Agglomeration Economies Urban Economics

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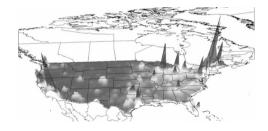
Agenda

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Duranton and Overmar
- 3 Aside: A Primer on Density Estimation
 - Parametric vs nonparametric methods
 - Parametric Methods
 - Non-parametric methods
 - Non-parametric methods: The Histogram
 - Non-parametric methods: the naive estimator
 - Non-parametric methods: Rosenblatt-Parzen density estimation approach
- 4 Duranton and Overman: Again



Agglomeration Economies

▶ Why do we see such a remarkable clustering of human activity in a small number of urban areas?



Evidence of Agglomeration Economies

- ► Three strategies to identify agglomeration economies
 - 1 Show there is too much spatial concentration to be random (Duranton and Overman, 2005)
 - 2 Compare productivity over space (Greenstone, 2010)
 - 3 Compare wages and rents across space (Quantitative Spatial Models, Ahlfeldt et al, 2015)

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Extremes of Localization and Dispersion

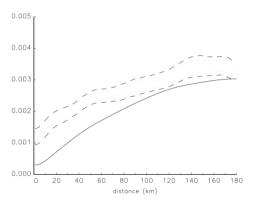


(c) Other Agricultural and Forestry Machinery (SIC2932)

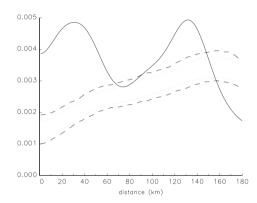


(d) Machinery for Textile, Apparel and Leather Production (SIC2954)

K Density Estimates



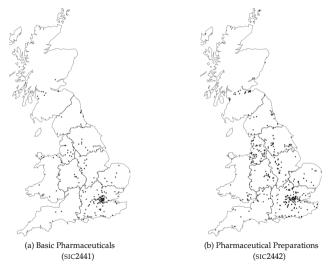
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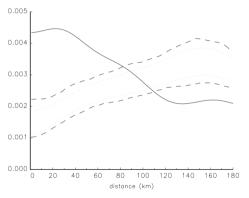
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Figure 2. K-density, local confidence intervals and global confidence bands for four illustrative industries

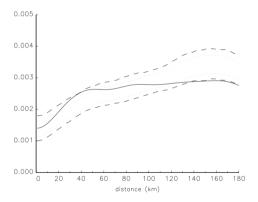
Ambiguous Cases



Ambiguous Cases



(a) Basic Pharmaceuticals (SIC2441)



(b) Pharmaceutical Preparations (SIC2442)

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Univariate density estimation: parametric vs nonparametric methods

- ▶ Let f = f(.) be the density function of the random variable X
- ▶ Let x_1 , x_2 , . . . x_n be a random sample of X. Then, $x_i \sim f$ iid
- ▶ How can we estimate the density in a particular point x_0 , then $f(x_0)$?

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- Example:

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 (1)

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- The ignorance about $f(x_0)$ is limited to ignorance of the two parameters μ and σ
- Consistent estimators (ML) are:

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

$$\hat{\sigma} = S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}$$
(2)

$$\hat{\tau} = S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}$$
 (3)

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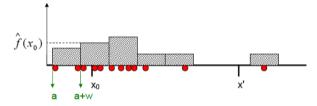
Non-parametric methods

- ▶ They seek to estimate $f(x_o)$ without assuming a particular functional form, only assuming certain regularity conditions of the density (smoothness, differentiability)
- ► How is the sample information interpreted?
- ▶ If we observe more data "near" x_0 than x_1 we infer that $f(x_0) > f(x_1)$



A rudimentary non-parametric estimator: the histogram

- ▶ It consists of estimating the probability within intervals through the relative frequency of observations within that interval.
- ightharpoonup The intervals are determined from an initial point a and a bandwidth w



- ► The area of the bars is the relative frequency: $\frac{Nber obs. in interval}{n}$
- ▶ The height of the bars is an estimator of the density at any point in the interval

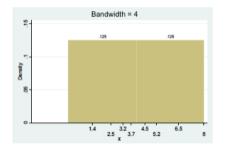
$$\hat{f}(x_o) = \frac{Nber. obs interval}{n \times w} \tag{4}$$

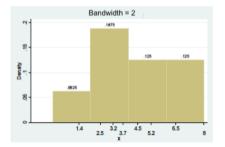
Histogram problems: (1) depends on starting point



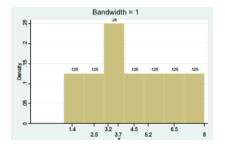


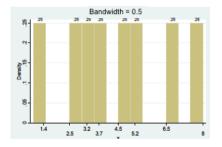
Histogram problems: (2) depends on the bandwidth





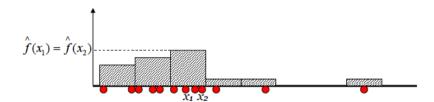
Histogram problems: (2) depends on the bandwidth





Histogram problems: (3) is discontinuous at the ends of the interval

- Note that $\hat{f}(x_1) = \hat{f}(x_2)$
- ▶ But $\hat{f}(x_2 + \epsilon) = \frac{1}{4}\hat{f}(x_2)$ for any $\epsilon > 0$



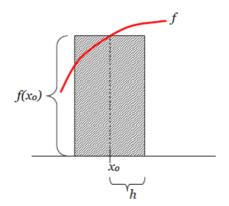
Discrete case

- ► X is a discrete VA, *iid*
- ► Objective: estimate $Pr(X = x_o) = f(x_o)$
- ► The naive estimator comes from:

$$\hat{f}(x_o) = \frac{\# x_i = x_o}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(x_i = x_o)$$
 (5)

Continuous case

- ▶ X is a continuous VA (Pr(X = x0) = 0) we evaluate the probability that X is "close" to x_0 .
- ▶ We say that x_i is close to x_0 if x_i belongs to the interval $(x_o h, x_o + h)$



► Formally:

$$2h \times f(x_0) \approx \int_{x_0 - h}^{x_0 + h} f(z) dz = \Pr[x_0 - h < X < x_0 + h]$$
 (6)

$$\approx \frac{\# x_i \in (x_0 - h, x_o + h)}{n} \tag{7}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(x_i \in (x_0 - h, x_0 + h))$$
 (8)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(x_0 - h < x_i < x_o + h)$$
 (9)

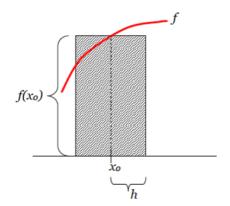
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I\left(-1 < \frac{x_i - x_o}{h} < 1\right) \tag{10}$$

(11)



Continuous case

- ▶ X is a continuous RV ($Pr(X = x_0) = 0$) we evaluate the probability that X is "close" to x_0 .
- ▶ We say that x_i is close to x_0 if x_i belongs to the interval $(x_o h, x_o + h)$



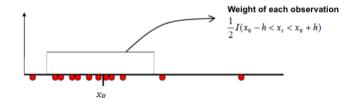
► Then:

$$f(x_o) \cong \frac{1}{2h \times n} \sum_{i=1}^n I\left(-1 < \frac{x_i - x_o}{h} < 1\right)$$
 (12)

 $ightharpoonup \hat{f}(x_o)$ is an estimator of the height of the rectangle in the previous graph

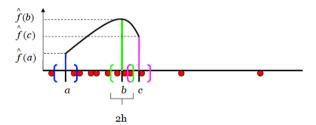
Notice:

- \triangleright Every possible point x_0 is the center of an interval
- ▶ Observations that are within that interval (less than one h away from x_0) are weighted by 1/2



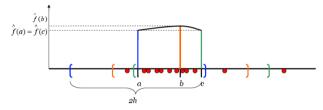
Notice:

- ▶ To estimate the density at points a, b and c we construct intervals around them
- ► Then, unlike what happens in the histograms, the intervals of the naive estimator overlap (the initial point no longer matters)



Problems

▶ It depends on h: the larger the bandwidth, the more distant observations from x_o are used to estimate $f(x_o)$. The higher h, the smoother the estimated density (h=smoothing parameter)



- ▶ The weight 1/2*I*(.) is discontinuous at the limits of each interval, generating discontinuities in the estimated density.
- ▶ The weight treats observations very close to x_0 in the same way as others somewhat further away, as long as they belong to the interval of length 2h around x_0

- ► The kernel estimator is a generalization of the naive estimator that overcomes some of the deficiencies of the latter.
- ▶ The weight 1/2I(.) of the naive estimator is replaced by a new weight K(.):

$$\hat{f}(x_o) = \frac{1}{n \times h} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x_i - x_0}{h}\right) \tag{13}$$

Rosenblatt-Parzen density estimation approach

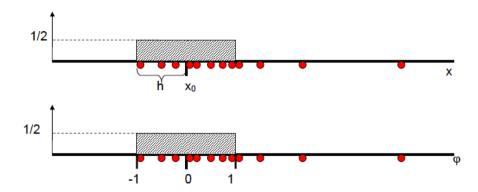
- ▶ The weights or kernels are known functions that satisfy:
 - $K(\phi) \geq 0$
 - $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(\phi) d\phi = 1$
 - $(\phi) = K(-\phi)$

Example 1: rectangular or uniform kernel

$$K(\phi) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & |\phi| < 1\\ 0 & o.w. \end{cases} \tag{14}$$

where $\phi = \frac{x_i - x_o}{h}$ In this case, the Kernels estimator matches the naive estimator. Note that the weight is similar to a uniform density function on the interval (-1, 1)

Example 1: rectangular or uniform kernel



Example 2: Gaussian kernel

► Gaussian

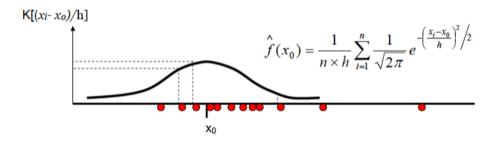
$$K(\phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi} e^{-\phi^2/2}$$
 (15)

- ► The kernel function corresponds to the standard normal density function that satisfies the above assumptions.
- ► For this type of kernel, the density estimator is given by:

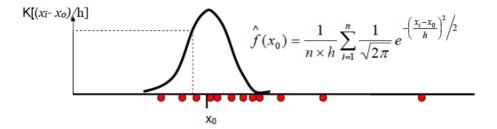
$$\hat{f}(x_o) = \frac{1}{n \times h} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi} e^{-\left(\frac{x_i - x_o}{h}\right)^2/2}$$
(16)

► Important: we don't assume normal distribution for any variable. The functional form is just used to weight the sample observations

Example 2: Gaussian kernel



Example 2: Gaussian kernel (smaller h)



Other Kernels

Kernel type	Formula	Support
Gaussian or normal	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\exp(-\varphi^2/2)$	$\varphi \in (-\infty, \infty)$
Epanechnikov	$\frac{3}{4\sqrt{5}}(1-\frac{1}{5}\varphi^2)I(\varphi <\sqrt{5})$	$\varphi \in \left(-\sqrt{5}, \sqrt{5}\right)$
Epanechnikov modificado	$\frac{3}{4}(1-\varphi^2)I(\varphi <1)$	<i>φ</i> ∈ (-1, 1)
Triangular	$(1- \varphi)I(\varphi <1)$	$\varphi \in (-1, 1)$
Uniform or rectangular	$\frac{1}{2}I(\varphi <1)$	<i>φ</i> ∈ (-1, 1)

Properties: Bias

- ► The kernel estimator is generally biased.
- ► The approximate expression for the bias is given by:

$$bias[\hat{f}(x_o)] \approx \frac{h^2}{2} f''(x_o) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(\phi) \phi^2 d\phi$$
 (17)

► The approximate expression for the asymptotic variance of the kernel estimator is given by:

$$variance[\hat{f}(x_o)] \approx \frac{1}{n \times h} f(x_o) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K^2(\phi) d\phi$$
 (18)

Bandwidth Selection

$$MSE(\hat{f}(x)) = Var(\hat{f}(x)) + \left(bias(\hat{f}(x))\right)^2$$
 (19)

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► We obtain a bandwidth which globally balances bias and variance by minimizing MSE with respect to h, i.e.,

$$h_{opt} = \left(\frac{\int K^2(z)dz}{(\int z^2 K(z)dz)^2 \int f'(x)^2 dx}\right)^{-1/5} n^{-1/5}$$
 (20)

Bandwidth Selection

- ▶ There are two popular approaches to bandwidth selection,
 - 1 Rules-of-thumb,

The weighted average estimator or kernel method Rule-of-Thumb

- ▶ The rule-of-thumb for choosing the bandwidth makes assumtions about *f* and *K*
- ► For example: under a gaussian density and kernel

$$h_{opt} = 1.059\sigma n^{-1/5} (21)$$

Bandwidth Selection

- ▶ There are two popular approaches to bandwidth selection,
 - 1 Rules-of-thumb,
 - 2 cross-validation methods,

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Extremes of Localization and Dispersion



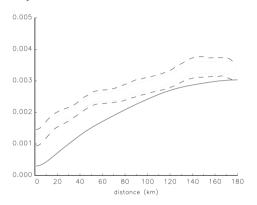
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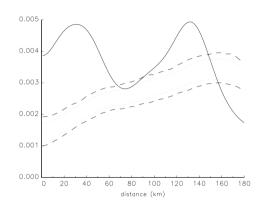
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K Density Estimates



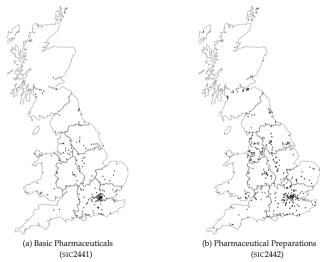
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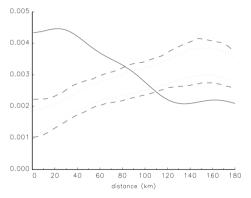
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Figure 2. K-density, local confidence intervals and global confidence bands for four illustrative industries

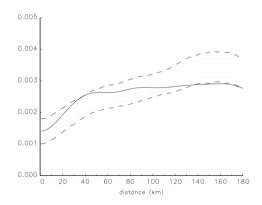
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