

Livability/Objective Quality of Life (QOL) and Happiness/Subjective Wellbeing (SWB): (Livable, But Unhappy Cities)

Saturday 25th March, 2023 16:02

ABSTRACT:

This article discusses objective Quality Of Life (QOL) and Subjective Wellbeing (SWB), focusing on their overlap, differences, and relationship. The spatial focus is on urban-rural gradient (cities score high on livability/QOL, but low on SWB). The conceptual focus is on public policy and administration: how objective and subjective measures can be used for public policy and administration. ~~An usual~~ A regular social indicators case for ending the primacy of economic indicators is repeated, but from a fresh Marxist perspective.

KEYWORDS: QUALITY OF LIFE (QOL), LIVABILITY, SUBJECTIVE WELLBEING (SWB), HAPPINESS, LIFE SATISFACTION, UTILITY, POLICY, CITIES, URBANISM, MARX, FREUD

JEL CODES: I31 - GENERAL WELFARE; BASIC NEEDS; LIVING STANDARDS; QUALITY OF LIFE; HAPPINESS

If you cannot measure it, you cannot improve it [...] To measure is to ~~know. Lord~~ know. Lord Kelvin

1 Introduction

Measurement is essential for progress—many would say something along the lines that if you cannot measure it, you cannot improve it. Notably lord Kelvin put it exactly this way.

Then the question is how we measure human progress? Traditionally, and unfortunately, the human progress has been and continues to be measured with money, either production or consumption. ~~Still, the dollar yardstick dominates.~~ Welfare, wellbeing, (material) quality of life, and similar concepts are typically measured with money—salaries, housing values, and so on. But the most popular such measure at societal

level is Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and its variations—per capita, and Purchasing Power Parity (PPP). GDP still dominates policy and administration as if an increase in GDP solves most problems. But scholars increasingly realize the limitations of monetary measures of human progress such as GDP measure (see Stiglitz et al. (2009) for a comprehensive review of the inadequacies of the GDP measure). Considering the rising concerns about the inadequacy of such monetary measures, there has been a significant effort to come up with other measures that would complement monetary measures in the pursuit of the goal of assessing human progress.

A notable departure from purely monetary measures of human progress is Human Development Index (HDI), ~~which has added in which~~ education and life expectancy are added to GDP. More recently, a co-inventor of HDI, Amartya Sen has proposed subjective wellbeing (SWB) as a measure of ~~development human~~ progress (Stiglitz et al. 2009).

~~Subjective wellbeing (SWB) and quality of life (QOL) are receiving much attention recently. And so~~
In fact, the interest in subjective wellbeing has been rising in the past few decades in many social science disciplines (Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Frijters 2004). The same could be said about the quality-of-life (QOL) concept (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2019). Much of the literature on SWB and QOL is mainly concerned with exploring the different factors that affect SWB or QOL. One important factor is urbanization. According
~~to UN () in 1850 only 10%~~

The world has been witnessing rapid increase in urbanization in the past two centuries since the industrial revolution. According to the United Nations estimates, one-third of the world population lived in cities, ~~in in~~ the year 1950 ~~about a third, and in 2050 it will be two thirds.~~ compared to only 10% in the year 1850; and it is expected that two-thirds of the world population will be residing in cities in 2050 (Gaigbe-Togbe et al. 2022)

~

The sheer numbers are stunning, over just several generations several billions of humans suddenly live in cities. It's a dramatic change of the human habitat—humans evolved as ~~hunters-gatherers~~ hunter-gatherers over thousands of years without cities (Maryanski and Turner 1992). Mass urbanization is a very recent development, and arguably the most dramatic change of human habitat in our species history.

Given an enormous importance of both, urbanization and human progress (SWB/QOL), their intersection

should be of central interest to a social scientist. A recent review of the knowledge in the area is (Okulicz-Kozaryn 2015). Also see Ruut Veenhoven's World Database of ~~Happiness is a~~ Happiness—a collection of findings in happiness field in general ~~(+)~~ (Veenhoven 1995).

The main aim of this paper is to shed light on the relationship between QOL and SWB with a specific focus on life in cities. Cities are usually full of amenities that make them score high on QOL indicators, but they are also full of disamenities that make them score low on SWB indicators. The study contributes to the literature that advocates the usage of subjective measures of well-being to complement objective measures in informing public policy and administration. The paper mainly builds on and synthesizes existing evidence and literature.

This article is organized as follows: first a need for departure from dollar amounts to better measures of progress or development is highlighted—this is after all what social indicators field is about—proper indicators and measurement. Then two useful such measures are discussed, QOL and SWB—the focus here is on their overlap, differences, and relationship. Finally, QOL and SWB are applied to urban-rural spatial setting—there is an urban-rural ~~happiness~~ gradient, where QOL typically increases along with urbanicity, but SWB decreases. The ~~articles~~ article concludes with summary and policy ~~implications~~ discussion.

2 Away From Money, Towards Indicators Of Human Flourishing

Capital is dead labor, which, vampire-like, lives only by sucking living labor, and lives the more, the more labor it sucks. Karl Marx

Many economists see beyond self-interest and income-maximization, Adam Smith among them (e.g., Rauhut 2020). Yet most economists still do consider self-interest and income or consumption maximization, so called “utility maximization” as an end goal, the ultimate outcome of interest. Money-orientation and utility-maximization are central to the discipline of economics.

~~Largely unnoticed, economics does dominate policy, administration, and even tries to dominate social science.~~¹ Notably economic measures such as GDP have dominated measurement of development or progress

¹~~Many economists actually believe they are superior to other social sciences (Economist 2016, 2014), and are ignoring~~

and there is clearly a need for more holistic social indicators.

~~Some of economics clearly has reached a level of absurd~~Largely unnoticed, economics does dominate policy, administration, and even tries to dominate social science. Many economists actually believe they are superior to other social sciences (Economist 2016, 2014), and are ignoring non-economic research (Naim 2016, Fourcade et al. 2015) despite economics increasingly suffering from its inadequacy and detachment from the world (Economist 2013, Hodgson 1993), where even Nobel prize laureates in economics acknowledge crisis of economics and advise economists to learn from other disciplines (Altman 2016, Krugman 2012, Economist 2013). Among social sciences, economists' bias is not only most severe, but actually qualitatively different—only economists among social scientists believe in axioms—in some important ways economics is like religion and unlike science. Indeed, there is a term for that: “economism,” belief in the primacy of economic causes or factors (Kwak 2017), or “economic imperialism” (Zafirovski 1999).

There is a concept of utility—and it only exists in economics—no other social science uses it. Some leading economists go very far in their ultimate focus on utility, for instance: “happiness is a commodity in the utility function in the same way that owning a car and being healthy are” (Becker and Rayo 2008, p. 89). This bizarre statement comes from a leading and Nobel prize winning economist Gary Becker.

Many other economists follow the suit and either try to discount or discredit SWB and claim that it is not nearly as important as utility (money) (Benjamin et al. 2014, Benjamin and Heffetz 2012, Glaeser et al. 2016, Rayo and Becker 2007, Becker and Rayo 2008, Benjamin et al. 2015, Glaeser et al. 2014).¹

To most economists, utility equals income or consumption, not happiness, and accordingly economists advise people to maximize income and consumption, not happiness (Becker and Rayo 2008). Economics promotes a “homo oeconomicus,” an imaginary creature that is concerned only with money. In classical economic theory, self-interest is the key assumption, as rational people should maximize their personal

~~non-economic research (Naim 2016, Fourcade et al. 2015) despite economics increasingly suffering from its inadequacy and detachment from the world (Economist 2013, Hodgson 1993), where even Nobel prize laureates in economics acknowledge crisis of economics and advise economists to learn from other disciplines (Altman 2016, Krugman 2012, Economist 2013). Among social sciences, economists' bias is not only most severe, but actually qualitatively different—only economists among social scientists believe in axioms—in some important ways economics is like religion and unlike science. Indeed, there is even a term for that: “economism,” belief in the primacy of economic causes or factors (Kwak 2017), or “economic imperialism” (Zafirovski 1999).~~

~~¹To be precise, by economists I mean mainstream neoclassical economics, e.g., the Chicago school. To be fair, there are many economists that truly contributed to the social indicators and happiness literatures, notably Andrew Oswald (Oswald 2014, Blanchflower and Oswald 2011, Oswald and Wu 2009a,b, Blanchflower and Oswald 2004a,b, Di Tella et al. 2001, Oswald 1997) and Robert Frank (Frank 2016, 2012, 2008, 2005, 2004). A widely cited and celebrated (Stiglitz et al. 2009) is clearly a step in the right direction, and it sparked a much needed policy debate. But the point of futility of pursuit of money is really well made by Marx (Marx 2010, 1844b).~~

outcomes (Seuntjens et al. 2015). And according to the economic theory, profit maximization, not any social responsibility, should be the only concern of businesses (Friedman 1970). An ideal human being, so called “homo economicus,” is a perfectly rational homo sapiens who maximizes income and consumption at all times: “1) people are self-interested utility-maximizers, 2) individuals should be unimpeded in their pursuit of their own self-interest through economic transactions, and 3) virtually all human interactions are economic transactions” (Walker 1992, p. 273). Indeed, already taking economics classes may increase one’s greedy behavior (Wang and Murnighan 2011).

Economic axioms (“self-evident truths”) clearly state that the more income or consumption, the more utility (Autor 2010, Becker and Rayo 2008): ¹

$$\text{money} = \text{utility} \approx \text{money} \quad (1)$$

The point is that the discipline of economics is actually failing to promote human flourishing (SWB), or even prevents it. Skidelsky and Skidelsky (2012, p. 12) puts-put it well “Perhaps the chief intellectual barrier to realizing the good life for all is the discipline of economics.”

~~To be~~ To be precise, by “economics” we mostly mean here mainstream neoclassical economics, e.g., the Chicago school. To be fair, there are many economists that truly contributed to the social indicators and happiness literatures, notably Andrew Oswald (Oswald 2014, Blanchflower and Oswald 2011, Oswald and Wu 2009a,b, Blanchflower and Oswald 2009) and Robert Frank (Frank 2016, 2012, 2008, 2005, 2004). A widely cited and celebrated (Stiglitz et al. 2009) book is clearly a step in the right direction, and it sparked a much needed policy debate. But the point of futility of pursuit of money is really well made by Marx (Marx 2010, 1844b).

To be fair, there was a good reason for primacy of economic thinking after the Second World War in order to rebuild the devastated world. Economic institutions such as World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and World Trade Organization were established and economists took charge to run the countries to maximize

¹In classical economic theory, self-interest is the key assumption, as rational people should maximize their personal outcomes (Seuntjens et al. 2015).—And according to the economic theory, profit maximization, not any social responsibility, should be the only concern of businesses (Friedman 1970).—Economists advanced a concept of an ideal human being, so called “homo economicus,” a perfectly rational homo sapiens who maximizes income and consumption at all times: “1) people are self-interested utility-maximizers, 2) individuals should be unimpeded in their pursuit of their own self-interest through economic transactions, and 3) virtually all human interactions are economic transactions” (Walker 1992, p. 273).—Indeed, already taking economics classes may increase one’s greedy behavior (Wang and Murnighan 2011).—

GDP. Yet now, if anything, there is a need for degrowth (Kallis et al. 2012, Kallis 2011) as pursuit of GDP has devastated natural environment, and the very existence of our species is endangered (~~Pachauri et al. 2014~~) (Pachauri et al. 2014, Klein 2014). If we do nothing, we will face multiple severe, pervasive and irreversible impacts—it is an emergency. For more information see Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change ~~at~~.¹ (Solomon 2023).

The ~~climate change crisis requires the~~ relentless pursuit of money (production and consumption) ~~to stop or at least to limit to~~ must be limited to a sustainable way and ~~level~~ level—a key reason is climate change crisis. Already 50 years ago, Easterlin has pointed out that the pursuit of money and the pursuit of happiness are about the same thing in the US (Easterlin 1973). In one study, students were asked about their feeling related to money, and “happiness” was the most frequent emotion cited (Mogilner 2010). A recent survey found that a third of people define success by their possessions (cited in Joye et al. 2020). Greed, materialism, and consumerism became accepted and even celebrated in American society. “Conspicuous exhaustion” and “busyness” are badges of courage (Gershuny 2005). Yet, pursuit of money is not pursuit of happiness, but an illusion.

Money does not buy happiness—acquiring money beyond necessity is actually counterproductive in many ways as neediness grows as one has more of it (Marx 1844a).¹ ~~“The more one has, the more one wants, since satisfactions received only stimulate instead of filling needs” (Durkheim 1950, p. 248).~~¹ Work itself, according to Marx, is a drudgery and toil in capitalism (Marx 2010, Lyons 2007). Wage slaves are “hired slaves instead of block slaves. You have to dread the idea of being unemployed and of being compelled to support your masters” (p. 283 Goldman et al. 2003). Money has a distortive power—Marx explained it well and is worth quoting in full (Marx 1844b):

Money, then, appears as this distorting power both against the individual and against the bonds of society, etc., which claim to be entities in themselves. It transforms fidelity into infidelity,

¹Also see popular media coverage, for instance Paul Krugman’s point of no return and—

¹Work itself, according to Marx, is a drudgery and toil in capitalism (Marx 2010, Lyons 2007). Wage slaves are “hired slaves instead of block slaves. You have to dread the idea of being unemployed and of being compelled to support your masters” (p. 283 Goldman et al. 2003).—

¹This concept in social indicators research is called ‘hedonic treadmill’ (Diener et al. 2006, Brickman et al. 1978, Duhigg 2012).—The theory of happiness as a motivator (Carver and Scheier 1990) is also relevant here. People should buy time and experiences, not material goods (except bare necessities, of course) (Putnam 2001, Kasser 2016, Dittmar et al. 2014).—Valuing time and experience over money, not the other way round, predicts happiness. One should buy time, (e.g., cut commute) time is actually arguably the most important resource (Masuda et al. 2020, Williams et al. 2016, Whillans et al. 2017).—

love into hate, hate into love, virtue into vice, vice into virtue, servant into master, master into servant, idiocy into intelligence, and intelligence into idiocy. Since money, as the existing and active concept of value, confounds and confuses all things, it is the general confounding and confusing of all things—the world upside-down—the confounding and confusing of all natural and human qualities.

He who can buy bravery is brave, though he be a coward. As money is not exchanged for any one specific quality, for any one specific thing, or for any particular human essential power, but for the entire objective world of man and nature, from the standpoint of its possessor it therefore serves to exchange every quality for every other, even contradictory, quality and object: it is the fraternization of impossibilities. It makes contradictions embrace.

Assume man to be man and his relationship to the world to be a human one: then you can exchange love only for love, trust for trust, etc. If you want to enjoy art, you must be an artistically cultivated person; if you want to exercise influence over other people, you must be a person with a stimulating and encouraging effect on other people. Every one of your relations to man and to nature must be a specific expression, corresponding to the object of your will, of your real individual life.

3 Objective Quality of Life (QOL) and Subjective Wellbeing (SWB)

“What do [men] demand of life and wish to achieve in it? The answer can hardly be in doubt. They strive after happiness; they want to become happy and to remain so” ~~Sigmund~~ Sigmund Freud

Fortunately, there ~~is an alternative~~ are alternatives to money as an end itself as advocated by economics and as adopted by contemporary materialistic and consumerist culture and society. The ~~alternative~~ is alternatives are objective Quality of Life (QOL) and Subjective Wellbeing (SWB) indicators. McMahon (2006) paints a historical overview of the concept of human wellbeing—how it evolved over centuries and how different cultures approached it.

QOL can be also called livability, i.e., suitability for human living, habitability (Veenhoven 2000), or quality of place (Burton 2014). There are many QOL indices (see appendix), and they mostly capture material standard or level. ~~But ideal QOL index should be broader and include non-material ingredients such as freedom, trust, tolerance, self-expression, and so forth.~~ Standard of living is a mere level of material comfort in terms of goods and services such as health care, clean water, education, ~~telephones, clothing,~~ clothing, telephones, computers and so forth.

~~SWB is mostly cognitive overall life satisfaction, but also to some degree momentary affective happiness and negative and positive affect. SWB is subjective because we survey people about how they feel about their lives. And there are also domain satisfactions as per classic (Campbell et al. 1976): e.g., neighborhood, family, and career satisfactions.~~

QOL/livability notably includes job opportunity—even as much as 90% of people move to a place for a job (Economist 2011b,a). In contemporary materialistic and consumerist world, money drives much of human thinking and behavior. People move to places for jobs and businesses move for talent (Florida 2008). Other components of QOL/livability include (Economist 2011b): cost of living, public transport and roads, safety and security, culture and nightlife.

But a better, more comprehensive QOL index should be broader and include non-material quantities such as freedom, trust, tolerance, self-expression, and so forth. Yet most QOL/livability indices don't capture intangible qualities of a place such as vibrancy, authenticity, and distinctiveness. Many obvious characteristics make a place livable: education, health and safety, housing, getting around (commuting), but also less obvious ~~areas~~ characteristics like freedom, tolerance, trust and self-expression need to be satisfied as well (Florida 2008, p 297). Following a classic Maslow (1987) pyramid of needs in ~~fig~~ figure 1, Florida (2008) proposed the pyramid of needs for a place in figure 2.

At low levels of economic development, economic gains or material goods matter—people need to satisfy their basic needs such as shelter or food. Hence, again, economic primacy of production and consumption did make sense after the ~~2WW~~ Second World War to rebuild the devastated world. But once the basic needs are satisfied, there develop higher level needs related to lifestyle such as ~~selfexpression~~ see self-expression ~~see~~ figure 3.

Figure 3 illustrates affluence paradox (Pacione 2003, Ng 1997)—the more income, economic development, or affluence, the less they matter for SWB. At higher level of development what matters is higher dimensions on Maslow's pyramid in figure 1. This is similar to diminishing marginal returns from income in SWB observed at country, region, and person levels (Okulicz-Kozaryn 2012).

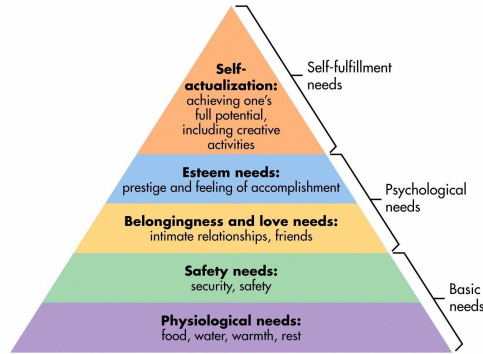


Figure 1: Maslow Pyramid, (Maslow 1987).

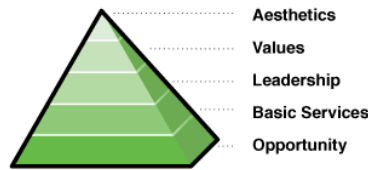


Figure 2: Place Pyramid, (Florida 2008, p 294).

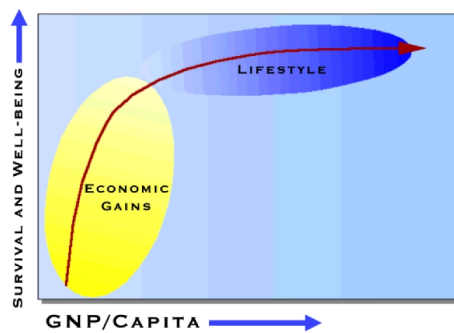


Figure 3: Well-being and income, (Inglehart 1997).

In addition to QOL, and more towards subjective conceptions of human progress, there is subjective wellbeing (SWB). SWB is mostly cognitive overall life satisfaction, but also to some degree momentary affective happiness and negative and positive affect. SWB is subjective because we survey people about how

they feel about their lives. And there are also domain satisfactions as per classic (Campbell et al. 1976): e.g., neighborhood, family, and career satisfactions.

SWB, by definition, is the most comprehensive measure possible. SWB is a person's comprehensive evaluation of her life as whole and includes "both cognitive judgments of one's life satisfaction in addition to affective evaluations of mood and emotions" (Steel et al. 2008, p. 142). Veenhoven's (2008, p. 2) definition of SWB is very similar, "overall judgment of life that draws on two sources of information: cognitive comparison with standards of the good life (contentment) and affective information from how one feels most of the time (hedonic level of affect)."

SWB is typically measured with a survey item such as "On the whole, are you very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied, or not at all satisfied with the life you lead?" and it ranges from say "1 =not at all satisfied" to "4 =very satisfied."~~"~~ (Veenhoven 1995). Wording may slightly differ and scales may be finer, eg 1-10, but a variation of this question and scale appears in major surveys such as World Values Survey, US General Social Survey, and Eurobarometer series. Other notable SWB measures include Cantril ladder and Diener SWLS scale (Cantril and Roll 1971, Diener et al. 1985).

The SWB measure, even though self-reported and subjective, is reliable (precision varies) and valid (Myers 2000, Di Tella and MacCulloch 2006, Diener et al. 2013). SWB correlates with similar objective measures such as brain activity (Layard 2005). SWB has discriminant validity (Sandvik et al. 1993). ~~For a thorough-~~

For a thorough review see Diener (2009) (especially ch. 5) and Diener et al. (2013). Diener (2009) makes an important point that limitations of SWB are not serious enough to make it unusable for public policy—see especially ch. 6. SWB, as any measure, has limitations. SWB is influenced by culture ~~-, social norms -, etc-~~ and social norms (Diener and Suh 2003). SWB is relative at least to some degree and it often bounces back to the so called set point (Lucas et al. 2006), even if one wins a lottery or ~~loses-~~ loses a leg (Brickman et al. 1978). About half of SWB is genetically determined ~~(Lykken and Tellegen 1996)~~ (Lykken and Tellegen 1996, Schnittker 2008). But these limitations are not critical, that is, policy still does influence SWB greatly—for discussion see Diener (2009), especially ch 6.

What about the relationship between QOL and SWB? The relationship of QOL and SWB is discussed by ~~Veenhoven (2000), Cummins (2000), Diener and Suh (1997), Schneider (2005), Pacione (2003)~~ Veenhoven (2000), Cummins (

. QOL and SWB are different perspectives on human development, with its pros and cons. They should rather be used as complements than substitutes. QOL is about what is out there, SWB is about how it affects humans. There is the world on the ground, and the world on the mind. For instance, it is not only the objective qualities of transportation, but how people are satisfied with it; not only actual objective crime, but how people feel about it.¹

The relationship between QOL and SWB can be conceptualized in several ways. Table 1 shows Veenhoven’s four qualities of life—a 2x2 matrix of life chances and results against outer and inner qualities. Table 2 shows Michalos livability-SWB theory—a 2x2 matrix of hi-lo QOL and SWB—there can be 4 combinations of outcomes.

Table 1: Veenhoven’s four qualities of life (Veenhoven 2000).

	outer qualities	inner qualities
life chances	livability of environment [QOL]	life-ability of the person
life results	utility of life	appreciation of life [SWB]

Table 2: Michalos two variable theory: fool’s paradise and fool’s hell (Michalos 2014). Cummins’ similar classification is shown in square brackets (Sirgy 2002, p.61).

	lo QOL	hi QOL
lo SWB	real hell [deprivation, unhappy poor]	fool’s hell [dissonance, unhappy rich]
hi SWB	fool’s paradise [adaptation, happy poor]	real paradise [well-being, happy rich]

As per Veenhoven’s livability theory (Veenhoven 2014), QOL/livability contributes to satisfaction of human needs, and hence, SWB should follow (Diener et al. 1993, Veenhoven 1991, Veenhoven and Ehrhardt 1995). “Like all animals, humans have innate needs, such as for food, safety, and companionship. Gratification of needs manifests in hedonic experience” (Veenhoven 2014, p. 3645). Specifically Veenhoven’s livability theory states that QOL satisfies universal objective absolute human needs such as those on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, and thus improves SWB (Veenhoven and Ehrhardt 1995, Veenhoven 2000, 2014). The bottom of Maslow pyramid (Maslow 1987) are basic needs: economics and survival. Top of Maslow pyramid is about psychological and self-fulfillment needs. SWB is a function of both—basic needs first, but once they are satisfied, SWB depends on higher dimensions.

¹Not only quality of life is connected to the perceptions, feelings, and subjective values, but fundamentally (and philosophically) quality of life is perceptions and feelings (Senlier et al. 2009). For instance, it is not the objective quality of infrastructure but how people perceive it that matters (Senlier et al. 2009). Spiritually, one could say that we do not really experience the world outside of ourselves, all experience is produced within the humans ([Subramaniam 2010](#)).

SWB is subjective, a self-reported evaluation of life, but the great advantage of SWB is that it captures all experiences that are important to a person, not to the experts who construct livability indices. It is after all that QOL indices are highly subjective in at least two ways: 1) choice of metrics, and 2) their weights. Even GDP is much less objective than one thinks—it is not carefully added comprehensive dollar amounts in the economy, but a rough estimate.

4 QOL, SWB, and Urbanicity

Here is the great city! Here thou hast nothing to seek and everything to ~~lose. Friedrich Nietzsche~~ lose Friedrich Nietzsche

Nature is not a place to visit, it is ~~home. Gary~~ home Gary Snyder²

City is mostly an invention of the industrialization, ~~only.~~ Only several percent of population lived in cities before 1750, and there was ~~no~~ barely any city larger than 1m (except Rome, and a handful of others). The city that the industrialization produced was not pretty Engels (1987). Neither it is today (Okulicz-Kozaryn 2015)

~

In the developed world, the industrial city is largely gone. It either turned into urban decay as in the rust belt (Philadelphia, Baltimore, Patterson) or into ~~unaffordable~~ un-affordable stressful commerce (NYC, San Francisco, Austin) (Zukin 2009, Okulicz-Kozaryn 2015).

~~“The city is typical of Gesellschaft in general” (Tönnies 2002, p. 227). “The metropolis has always been the seat of money economy” (Simmel 1971, p. 326).~~

Civilization has its discontents as in the title of a classic book by Freud 1930. Human civilization created great tools and engines of progress, ~~metropolis~~ and city was one of them (O’Sullivan 2009, Glaeser 2011b). “But lo! men have become the tools of their tools” Thoreau (1854, p. 24). Man is but a tiny insignificant cog in urban machine (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2017). Simmel ~~wrote~~ put it well: “[urbanite] is reduced to a negligible quantity. He becomes a single cog as over against the vast overwhelming organization of things

²It is a common mistake to consider city amenities as livable (high on QOL), but not consider as much natural amenities, while it is actually nature that is our home, not city.

and forces which gradually take out of his hands everything ” (Simmel 1903, p. 337).

Notably, city is a very recent development in human evolutionary history, for tens of thousands of years ~~as hunters-gatherers humans lived without cities~~ humans lived as hunter-gatherers in small bands without cities. Humans are more like chimps than bees or ants (Haidt 2012) and yet currently more than half of the species (and by 2050 about 2/3) live in a beehive-like settlements, cities. City-living is unnatural to human species, and accordingly humans are less happy in cities than elsewhere (except in poorest developing countries), i.e., urban disamenities outweigh amenities.

There is a fascinating interplay between QOL and SWB across the urban-rural gradient.³ QOL usually increases with size of a place, but SWB decreases—larger cities tend to be ranked higher on QOL, but lower on SWB (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2019, Okulicz-Kozaryn 2013). The larger the place, the more amenities: freedom, gesellschaft (Tönnies 2002), productivity, efficiency, agglomeration economies, labor specialization (O’Sullivan 2009), innovation, income per capita (Bettencourt and West 2010). But ~~also~~ there are multiple disamenities, as well: air, noise, and light pollutions, disease spread (e.g., covid19~~case in point~~), alienation, superficiality, crime, stress, and so forth (Wirth 1938, Simmel 1903, Okulicz-Kozaryn 2015).

Perhaps, the greatest contrast of high urban QOL/livability v low SWB is found in the case of Singapore. Despite top QOL/livability, Singapore doesn’t make it to the top quartile on SWB (Veenhoven 1995).

Urban malaise or unhappiness is universal among the “top” cities in the developed world. The largest American city, New York City, is the least happy or one of the least happy places in America (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Mazelis 2016, Senior 2006). London is the largest and least happy place in the UK (Office for National Statistics 2011, Chatterji 2013). Toronto, the largest metropolitan area in Canada, is the second least happy place in Canada, only Vancouver (third metropolitan area) is less happy (Lu et al. 2015). Helsinki is the largest and least happy place in Finland (Morrison 2015). Bucharest is the largest and least happy place in Romania (Lenzi and Perucca 2016b), and so forth. It is a ~~paradox—people puzzle—people~~ flock to large cities, the places that are least happy.

People flock to the most expensive cities like New York, Toronto, Milan, and Beijing. They are proud to

³Urban-rural is rather a gradient than a dichotomy. Urban unhappiness intensifies at a population level of around several hundred thousand (Okulicz-Kozaryn 2016). By “urban” or “city” I mean here large cities, larger than several hundred thousand. By rural I mean rural areas: wilderness, open country, and villages, but also smaller towns. But again, it is a gradient, and both QOL and SWB increase (and decrease) along with size of a place.

live in a “top” city, and yet unhappy to live there at the same time (Balducci and Checchi 2009). Large city dwellers are consistently proud of their cities, even regardless of their own conditions or indicators of quality of urban life (Balducci and Checchi 2009, Martinson 2000).

A case can be made that there is an unconscious city fetish (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2017), that is, people are drawn to cities and kept there in large part by their unconscious city fetish. The alluring fetish is city’s power, prestige, and wealth substituting for urbanite’s insignificance—an urbanite feels delusionally empowered and fulfilled by the city—urbanite thinks she’s more than she actually is due to being in powerful, prestigious, and wealthy city (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2017).

An objective quality of life may be high—city has wealth, amenities, and opportunities—and yet vast majority of urbanites don’t have time or money to take advantage of city resources and end up less happy—SWB is lower in cities—but yet due to city fetish they remain in their delusion that they are better off in the city. And ~~also~~, again, QOL/livability indices tend to miss the importance of nature, human species’ natural home.

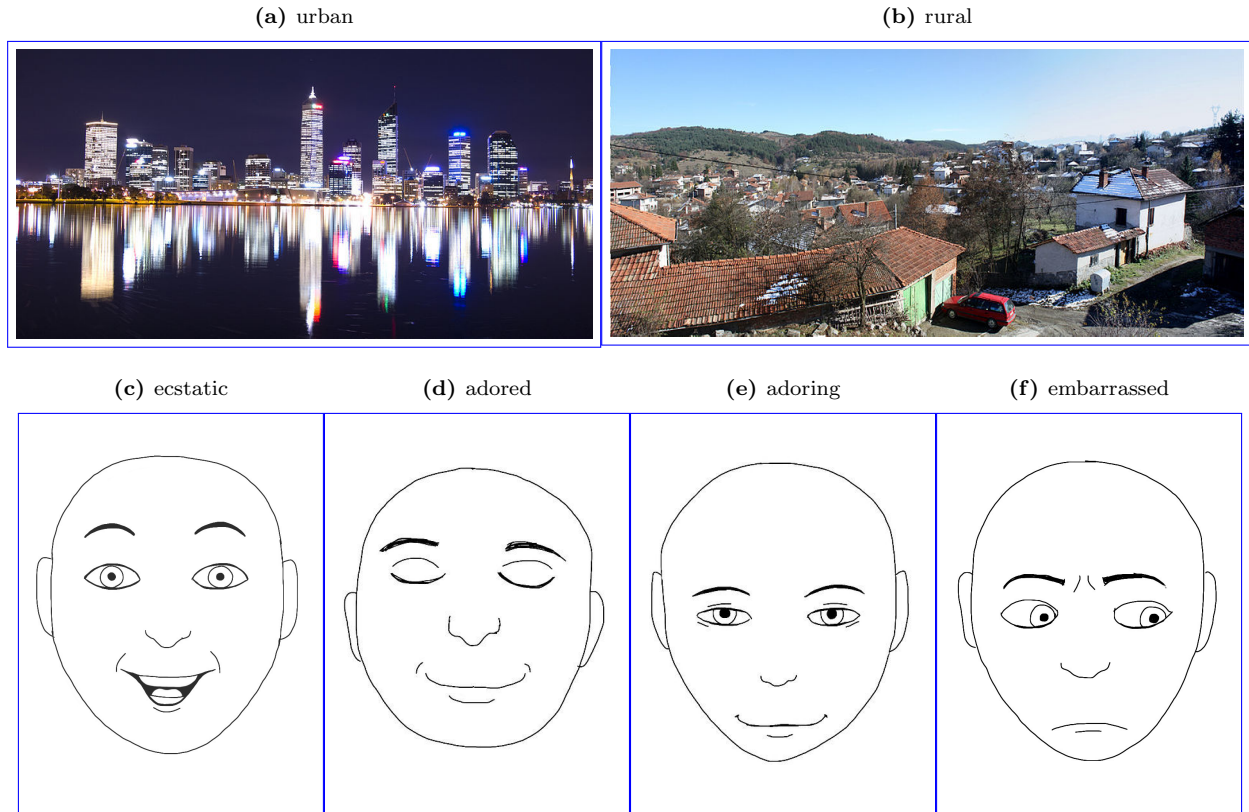
Cities have always been economic, political and cultural centers, and if anything, the prominence of cities is increasing (Khanna 2016, Hanson 2015). “The formal architecture of cities [...] expresses power and wealth” (Rudofsky cited in Hough 2004). Cities attract people, because people strive for power and status. City fetish is similar to Marxian commodity fetishism or domination by things (Marx 2010). Just like commodities bestow its value but also domination on humans—so do cities bestow its value and dominance upon urbanites. The urban bestowal materializes itself in a feeling of pride and superiority for an urbanite (Martinson 2000, Balducci and Checchi 2009).

Urban pride can be visualized using facial expressions in figure 4—urbanites delusionally shine with their power and fulfillment. Of course, some truly do shine and emanate energy, but that is a fraction of the top percent.⁴ Urban pride and power, however, for majority of urbanites, is illusory—they are insignificant and subjugated cogs in the urban machine toiling long hours and living in small and expensive spaces (see appendix for elaboration). And again, they are less happy than rural folks.

~~Powerful and dominating urban v insignificant and subjugated rural.~~

⁴The energy aura of the fraction of the top percent seems to come from common people in the first place—powerful people appear to nurture their energy from their admirers (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente 2017).

Figure 4: Powerful and dominating urban v insignificant and subjugated rural.



5 Summary, Discussion, and Use of SWB for Policy

6 ~~Summary, Discussion and Policy Implications~~

The article started with a quote by lord Kelvin on necessity of measurement in order to track progress and ~~improve~~eventually improve outcomes. What gets measured, ~~it~~ can be improved. For too long we have been focused on measuring and improving dollar amounts such as GDP. Monetary measures must not only be complemented by other measures, but they must be given much less weight, at least in the developed world. Indeed, progress can perhaps be even better measured by decrease in GDP, not increase Kallis et al. (2012), Kallis (2011).

The argument here is that objective QOL and subjective SWB are complementary (rather than substitute). SWB is ~~better-more~~more comprehensive than QOL as it encompasses all sources and domains that matter to a person. It is more precise because it has a perfect weighting by each person as opposed to some

expert defining weight for components of QOL uniformly for everyone. SWB can be used as a “yardstick” to aid with public policy—this is not a new idea—it was already proposed at least as early as in 1980s (Veenhoven 1988).

It is agreed that improvement in QOL should result in higher SWB as per livability theory (Veenhoven 2014), but attention should be paid to what aspects of QOL matter for SWB. If something is not important for SWB, then we should not spend ~~limited~~ scarce resources on it. For instance, more highways may not result in more SWB (perhaps positive economic externalities are traded off by negative ones such as pollution and noise). As elaborated earlier, if there is any obvious policy direction for improving SWB, it is cutting money orientation and cutting consumption (at least in the developed world).

It is overlooked that arguably the ultimate outcome of any public policy is happiness (SWB). Yet only in few cases it is stated explicitly. One example is Bhutan, which officially aims to achieve “the greatest happiness for the greatest number.” While the US in its Declaration of Independence acknowledges “pursuit of happiness,” it is difficult to imagine a US government official pondering how some policy or administrative action enables this pursuit.

To fix the ideas, it is useful to use a flow chart to conceptualize an outcome line between a social problem, policy tackling it, an outcome of interest, and happiness in figure 5. Say we face income inequality as a problem and take some action (e.g., tax), to achieve a ~~subobjective~~ sub-objective, redistribution. The outcome of interest is income equality. But we usually stop here. We forget that the ultimate outcome of interest is happiness—after all why consider something as a problem if it doesn’t hamper happiness. Why design a policy and achieve some outcome if it doesn’t improve happiness? To improve policy making and administration we should ask and measure explicitly how much SWB will a policy or administrative action bring about.⁵

⁵There are exceptions to this rule, of course. SWB is not the only outcome of interest. Sometimes one must endure outright misery to achieve happiness later. And sometimes happiness is not the most important goal, especially if its achievement conflicts with other desirable outcomes such as morality. Especially in the short run, one often needs to sacrifice happiness in order to achieve happiness in the long run. For instance, one needs to save, invest, postpone consumption, and work hard in order to be happy later. A typical example of short run SWB and long run misery is over-use of pleasure inducing chemicals such as tobacco and alcohol (Linden 2011).

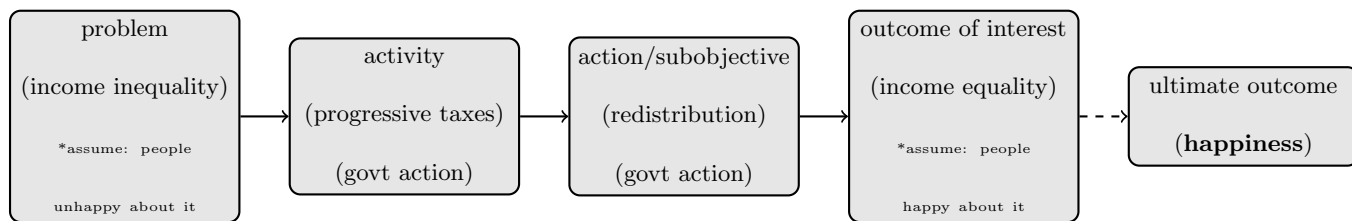


Figure 5: An outcome line. Usually we stop at outcome of interest. Yet the outcome of interest is only of value (with some exceptions) if it results in happiness.

There are always ~~limited~~ scarce resources and there are many competing needs—education, safety, public health, and so forth—one metric to help direct spending is SWB. One example is housing and commute. We know that stressful commute in heavy traffic is one of the worst things one can do for one’s happiness (~~Kahneman et al. 2004~~) (Kahneman et al. 2004, Manke 2021). The reason for stressful heavy traffic commutes is a spatial mismatch between housing and jobs. Usually a person buys a larger and more expensive house than she needs further away from jobs in suburbs or exurbs (Duany et al. 2001). But such houses, or most consumption in general for that matter, do not result in lasting SWB (Leonard 2010, Kasser 2016, Dittmar et al. 2014, Kasser 2003, Schmuck et al. 2000, Kasser and Ryan 1993).

Hence, a policy could discourage consumption and commute to promote greater SWB. Houses are typically the largest consumption item of typical persons, and cars are typically the second largest item. Expensive or luxury cars do not bring about SWB either (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Tursi 2015).

QOL/SWB, as ultimate goal, should dominate policy and administration. QOL/SWB have already entered the mainstream policy discussion around 2010 with the publication of Stiglitz et al. (2009). Yet, a troubling development is adoption and distortion of QOL/SWB by economists (~~?Helliwell et al. 2020, Glaeser et al. 2016, Glaeser et al. 2011b,a, Benjamin et al. 2014, B~~) (Helliwell et al. 2012, 2020, Glaeser et al. 2016, Glaeser 2014, Helliwell et al. 2012, Glaeser 2011b,a, Benjamin et al. 2014, B). Again, Skidelsky and Skidelsky (2012, p. 12) puts it well “Perhaps the chief intellectual barrier to realizing the good life for all is the discipline of economics.” Notably, we have a “happiness industry” (Davies 2015) claiming that the more money, work, and consumption, the more happiness—governments and businesses embrace happiness to advance their own goals (Davies 2015).

References

- Altman, R. (2016). The end of economic forecasting. *The Wall Street Journal*.
- Autor, D. (2010). Lecture 3: Axioms of consumer preference and the theory of choice. *MIT Open Course Ware*.
- Balducci, A. and Checchi, D. (2009). Happiness and quality of city life: The case of milan, the richest italian city. *International Planning Studies*, 14(1):25–64.
- Becker, G. and Rayo, L. (2008). Comment on 'economic growth and subjective well-being: Reassessing the easterlin paradox' by betsey stevenson and justin wolfers. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, pages 88–95.
- Benjamin, D. J., Cunningham, S., Heffetz, O., Kimball, M., and Szembrot, N. (2015). Happiness and satisfaction are not everything: Toward wellbeing indices based on stated preference.
- Benjamin, D. J. and Heffetz, O. (2012). What do you think would make you happier? what do you think you would choose? *The American economic review*, 102(5):2083–2110.
- Benjamin, D. J., Heffetz, O., Kimball, M. S., and Szembrot, N. (2014). Beyond happiness and satisfaction: toward well-being indices based on stated preference. *The American economic review*, 104(9):2698–2735.
- Bettencourt, L. and West, G. (2010). A unified theory of urban living. *Nature*, 467(7318):912–913.
- Blanchflower, D. and Oswald, A. (2004a). Money, sex and happiness: An empirical study. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, pages 393–415.
- Blanchflower, D. and Oswald, A. (2004b). Well-being over time in britain and the usa. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88(7-8):1359–1386.
- Blanchflower, D. G. and Oswald, A. J. (2011). International happiness: A new view on the measure of performance. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 25(1):6–22.
- Brickman, P., Coates, D., and Janoff-Buman, R. (1978). Lottery winners and accident victims: Is happiness relative? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36:917–927.

- Burckhardt, C. S., Anderson, K. L., et al. (2003). The quality of life scale (qols): reliability, validity, and utilization. *Health and quality of life outcomes*, 1(1):60.
- Burton, M. (2014). Quality of place. In *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research*, pages 5312–5314. Springer.
- Campbell, A., Converse, P. E., and Rodgers, W. L. (1976). *The quality of American life: perceptions, evaluations, and satisfactions*. Russell Sage Foundation, New York NY.
- Cantril, A. and Roll, C. (1971). *Hopes and Fears of the American people*. New York: Universe Books.
- Carver, C. S. and Scheier, M. F. (1990). Origins and functions of positive and negative affect: a control-process view. *Psychological review*, 97(1):19.
- Chatterji, A. (2013). London is the unhappiest place to live in britain. *International Business Times*.
- Cloutier, S. (2014). Happy building? green building as a potential predictor of happiness. *unpublished*.
- Cloutier, S., Berejnoi, E., Russell, S., Morrison, B. A., and Ross, A. (2018). Toward a holistic sustainable and happy neighborhood development assessment tool: A critical review of relevant literature. *Ecological Indicators*, 89:139–149.
- Cloutier, S., Larson, L., and Jambeck, J. (2014). Are sustainable cities ”happy” cities? associations between sustainable development and human well-being in urban areas of the united states. *Environment, development and sustainability*, 16(3):633–647.
- Cloutier, S. and Pfeiffer, D. (2017). Happiness: An alternative objective for sustainable community development. In *Handbook of Community Well-Being Research*, pages 85–96.
- Cummins, R. (2000). Objective and subjective quality of life: an interactive model. *Social Indicators Research*, 52(1):55–72.
- Davies, W. (2015). *The Happiness Industry: How the Government and Big Business Sold us Well-Being*. Verso Books.

- Deaton, A. (2013). Subjective well-being and policy: Interview with angus deaton, princeton university. YouTube, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tz3D-36RuLo>.
- Deaton, A. and Stone, A. A. (2013). Two happiness puzzles. *The American Economic Review*, 103(3):591–597.
- Di Tella, R. and MacCulloch, R. (2006). Some uses of happiness data in economics. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 20(1):25–46.
- Di Tella, R., MacCulloch, R. J., and Oswald, A. J. (2001). Preferences over inflation and unemployment: Evidence from surveys of happiness. *American Economic Review*, 91(1):335–341.
- Diener, E. (2009). *Well-being for public policy*. Oxford University Press, New York NY.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., and Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, 49(1):71–75.
- Diener, E., Inglehart, R., and Tay, L. (2013). Theory and validity of life satisfaction scales. *Social Indicators Research*, 112(3):497–527.
- Diener, E., Lucas, R. E., and Scollon, C. N. (2006). Beyond the hedonic treadmill: revising the adaptation theory of well-being. *American Psychologist*, 61(4):305.
- Diener, E., Sandvik, E., Seidlitz, L., and Diener, M. (1993). The relationship between income and subjective well-being: relative or absolute? *Social Indicators Research*, 28(3):195–223.
- Diener, E. and Suh, E. (1997). Measuring quality of life: Economic, social, and subjective indicators. *Social Indicators Research*, 40(1):189–216.
- Diener, E. and Suh, E. M., editors (2003). *Culture and Subjective Well-Being*. MIT Press, Cambridge MA.
- Dittmar, H., Bond, R., Hurst, M., and Kasser, T. (2014). The relationship between materialism and personal well-being: A meta-analysis. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 107(5):879.
- Duany, A., Plater-Zyberk, E., and Speck, J. (2001). *Suburban nation: The rise of sprawl and the decline of the American dream*. North Point Press, New York NY.

- Duhigg, C. (2012). *The Power of Habit: Why we do What we do in Life and Business*. Doubleday Canada.
- Durkheim, E. ([1895] 1950). *The Rules of Sociological Method*. The Free Press, New York NY.
- Easterlin, R. A. (1973). Does money buy happiness? *The public interest*, 30:3.
- Economist (2011a). Liveable cities challenges and opportunities for policymakers. *Economist Intelligence Unit*.
- Economist (2011b). Liveanomics urban liveability and economic growth. *Economist Intelligence Unit*.
- Economist (2014). The status of economists. the power of self-belief. *The Economist*, (December).
- Economist, T. (2013). Free exchange; the debt to pleasure; a nobel prizewinner argues for an overhaul of the theory of consumer choice. *The Economist*.
- Economist, T. (2016). Dispassionate analysis? america’s economists are almost as divided as its politicians. *The Economist*.
- Engels, F. ([1845] 1987). *The condition of the working class in England*. Penguin, New York NY.
- Ferrer-i-Carbonell, A. and Frijters, P. (2004). How important is methodology for the estimates of the determinants of happiness? *Economic Journal*, 114(497):641–659.
- Florida, R. (2008). *Who’s your city?* Basic Books, New York NY.
- Florida, R. and Schneider, B. (2018). The global housing crisis. scarce, unaffordable housing is not a local problem in a few places, but is baked into the 21st-century global city. it’s time for cities, nations, and global leaders to start acting like it. *City Lab*.
- Fourcade, M., Ollion, E., and Algan, Y. (2015). The superiority of economists. *Revista de Economía Institucional*, 17(33):13–43.
- Frank, R. (2012). *The Darwin economy: Liberty, competition, and the common good*. Princeton University Press, Princeton NJ.
- Frank, R. H. (2004). How not to buy happiness. *Daedalus*, 133(2):69–79.

- Frank, R. H. (2005). Does absolute income matter. In Bruni, L. and Porta, P. L., editors, *Economics and Happiness*. Oxford University Press, New York NY.
- Frank, R. H. (2008). Should public policy respond to positional externalities? *Journal of Public Economics*, 92(8):1777–1786.
- Frank, R. H. (2016). *Success and luck: Good fortune and the myth of meritocracy*. Princeton University Press.
- Freud, S., Riviere, J., and Strachey, J. (1930). *Civilization and its discontents*. Hogarth Press London.
- Friedman, M. (1970). The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times Magazine*.
- Gaigbe-Togbe, V., Bassarsky, L., Gu, D., Spoorenberg, T., and Zeifman, L. (2022). World population prospects. 2022.
- Gershuny, J. (2005). Busyness as the badge of honor for the new superordinate working class. *Social research*, pages 287–314.
- Glaeser, E. (2011a). Cities, productivity, and quality of life. *Science*, 333(6042):592–594.
- Glaeser, E. (2011b). *Triumph of the City: How Our Greatest Invention Makes Us Richer, Smarter, Greener, Healthier, and Happier*. Penguin Press, New York NY.
- Glaeser, E. (2014). Happiness is overrated. *Boston Globe*.
- Glaeser, E., Gottlieb, J., and Ziv, O. (2014). Maximising happiness does not maximise welfare. *Vox*.
- Glaeser, E. L., Gottlieb, J. D., and Ziv, O. (2016). Unhappy cities. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 34(2):S129–S182.
- Goldman, E., Falk, C., Pateman, B., and Moran, J. M. (2003). *Emma Goldman: Made for America, 1890-1901*, volume 1. Univ of California Press.
- Haidt, J. (2012). *The righteous mind: Why good people are divided by politics and religion*. Vintage.

- Hanson, V. D. (2015). The oldest divide. with roots dating back to our founding, america’s urban-rural split is wider than ever. *City Journal*, page Autumn 2015.
- Helliwell, J., Layard, R., and Sachs, J. (2012). World happiness report. *The Earth Institute, Columbia University*.
- Helliwell, J., Layard, R., Sachs, J., and De Neve, J. (2020). World happiness report 2020. *New York: Sustainable Development Solutions Network. Saatavilla <https://happiness-report.s3.amazonaws.com/2020/WHR20.pdf>*.
- Hodgson, G. M. (1993). *Economics and Evolution: Bringing Life Back Into Economics*. University of Michigan Press.
- Hough, M. (2004). *Cities and natural process*. Routledge, New York NY.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic, and political change in 43 societies*. Princeton Univ Pr, Princeton NJ.
- Joye, Y., Bolderdijk, J. W., Köster, M. A., and Piff, P. K. (2020). A diminishment of desire: Exposure to nature relative to urban environments dampens materialism. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 54:126783.
- Kahneman, D., Krueger, A. B., Schkade, D. A., Schwarz, N., and Stone, A. A. (2004). A survey method for characterizing daily life experience: The day reconstruction method. *Science*, 306(5702):1776–1780.
- Kallis, G. (2011). In defence of degrowth. *Ecological Economics*, 70(5):873–880.
- Kallis, G., Kerschner, C., and Martinez-Alier, J. (2012). The economics of degrowth. *Ecological Economics*, 84:172–180.
- Kasser, T. (2003). *The high price of materialism*. MIT press.
- Kasser, T. (2016). Materialistic values and goals. *Annual review of psychology*, 67:489–514.
- Kasser, T. and Ryan, R. (1993). A dark side of the american dream: correlates of financial success as a central life aspiration. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 65(2):410.

- Khanna, P. (2016). A new map for america. *The New York Times*.
- Klein, N. (2014). *This changes everything: capitalism vs. the climate*. Simon and Schuster, New York NY.
- Kotkin, J. (2013). Richard florida concedes the limits of the creative class. *The Dailybeast*, (March).
- Krugman, P. (2012). Economics in the crisis. *The New York Times*.
- Kwak, J. (2017). *Economism. Bad Economics and the Rise of Inequality*. Penguin Random House.
- Larson, L. R., Jennings, V., and Cloutier, S. A. (2016). Public parks and wellbeing in urban areas of the united states. *PloS one*, 11(4):e0153211.
- Layard, R. (2005). *Happiness. Lessons from a new science*. The Penguin Press, New York NY.
- Lenzi, C. and Perucca, G. (2016a). Are urbanized areas source of life satisfaction? evidence from eu regions. *Papers in Regional Science*.
- Lenzi, C. and Perucca, G. (2016b). The easterlin paradox and the urban-rural divide in life satisfaction: Evidence from romania. *Unpublished*; <http://www.grupposervizioambiente.it>.
- Lenzi, C. and Perucca, G. (2019). The nexus between innovation and wellbeing across the eu space: What role for urbanisation? *Urban Studies*, page 0042098018818947.
- Lenzi, C. and Perucca, G. (2020). Not too close, not too far: Urbanisation and life satisfaction along the urban hierarchy. *Urban Studies*, page 0042098020962397.
- Leonard, A. (2010). *The story of stuff: How our obsession with stuff is trashing the planet, our communities, and our health-and a vision for change*. Simon and Schuster.
- Linden, D. (2011). *The Compass of Pleasure: How Our Brains Make Fatty Foods, Orgasm, Exercise, Marijuana, Generosity, Vodka, Learning, and Gambling Feel So Good*. Viking Press.
- Lu, C., Schellenberg, G., Hou, F., and Helliwell, J. F. (2015). How’s life in the city? life satisfaction across census metropolitan areas and economic regions in canada. *Economic Insights*, 11-626-X(46).

- Lucas, R. E., Clark, A. E., Georgellis, Y., and Diener, E. (2006). Unemployment alters the set point for life satisfaction. *Psychological Science*, 15(1):8–13.
- Lykken, D. and Tellegen, A. (1996). Happiness is a stochastic phenomenon. *Psychological Science*, 7(3):186–189.
- Lyons, R. G. (2007). Towards a theory of work satisfaction: An examination of karl marx and frederick herzberg. *Journal of Thought*, 42(3-4):105–113.
- Manke, A. (2021). *Exploring the relationship of built environment, commute, and walkability with subjective wellbeing in metro areas of United States*. PhD thesis, Rutgers University-Camden Graduate School.
- Martinson, T. (2000). *American dreamscape: The pursuit of happiness in postwar suburbia*. Carroll & Graf Pub.
- Marx, K. (1844a). Economic and philosophical manuscripts of 1844. human requirements and division of labour under the rule of private property. *www.marxists.org*.
- Marx, K. (1844b). The power of money. *marxists.org*.
- Marx, K. ([1867] 2010). *Capital, vol. 1*. <http://www.marxists.org>.
- Maryanski, A. and Turner, J. H. (1992). *The social cage: Human nature and the evolution of society*. Stanford University Press.
- Maslow, A. ([1954] 1987). *Motivation and personality*. Longman, 3 edition.
- Masuda, Y. J., Williams, J. R., and Tallis, H. (2020). Does life satisfaction vary with time and income? investigating the relationship among free time, income, and life satisfaction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, pages 1–23.
- McMahon, D. M. (2006). *Happiness: A history*. Grove Pr.
- Michalos, A. C. (2014). Quality of life, two-variable theory. In *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research*, pages 5307–5309. Springer.

- Misra, T. (2015). New york city apartments are getting even more crowded. *City Lab*.
- Mogilner, C. (2010). The pursuit of happiness: Time, money, and social connection. *Psychological Science*, 21(9):1348–1354.
- Morais, P., Miguéis, V. L., and Camanho, A. S. (2013). Quality of life experienced by human capital: An assessment of european cities. *Social indicators research*, 110(1):187–206.
- Morrison, P. (2015). Capturing effects of cities on subjective wellbeing. *European Regional Science Association Conference, Lisbon*.
- Mouratidis, K. (2017). Is compact city livable? the impact of compact versus sprawled neighbourhoods on neighbourhood satisfaction. *Urban Studies*, page 0042098017729109.
- Mouratidis, K. (2018). Rethinking how built environments influence subjective well-being: a new conceptual framework. *Journal of Urbanism: International Research on Placemaking and Urban Sustainability*, 11(1):24–40.
- Mouratidis, K. (2019). Compact city, urban sprawl, and subjective well-being. *Cities*, 92:261–272.
- Mouratidis, K. (2020a). Commute satisfaction, neighborhood satisfaction, and housing satisfaction as predictors of subjective well-being and indicators of urban livability. *Travel Behaviour and Society*, 21:265–278.
- Mouratidis, K. (2020b). Neighborhood characteristics, neighborhood satisfaction, and well-being: The links with neighborhood deprivation. *Land Use Policy*, 99:104886.
- Mouratidis, K., Ettema, D., and Næss, P. (2019). Urban form, travel behavior, and travel satisfaction. *Transportation research part A: policy and practice*, 129:306–320.
- Musikanski, L., Polley, C., Cloutier, S., Berejnoi, E., and Colbert, J. (2017). Happiness in communities: How neighborhoods, cities and states use subjective well-being metrics. *Journal of Social Change*, 9(1):3.
- Myers, D. G. (2000). The funds, friends, and faith of happy people. *American Psychologist*, 55(1):56–67.
- Naim, M. (2016). Economists still think economics is the best. *The Atlantic*.

- Ng, Y.-K. (1997). A case for happiness, cardinalism, and interpersonal comparability. *The Economic Journal*, 107(445):1848–1858.
- Office for National Statistics (2011). Analysis of experimental subjective well-being data from the annual population survey. *The National Archives*.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. (2011). Geography of european life satisfaction. *in Social Indicators Research*, 101(3):435–445.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. (2012). Income and well-being across european provinces. *Social Indicators Research*, pages 1–22.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. (2013). City life: Rankings (livability) versus perceptions (satisfaction). *Social Indicators Research*, 110(2):433–451.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. (2015). *Happiness and Place. Why Life is Better Outside of the City*. Palgrave Macmillan, New York NY.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. (2016). Unhappy metropolis (when american city is too big). *Cities*.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. and Mazelis, J. M. (2016). Urbanism and happiness: A test of wirth’s theory on urban life. *Urban Studies*.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. and Tursi, N. O. (2015). Luxury car owners are not happier than frugal car owners. *Forthcoming in International Review of Economics*.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. and Valente, R. R. (2017). The unconscious size fetish: Glorification and desire of the city. In Kapoor, I., editor, *Psychoanalysis and the Global*. University of Nebraska Press.
- Okulicz-Kozaryn, A. and Valente, R. R. (2019). Livability and subjective well-being across european cities. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 14(1):197–220.
- O’Sullivan, A. (2009). *Urban economics*. McGraw-Hill.
- Oswald, A. (2014). Keynote ii. *2014 Wellbeing and Public Policy Conference at Hamilton College*.

- Oswald, A. and Wu, S. (2009a). Well-being across America. *IZA Discussion Papers*.
- Oswald, A. J. (1997). Happiness and economic performance. *Economic Journal*, 107(44):1815–1831.
- Oswald, A. J. and Wu, S. (2009b). Objective Confirmation of Subjective Measures of Human Well-Being: Evidence from the U.S.A. *Science*, 327(5965):576–579.
- Pachauri, R. K., Allen, M., Barros, V., Broome, J., Cramer, W., Christ, R., Church, J., Clarke, L., Dahe, Q., Dasgupta, P., et al. (2014). *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. IPCC.
- Pacione, M. (2003). Urban environmental quality and human wellbeing—a social geographical perspective. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 65(1):19–30.
- Pfeiffer, D. and Cloutier, S. (2016). Planning for happy neighborhoods. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, pages 1–13.
- Pfeiffer, D., Ehlenz, M. M., Andrade, R., Cloutier, S., and Larson, K. L. (2020). Do neighborhood walkability, transit, and parks relate to residents’ life satisfaction? insights from phoenix. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 86(2):171–187.
- Putnam, R. D. (2001). *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Rauhut, D. (2020). 2 adam smith—a champion for the poor! *Poverty in the History of Economic Thought: From Mercantilism to Neoclassical Economics*.
- Rayo, L. and Becker, G. (2007). Evolutionary efficiency and happiness. *Journal of Political Economy*, 115(2):302–337.
- Sandvik, E., Diener, E., and Seidlitz, L. (1993). Subjective well-being: The convergence and stability of self-report and non-self-report measures. *Journal of Personality*, 61(3):317–342.
- Schmuck, P., Kasser, T., and Ryan, R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic goals: Their structure and relationship to well-being in german and us college students. *Social Indicators Research*, 50(2):225–241.

- Schneider, M. (2005). The quality of life in large american cities: Objective and subjective social indicators. *Citation Classics from Social Indicators Research*, pages 101–115.
- Schnittker, J. (2008). Happiness and success: Genes, families, and the psychological effects of socioeconomic position and social support. *American Journal of Sociology*, 114(S1):S233–S259.
- Schuetz, J. (2019). Cost, crowding, or commuting? housing stress on the middle class. *Brookings*.
- Senior, J. (2006). Some dark thoughts on happiness. *New York Magazine*, (July).
- Senlier, N., Yildiz, R., and Akta, E. (2009). A perception survey for the evaluation of urban quality of life in kocaeli and a comparison of the life satisfaction with the european cities. *Social Indicators Research*, 94:213–226.
- Seuntjens, T. G., Zeelenberg, M., Breugelmans, S. M., and Van de Ven, N. (2015). Defining greed. *British Journal of Psychology*, 106(3):505–525.
- Simmel, G. (1903). The metropolis and mental life. *The Urban Sociology Reader*, pages 23–31.
- Simmel, G. (1971). *On individuality and social forms*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago IL.
- Sirgy, M. J. (2002). *The psychology of quality of life*, volume 12. Springer.
- Skidelsky, E. and Skidelsky, R. (2012). *How much is enough?: money and the good life*. Penguin UK.
- Solari, C. D. (2019). America’s housing is getting more crowded. how will that affect children? *Urban Institute*.
- Solomon, B. D. (2023). Intergovernmental panel on climate change (ipcc). In *Dictionary of Ecological Economics*, pages 302–302. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Steel, P., Schmidt, J., and Shultz, J. (2008). Refining the relationship between personality and subjective well-being. *Psychological bulletin*, 134(1):138–161.
- Stiglitz, J., Sen, A., and Fitoussi, J. (2009). Report by the commission on the measurement of economic performance and social progress. Available at www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr.

- Subramaniam, A. (2010). *Sadhguru, More Than a Life*. Penguin Books India.
- Thoreau, H. D. (1995 [1854]). *Walden*. Dover Publications, Mineola NY.
- Tönnies, F. ([1887] 2002). *Community and society*. DoverPublications.com, Mineola NY.
- Veenhoven, R. (1988). The utility of happiness. *Social indicators research*, 20(4):333–354.
- Veenhoven, R. (1991). Is happiness relative? *Social Indicators Research*, 24(1):1–34.
- Veenhoven, R. (1995). World database of happiness. *Social Indicators Research*, 34(3):299–313.
- Veenhoven, R. (2000). The four qualities of life. *Journal of happiness studies*, 1(1):1–39.
- Veenhoven, R. (2008). Sociological theories of subjective well-being. In Eid, M. and Larsen, R., editors, *The Science of Subjective Well-being: A tribute to Ed Diener*, pages 44–61. The Guilford Press, New York NY.
- Veenhoven, R. (2014). Livability theory. *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research*, pages 3645–3647.
- Veenhoven, R. and Ehrhardt, J. (1995). The cross-national pattern of happiness: Test of predictions implied in three theories of happiness. *Social Indicators Research*, 34(1):33–68.
- Walker, J. S. (1992). Greed is good... or is it? economic ideology and moral tension in a graduate school of business. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11(4):273–283.
- Wang, L. and Murnighan, J. K. (2011). On greed. *Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1):279–316.
- Weinberg, N. (2011). How can cities be preemptive and effective in preventing overcrowding? *Datasmart-Harvard*.
- Whillans, A. V., Dunn, E. W., Smeets, P., Bekkers, R., and Norton, M. I. (2017). Buying time promotes happiness. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, page 201706541.
- Wilkinson, R. G. and Pickett, K. E. (2010). *The spirit level: Why equality is better for everyone*. Penguin, New York NY.

- Williams, J. R., Masuda, Y. J., and Tallis, H. (2016). A measure whose time has come: Formalizing time poverty. *Social Indicators Research*, 128(1):265–283.
- Wirth, L. (1938). Urbanism as a way of life. *American Journal of Sociology*, 44(1):1–24.
- Zafirovski, M. (1999). What is really rational choice? beyond the utilitarian concept of rationality. *Current Sociology*, 47(1):47–113.
- Zukin, S. (2009). *Naked city: The death and life of authentic urban places*. Oxford University Press, New York NY.

6 Appendix/Supplementary Online Material (SOM)

6.1 Measurement: Various Typologies Of QOL

QOL indices mostly capture material standard or level. There are many QOL indices, notably QOLS scale (Burckhardt et al. 2003). Local or even neighborhood level QOL (and some SWB) is discussed in Pfeiffer et al. (2020), Cloutier et al. (2018), Cloutier and Pfeiffer (2017), Musikanski et al. (2017), Pfeiffer and Cloutier (2016), Larson et al. (2016), Cloutier (2014), Cloutier et al. (2014), and local/neighborhood level SWB is discussed in: Mouratidis (2020b,a, 2019), Mouratidis et al. (2019), Mouratidis (2018, 2017) There are some sub-country, regional or province level studies of QOL and SWB: Lenzi and Perucca (2020, 2019, 2016a), Okulicz-Kozaryn (2012, 2011)

QOL indices at country level include:

- <http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org> (some SWB included as well)
- <http://happyplanetindex.org/> (a notable exception, also includes SWB)
- <https://www.usnews.com/news/best-countries/quality-of-life-rankings>
- <https://www.bcg.com/publications/interactives/seda-2019-guide>

QOL indices at city level include:

- <http://whosyourcity.com>,
- <http://www.gallup.com/poll/145913/city-wellbeing-tracking.aspx>,
- <https://wallethub.com/edu/happiest-places-to-live/32619>
- http://www.economist.com/blogs/gulliver/2011/02/liveability_ranking
- <http://www.mercer.com>

These are so called “best places to live.” Mercer index appears to be most popular.⁶

6.1.1 Mercer Index

Mercer surveyed expatriates on the importance of each of the 39 issues. The weights assigned to each category are as follows (most heavily weighted items in bold):⁷

- 23 **Political and social environment** (political stability, crime, law enforcement, etc)
- 4 Economic environment (currency exchange regulations, banking services, etc)
- 6 Socio-cultural environment (censorship, limitations on personal freedom, etc)
- 19 **Health and sanitation** (medical supplies and services, infectious diseases, sewage, waste disposal, air pollution, etc)
- 3 Schools and education (standard and availability of international schools, etc)
- 13 **Public services and transportation** (electricity, water, public transport, traffic congestion, etc)
- 9 **Recreation** (restaurants, theaters, cinemas, sports and leisure, etc)
- 11 **Consumer goods** (availability of food/daily consumption items, cars, etc)
- 5 Housing (housing, household appliances, furniture, maintenance services, etc)
- 6 Natural environment (climate, record of natural disasters)

6.2 Urban Pride: Towers

Burj Khalifa is the tallest tower in the world so far in figure 6.

⁶“The Economist and Forbes base their rankings primarily on data from the Mercer consulting company”(http://www.livablecities.org/blog/value-rankings-and-meaning-livability).

⁷I obtained weights by contacting Mercer in 2011. I have contacted them again to see if there was any change and was told that it has not changed. Morais et al. (2013) reports the same weights. A full list of 39 factors is in (Okulicz-Kozaryn 2013).



Figure 6: Burj Khalifa—the tallest building in the world as of 2020.

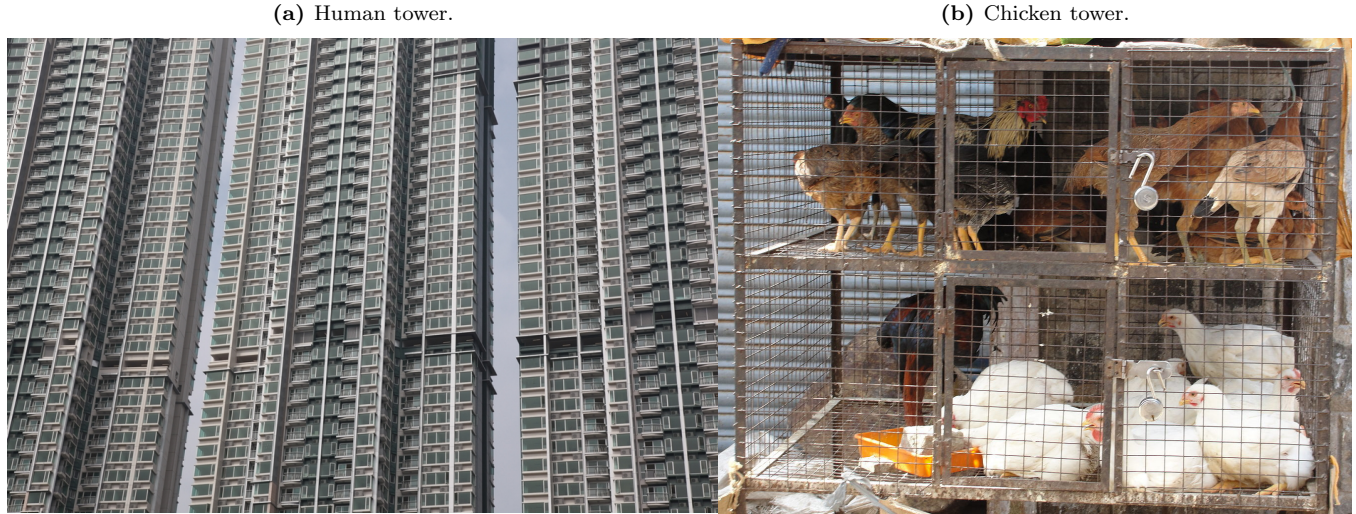
6.3 Urban Malaise: Crowding

There are striking examples of crowding in largest cities. While majority of urbanites do not live in such extreme crowding, the trend is towards more crowding as urban population is growing, cities are becoming larger and much less affordable (Misra 2015, Florida and Schneider 2018, Weinberg 2011, Solari 2019, Schuetz 2019, Kotkin 2013).

Human crowding in city towers can be visualized as compared to chicken crowding in cages in figure 7.

Human cage-size living is already happening. New York offers some 250 sq feet apartments. Some New Yorkers live in even smaller 100 sq feet apartments.⁸

Figure 7: Towers as economically efficient housing for humans and chickens.



6.4 Mental Health Crisis

The World Health Organization estimates that in the next few decades depression will become the second most frequent cause of disability in the world (cited in Diener 2009, p. 66). Western countries are facing a mental health crisis, notably UK and US (e.g., Wilkinson and Pickett 2010).

Interestingly, happiness research in psychology has started from researching depression—Martin Seligman, a happiness pioneer in psychology, first studied depression, to bring people from miserable to normal. Then he realized that we can do better than that and increase wellbeing beyond neutral towards full human flourishing.

⁸See <http://7online.com/realestate/couple-squeezes-into-one-of-manhattans-tiniest-apartments/371661/>, <http://inhabitat.com/nyc/womans-impossibly-tiny-90-sq-ft-manhattan-apartment-is-one-of-the-smallest-in-nyc/90-square-foot-apartment/>, <http://www.nydailynews.com/new-york/uptown/smallest-apartment-nyc-article-1.1459066>. Some apartments or “cubbyholes” are even smaller at striking 40 square feet, see for instance: <http://www.nytimes.com/2016/09/18/realestate/so-you-think-your-place-is-small.html>. In other dense cities crowding is similar, e.g., <https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2019/07/22/world/asia/hong-kong-housing-inequality.html>.