

Cities with Bounded Memory

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Empirical evidence suggests that the growth of urban systems is not only determined by local conditions, but also is constrained by regional status. We propose a out-of-equilibrium model of emerging cities within a given region, which explains the spatial transitions of development focus and urban shrinkage phenomenon in developed cities, while analytically keeping the classical results such as Clark’s law for urban population density, and Zipf’s law for cities’ rank size distributions. We show that classical properties are only valid for cities within developing areas, and various urban diseases are inevitable given the limited regional resources.

Urban growth dynamic has drawn dramatic attention in the past few decades. To systematically consider it needs suitable physical assumptions for reality, e.g., spatial homogeneity with local shifts of population[1], dual mechanisms in spatial attaching[2], or matching growth for individual[3], which are all set up to make urban phenomena explainable and predictable. Existing models have succeeded in explaining regional emerging mechanisms of cities[1] by reforming statistical laws and spatial patterns[4, 5]. The principles of such mechanisms lies in two parts, population settlement and economic growth, both of which changes spatially over time asynchronously. Traditional studies of spatial economics have attempted to construct this phenomenon under equilibrium models of regional urban systems[6]. These models base their idea on agglomeration economies to explain why urban features, including population, tend to gather. However, the dynamics of spatial shifts between urban equilibrium (say, poly-centric transitions of cities), is poorly interpreted throughout these models. First, urban structures are assumed to be homogeneous, i.e., different urban aspects evolves synchronizedly and identically. However, urban constructions are in favor of fashion industries at different time, which shows that cities are out-of-equilibrium systems with unsynchronized growth driven by the interplay between infrastructure and population. Second, these models mostly address city agglomeration’s benefits by links[7], standing for interaction between pairs of individuals. This brings difficulties in understanding the hierarchy and functional divisions that can be seen in nearly all cities[8]. Thus we shall address attractiveness through other entities, e.g., the amount of public services. Meanwhile, separating the growth dynamics of infrastructures and population has not been taken serious attention, though some work in complex networks has realized that preferential attachment has hysteresis effect in building contacts. Lastly, throughout the abundant data describing cities, existing models cannot make quantitative predictions with more information added. We present a stochastic growing model of urban systems, which relies on the assumption that agglomeration effects of infrastructures and population are separated. These principles leads to more realistic pre-

dictions such as urban core’s spatial shift over time and urban shrinkage, while keeping vital properties of urban systems.

With the evolution of modern urban systems, cities suffer new dilemmas mainly resulted from constraints of space and crowdedness[9–12]. These show that cities’ free growth at a microscopic scale may results in an unsatisfactory global state, since agglomeration effects[13] brings not only more innovations and productivity, but also congestion and friction. Such phenomena are hardly understood by existing models of cities, for preferential growth in all area leads to unbounded urban sizes, which is unrealistic for given social and natural conditions. To model cities with such concerns, we need to consider the individual sizes comparing with urban system. Thus we consider the *active* part of population, who contributes mainly to urban construction and leads the up-coming population increase. Meanwhile, such group also corresponds to the maximum of urban supplement, over which can be regarded as exceeding region’s economical or environmental limit. These people add up to the region’s *memory kernel*, serving as the constraint of the system’s preferential growth[14].

Following the discrimination of growing preferences of population and infrastructures, we omit certain details and focus on the basic growth process over long time period by building a minimal model that replicates the basic properties of urban systems. Elaborately, since urban dynamics exhibits strong spatial auto-correlations (a city share the limited part of regional resources), we set up a partly-pure birth spatial model to account for the unforeseen cases both qualitatively and quantitatively. The model we propose is thus the essence of city mass evolution and regional vicissitude. We focus on newly joint population’s attracting the force of infrastructure building, its impact on urban shrinkage in space and regional rank injection.

We first consider the process of urbanization on individual level. Throughout this model, we denote a meta-population, i.e., a person or a small group pf people, as a node, which is labeled with the unique city it belongs to. People either establish new cities, or join the existing cities. We assume that each of these process proceeds at a

constant rate, that is, the times of forming new cities per unit time is proportional to the existing cities, and the population of newly joint citizen of each cities is proportional to population. We denote the two relative speeds as β_1 and β_2 . These settings are parallel to U. Yule's original model[15][16]. These setting leads to exponential waiting times for a city or a citizen attracts a kin to the system, which also conform to urban systems under stable socio-economic conditions.

The spatial aspects come as follows. The considered area is a $L \times L$ continuous square space with grids. New cities emerge continuously and uniformly over the considered area, as a Poisson point process. An emergence is confirmed is its location belongs to some untaken grid. A grid is potentially occupied by the first node on it, i.e., if a new node lands on some grid, it survives if it belongs to the same city with the existing nodes on the grid. Or it vanishes immediately. In every emerged city, a newly joint node is *introduced* by an existing node, so that it is located at a distance of r near the existing one of some random direction θ . We take $r \lesssim 1$ to make sure that new comer is located at or at the neighbor of the introducer's block. In global perspective, cities growing process is like a diffusion process[17] with some seed points sprinkled on the area as grids are gradually divided into the regime of growing cities. We name this process as *Spatial Yule Process (SYM)*.

As we can see, blocks with more nodes have higher probability to introduce new people nearby. Such natural formation of urban systems resembles the population distribution in emergence of many regional systems with adjustable parameters. However, regional growth also face difficulties of economical bottlenecks and the need of balancing regional growths. In the meantime, the regional authority can only invest limited resource in infrastructure construction. These facts imply that we have to add a limit on growing process to reflect the truth. Thus we introduce a *memory kernel*. It can be interpreted by the following statement: New comers needs supply to settle, thus he carries a *coin* to get her settled. However, the total regional resource is limited that the amount of coins is limited, say N^* . So from the $N^* + 1$ person that settles in a city of this region, she carries a coin as a pre-comer loses hers. Thus when the regional fortune has all been shared, all money is only transferred to the new comers, to allow their essential needs of infrastructures.

We now discuss the variables β , defined as β_1/β_2 . The problem of determining the relative speed of city generation is very reminiscent of some problems encountered in gas physics. It is interesting to investigate the number of cities in a given regions of the same population. Some groups tend to form new cities to have sufficient infrastructures and less diversity of urban output ($\beta \gtrsim 1$) and some cities may go otherwise ($\beta \lesssim 1$). This value is actually a reflection of the intensity of regional industry. On the other hand, smaller β can be interpreted as smaller

studied area. Speaking of r , the metropolis areas over the world have very different densities. In SYM, it determines the sprawl of a city with given population. It can also be taken as the area proportion for a city in the studied region. On the other hand, it is also constraint of regional growth controlling the expected allowance of cities. We take $r = 1/2$ as default for simulations.

As for the size of the memory kernel, N^* , we realize that it is related to the authority's financial ability to support more incomer of the region. The competition of resource is neglectable if population is few. As it grows, cities can only supply those who are young and contributory for urban economics. In our framework, we choose the hard kernel with fix-sized memory kernel, so that the economic process can be captured by the partition of coins in different study areas, say, cities or blocks. More coins distributed in a city leads to more attraction to future residents, the case is the same for blocks. Limited resource leads to resource allocation and regional economy, which changes spatially over time.

In summary, our model is defined under three parameters, β , r , and N^* . In every exponential time (before the memory kernel is filled), an existing node introduces a new node located from (r, θ) of her. Meanwhile a new city is introduced by an existing city in another exponential time at somewhere empty. So that the urban system is growing acceleratingly at the first phase, during which every individual owns a coin with her. In the second phase, the memory kernel is full, i.e., the total population exceeds N^* , only those who own coins (summing up to N^*) can introduce new comers in the future. Existing ones will stop introducing sometime almost surely. We denote the population of a city i at time t as $N_i(t)$. The master equations for the first state when the memory kernel is underfull is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} N_i(t) = \delta_{N_i(t)} \cdot k\beta_1 + (1 - \delta_{N_i(t)}) \cdot N\beta_2,$$

while the master equations for the second phase goes to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial N_i(t)}{\partial t} = & (N^*\beta_2) \left[\frac{N_i(t)}{N^*} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{N_i(t)}{N^* - 1}\right) \right. \\ & \left. - \left(1 - \frac{N_i(t)}{N^*}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{N_i(t)}{N^* - 1}\right) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

And the direct corollary is that $P(N_i(\infty))$ will converge to 0 or 1 almost surely since the memory kernel is fulfilled.

Depending on the relative importance of city sprawl, emergence rate, and economic constraints, SYM predicts the existence of three phases: freely growth phase, economic constraint phase, and spatial constraint phase. We focus on the first two phases above, that correspond with cities' memory. From now on, we will assume that N^* and L are large enough so that the free growth phase exists for small population. In this phase, cities grow desolately, without being controlled by total resource and

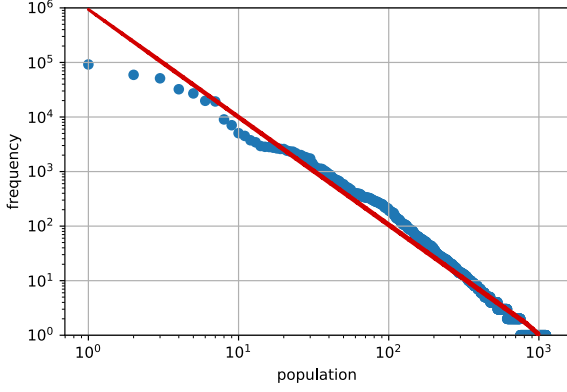


FIG. 1. The distribution of population among communities. In the simulation we take $N = 10^5$, $\beta_2 = 1$ and $\beta_1 = 2$. The theoretical prediction of the slope is -1.5 , and is well approximated by the simulated results. This result confirms that Zipf's law is valid for growing urban systems where all cities share the same rate to grow. From the other master equation we analyze that this observation vanishes if total growing force is limited.

space. We now describe two of the most important properties of this phase, stately (1) Zipf's law[4] for rank size distribution of cities' population, and (2) Clark's law for mono-centric cities' population density.

The populations of cities typically decay proportionally to the inverse of their ranks[4]. This is referred as Zipf's law of cities' population sizes, i.e., the populations of cities distribute as a power of ranks, $f_r(r) \sim r^{-(1+\beta)}$. Recall that the number of individuals in the system at time t , $N_i(t)$, has a geometric distribution[18], $P(N_i(t) = n) = e^{-\beta_1 t} (1 - \exp(-\beta_1 t))^{n-1}$, and the second assumption that the number of cities will grow exponentially at rate $k\beta_1$, if we pick a random city, the time since its first appearance will have an exponential distribution of β_1 . Thus the distribution of the population of a random city is

$$f(n) = \frac{\beta \Gamma(1 + \beta) \Gamma(n)}{\Gamma(n + 1 + \beta)} \approx C n^{-1-\beta}, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \quad (2)$$

where $\Gamma(\cdot)$ is the gamma function. Noticing that β can be anything positive in SYM, we can derive different scaling behaviors by switching β . According to some existing studies[1], the power law dependence of population frequency is 2.03 ± 0.05 for the world, indicating the average relative emerging rate of cities is around 1.03. The experiments have confirmed our analytic results for the first phase in SYM. A simulated validation for this result can be reflected in Pic1.

Inner-city density evolves as a two-dimensional diffusion process[19], where we can focus the density's growth on each axis from the oldest node of the city. Denote $\rho(d)$ as node density of places of the distance d from a city's

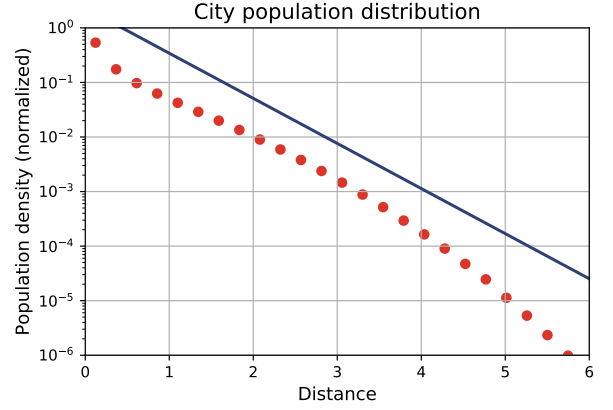


FIG. 2. The population distribution as a function of distance from a district's center. The vertical axis is logarithmic processed, which represents the exponential decaying of population distribution. Regardless of the finite-sample effect, we fit the middle part of population density's spatial distribution to the exponential distribution with a slope of -0.95 , which approximately equals to $1 - 1/\beta$. This fit has a confidential measurement of $R^2 = 0.99$.

center, and t_n as the time for the n 'th node to generate, we have

$$\rho_{t_{n+1}}(d) = (\rho_{t_n}(d - r) + \rho_{t_n}(d + r))/2. \quad (3)$$

By re-scaling time as $\tau_n = t_n \cdot (k\beta_1 + N\beta_2)/T$, for a sufficient large T , this equations3 results in a exponential decay of density

$$\rho(d) \sim e^{-\alpha d}. \quad (4)$$

This is a reinvention of Clark's law in empirical urban studies[5]. Beyond solitary growth, we analyze the competitiveness of land for different cities. The population within an edging block of city j is estimated by $e^{(T-T_j) \int_d^{d+1} \rho(r) dr / (2\pi d)}$, where T_j is the emerging time of city j . We also have the waiting time $T_{n+1} - T_n \sim 1/n$, and the total population approximation $e^{\beta_1 + \beta_2}$, combining which we derive the population of edging blocks if time and the urban radius are given. Since the attractiveness of large urban center is larger, the edging population of large cities is actually smaller than minor cities. We validate our prediction with simulations in Pic.2

The multi-dimensional coincidence between the exponents derived in our model and the universal exponents in empirical data of population distribution indicates that only two observation scales lead to the global behaviors of regional dynamics. Meaning that the actual urban growth has not yet reached the constrained cases but preventive measures are still necessary. Thus we bring a general constraining parameter N^* to further discuss the second phase of SYM, the resource constrained phase, i.e., the total population reaches N^* , the size of memory kernel. Such setting is the abstract of many real-life rules

set by global organizations such as the allowance of carbon emissions or sustainable development projects. Each city i has a proportion of population that are labeled as *memorized*, where $\sum_{i=1} m_i(t) = N^*$ for all sufficiently large t . If in some period of time, the minor cities generate more offspring than major ones and the superiority of remaining population within the memory kernel changes, minor city will increase its ranking, as the growing rate for each city i is actually $m_i\beta_2$. We now investigate the dynamics within the memory kernel. For each city, m_i acts as a random walk with absorption wall 0, since no offspring will be expected if no nodes are left in the kernel. This result also works for single block case within a city. Denote the population with a block j of city i as m_{ij} . According to [18], we use a result for branching process that a block loses its vitality if the population goes downhill under a threshold

$$\rho_{\text{threshold}} = k\beta_1/(2\beta_2) + N^*/2. \quad (5)$$

This value shall be regarded as the sign for *urban shrinkage*, for the edging blocks have lower density according to equation 4 thus have an exponentially higher probability to be languished. In other words, urban shrinkage shall be reasoned by limited systematic resources in the given region.

The kernel mechanism also plays a role in the cross-city scale: The preference of larger cities is easier to fail. The competition for coins in SYM receives more than pure birth settings because the sum of fortune is given as N^* . In other words, SYM system doesn't suffer from inflation. To test this interpretation, we analyze the superior switching rate, defined as the average frequency of timesteps in a realization that the second largest city surpasses the largest in active population within the memory kernel. We conduct numerical experiments, and receive power law dependence between the frequency and the simulating steps, shown in Pic 3. Moreover, the switching is more likely to happen with a memory kernel, i.e., switching with memory kernel decay slower in probability. It is also a clear result since a growing society (a society without a memory kernel) suffer less from inter-specific competition.

The last property of SYM we come across is the fractality of urban envelop, stately, the length of urban edges vary with the used measurement. Inspired by multi-player interaction in fractal financial market [20], we interpret that fractal urban boundary is driven by the competition for land at cities' edges. In SYM, the uncertain competition for space lies in parameter r . A larger r indicates larger randomness and brings an extra advantage for minor cities, resulting in a larger fractal dimension. We apply the box counting technique to calculate the fractal dimension of urban envelops, and receive an stable output of $d_f = 1.2 \pm 0.05$ with $r = 0.5$, similar to empirical results [6]. We also find larger d_f 's for greater

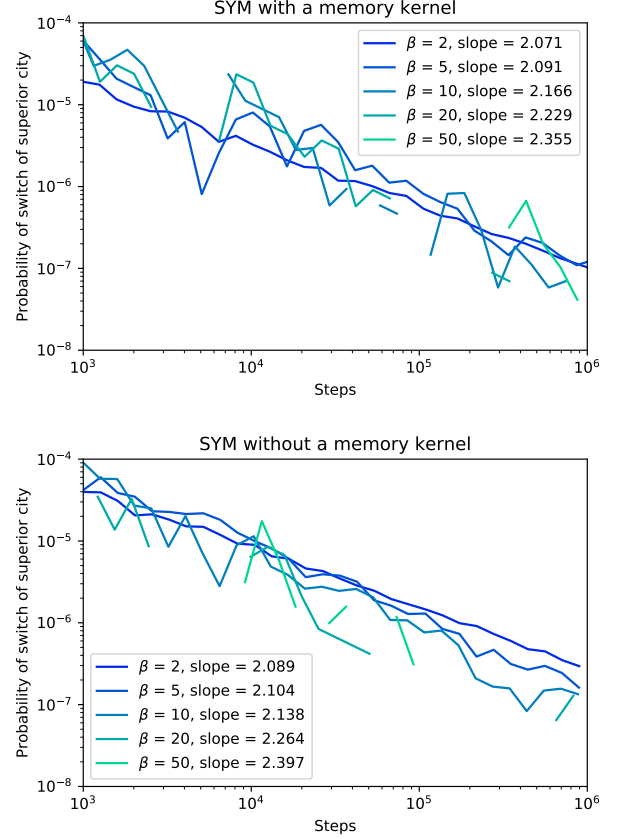


FIG. 3. The change rate statistics with and without a memory kernel. The kernel keeps the turning over more often. With same β 's, a kernel-based SYM's decay in switching probability is smaller.

r . These results validate our hypothesis that fractal edges coexist with spatial competition.

This *Letter* concludes the urban system dynamics in only three key components, and receives fruitful results. Not only do SYM explain existing properties, such as Zipf's and Clark's law, but also predict regional trends in a probabilistic perspective. We analytically derive the inter- and intra-city properties Zipf's law of global population, Clark's law for urban density, and the fractal behaviors of urban edges. Due to the simplicity of SYM, we investigate the future phase transition of urban development in great detail. The results in this paper are derived two assumptions: (i) the stationary growth of individuals as parameters are all set to be constant and (ii) the limited resource can be equally treated as a partition of memory kernel. In real life, these assumptions are well-held if sufficient divergence of meta-population across the world is considered. In other words, the identification of a town is 30,000 in Japan, and 200 in Sweden, leading to different considerations of meta-population. Simulations of this model can be adjust to heterogeneous geographical circumstances by applying the growing rate on each block

to the product of inherent dynamic $m_{ij} \cdot \beta_2$ and the local characteristic c_{ij} to better suit for realistic conditions. The parameter r best determines the type of metropolis over the world for identifying morphology of major cities. Central European cities share lower r , making the cities disjoint and centralized; while São Paulo metropolitan area indicates a larger individual preference for urban expansion. Although our results are not all analytically proved, we believe it is a essential step to strip out the power of urban dynamics. The model is non-commuting, but the community structure is naturally embedded. For further consideration, we can extend the model by adding links as the volume of exploration and preferential return between cities[21].

The memory kernel mechanism leads to a straightforward corollary that the construction of infrastructure is the reason of population's spatial transitions, as only those who are recorded in the kernel are considered as productive people that attract new-comers to his city. This result provides a bottom-up explanation of transition of urban centers with stochastic spatial shifts of cities' memorized people. It also tells that the economic growth is the basis of growth potentials. Under the circumstances of preferential attraction, if the size of the memory kernel cannot grow fast enough to match with population, the concentration of production will go far from tolerance. Taking the productive aspect together in the memory kernel helps to talk about many other properties like the age structure. The stationary age can be calculated as the average time for a new city to emerge is $(\beta_2 N + \beta_1 k)^{-1}$, which equals to the average losing age of the whole kernel. The model can further be extended with multi-dimensional memory kernel, which allows a node to emerge if different factors (i.e., the existing nodes in different dimension of kernel) coevolute to allow new nodes to emerge. In words, the memory kernel mechanisms is fundamental.

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