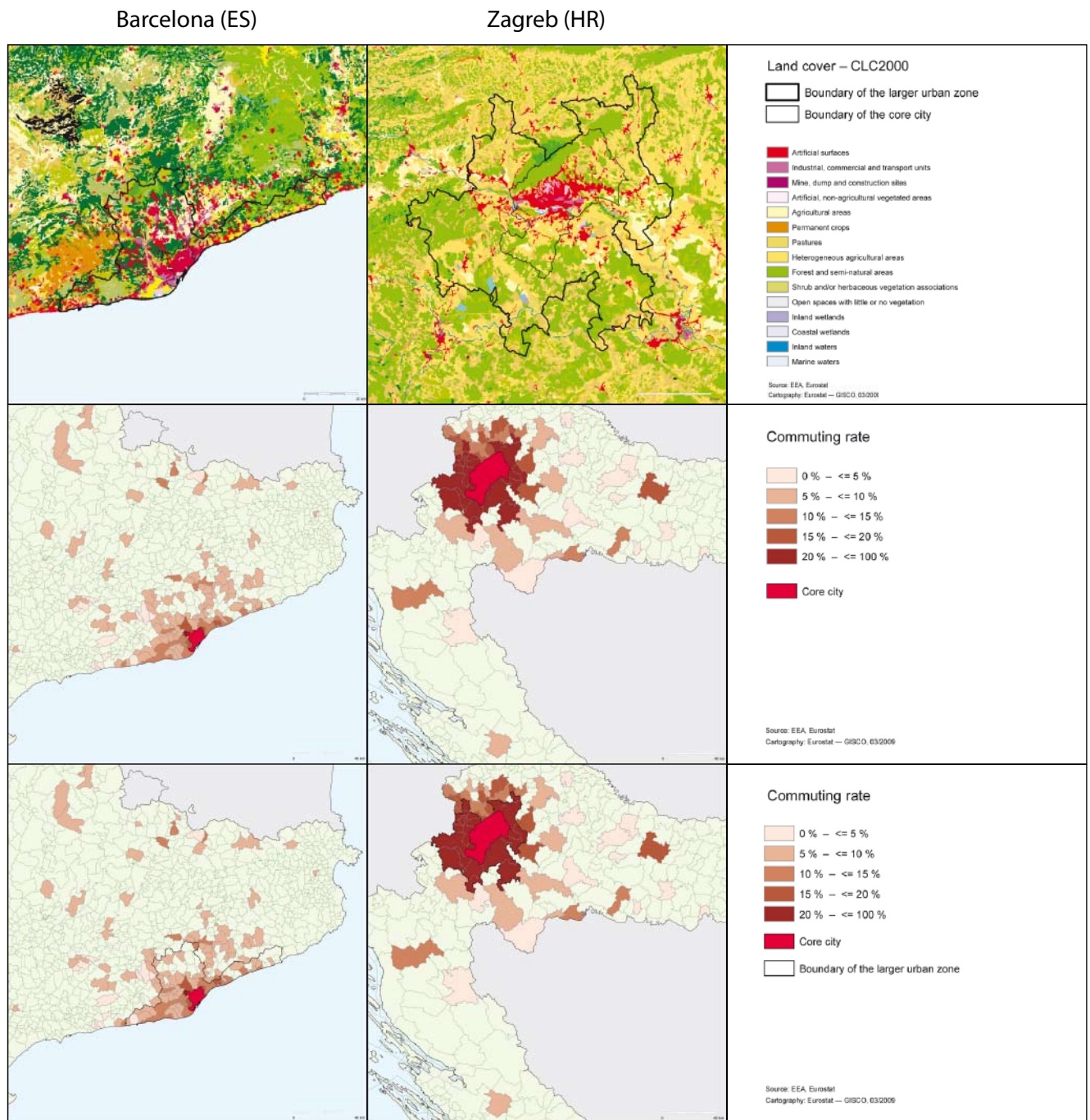


Map 2.2: Defining the boundaries of the core city — Hamburg (DE) and Lyon (FR)





Map 2.3: Defining the boundaries of the larger urban zone — Barcelona (ES) and Zagreb (HR)





insufficient. It is commonly agreed that we have to widen our territorial perspective. However, the way to measure how far the functional influences of a city go beyond its immediate boundaries varies.

Map 2.3 uses the examples of Barcelona (Spain) and Zagreb (Croatia) to illustrate how the functional urban area was demarcated in the Urban Audit. Maps in the top row are similar to the top row of Map 2.2 portraying the land cover of the selected area. The larger urban zone around the core city tends to be more 'green', both on the map and also in real terms. Areas covered with forests and shrubs are coloured green on the map. Yellow and orange indicate areas in agricultural use, such as arable land and fruit trees. As a first step to demarcate the larger urban zones, we looked at the number of people commuting from municipalities to the core city. The middle row of

Map 2.3 displays the different commuting rates. A commuting rate of 10 % means that one in 10 residents living in the municipality commutes to work to the core city. As we can see on the map, large cities like Barcelona and Zagreb attract people living up to 100 kilometres away to work in the city. As a second step, a threshold was set for looking at the commuting pattern. Municipalities above this threshold were to be included but ones below not. Given the different national and regional characteristics, different thresholds were used within the range of 10–20 %. Finally, the list of municipalities to be included in the larger urban zone was revised to ensure spatial contiguity and data availability. By definition the larger urban zone always includes the entire core city. The boundaries of the larger urban zone of Barcelona and Zagreb are displayed in the bottom row.

Figures 2.1 and 2.2: Comparison of core city, kernel and larger urban zone in terms of population and area in European capitals, 2004



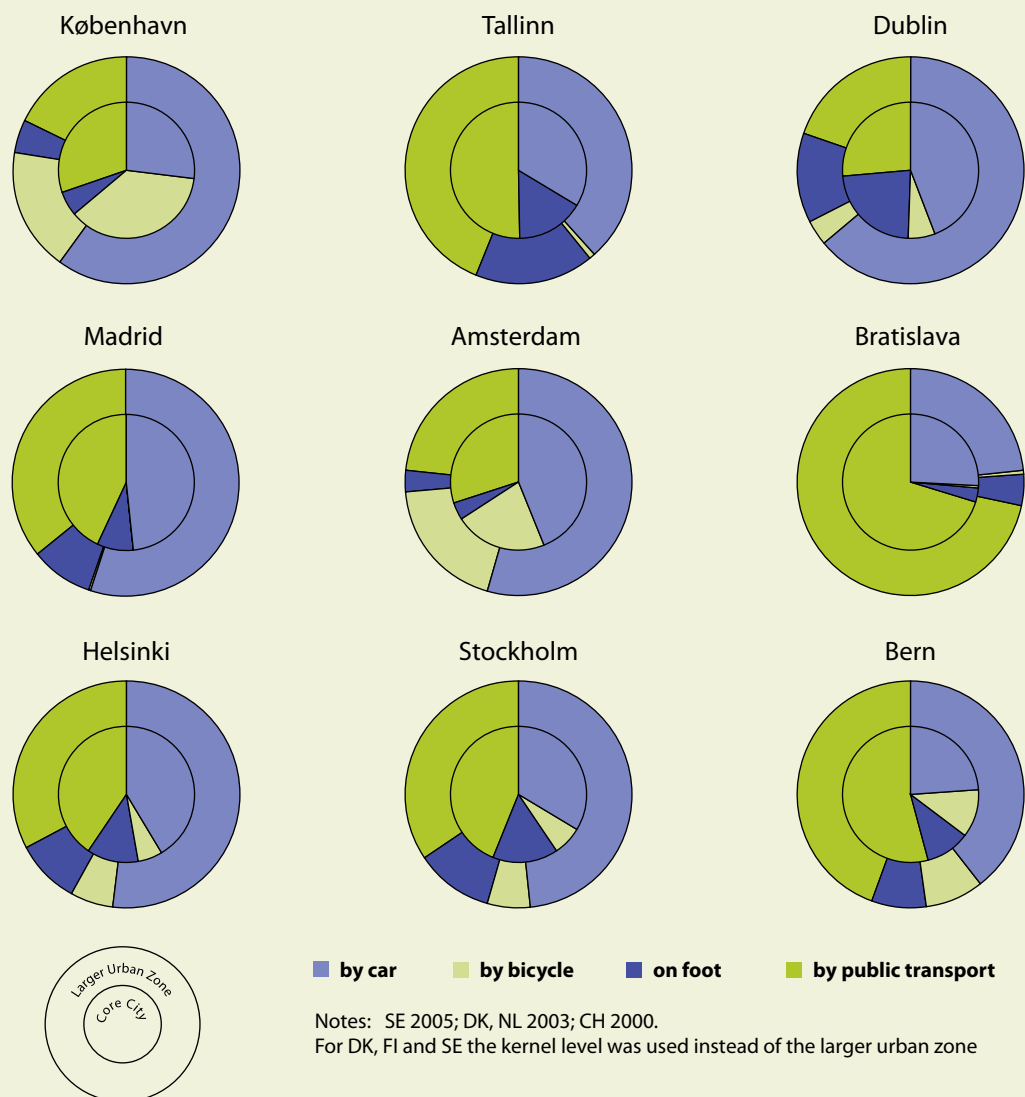
Notes: HU 2005; FI 2003; HR 2001



This demarcation process was used in most participating countries, but there were also exceptions and departures from this which limit the overall comparability of the larger urban zones to some extent. That said, demarcating a perfect functional urban area — based on a perfectly harmonised methodology across Europe for which no statistical information is available — would be completely in vain. Figures 2.1 and 2.2 compare the different spatial levels used for European capitals in terms of population and area. In Bucuresti (Romania) more than 80 % of the larger urban zone population lives within the core city. At the other extreme, in Luxembourg (Luxembourg) less than 20 % of the larger urban zone population lives within the core city. This low

percentage suggests that the core city of Luxembourg is slightly under-bounded — meaning that a considerable share of the urban population lives outside the administrative city limits. For very under-bounded capitals — like Paris (France) or Lisboa (Portugal) — an additional spatial level, the ‘kernel’, was introduced. The kernel is an approximation of the built-up area around the core city. The only exception is London (United Kingdom), where the kernel was defined to match the core city of Paris in terms of population to make for easier comparison between the two largest cities in Europe. In terms of area, the picture is more uniform, as for the majority of capitals the core city makes up less than 20 % of the area of the larger urban zone.

Figure 2.3: Proportion of journeys to work in European capitals, 2004





So far we have seen that larger urban zones tend to have a lower population density and a higher percentage of green areas than core cities. Using the indicators calculated in the Urban Audit we can analyse the demographic, economic, environmental, social and cultural characteristics (similarities and differences) of the two spatial levels. To illustrate this, Figure 2.3 compares the travel to work patterns in selected capitals at different levels. The inner circle of the pie charts shows the modal split in the core city. In the core city of København (Denmark), for example, the majority of people ride their bikes to work, 30 % of them use public transport and 25 % travel by car. The outer circle shows the share of transport modes in the larger urban zone. As expected, the proportion of journeys to work by car is consistently higher in the larger urban zone than in the core city, with the exception of Bratislava.

Where do families settle? Where do companies locate? Where do tourists stay? In the core city or in the area of the larger urban zone outside of the core city? We encourage readers to probe deeper into the Urban Audit database and to explore the indicators depicting the spatial dimension.

Geography matters

The book entitled *The Spatial Economy* ⁽³⁾, co-authored by Paul Krugman, winner of the 2008 Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences, states: 'Agglomeration [...] occurs at many levels, from the local shopping districts that serve residential areas within cities to specialised economic regions like Silicon Valley or the City of London that serve the world market as a whole. [...] Yet although agglomeration is a clearly powerful force, it is not all-powerful: London is big, but most Britons live elsewhere, in a system of cities with widely varying sizes and roles. It should not, in other words, be hard to convince economists that economic geography [...] is both an interesting and important subject.' In this chapter we have focused on the various spatial levels used in the Urban Audit. These provide a platform for analysing the dramatically uneven distribution of population across the landscape and the agglomeration at district, at city and at regional level. Our intention was to convince readers that 'statistical geography' is both an interesting and an important subject.

⁽³⁾ Masahisa Fujita, Paul R. Krugman and Anthony Venables, *The spatial economy: Cities, regions and international trade*. MIT Press, 2001.