Agglomeration Economies Urban Economics

Ignacio Sarmiento-Barbieri

Universidad de los Andes

September 25, 2024

Agenda

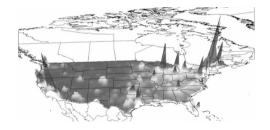
1 Motivation

2 Duranton and Overmar

3 Quantitative Spatial Models

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 et al., 2010)
 - 3 Compare wages and rents across space (Quantitative Spatial Models, Ahlfeldt et al, 2015)

Agenda

Motivation

2 Duranton and Overman

3 Quantitative Spatial Models

Extremes of Localization and Dispersion

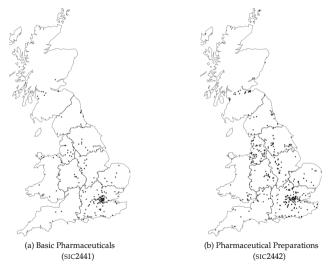


(c) Other Agricultural and Forestry Machinery (SIC2932)



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

Ambiguous Cases



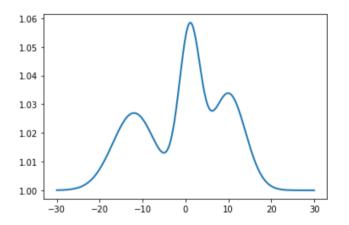
1 Select Relevant Establishments:

- Choose establishments based on industry and size.
- ► Consider different thresholds to assess robustness (e.g., include only those contributing to 90% of employment).

2 Compute Bilateral Distances:

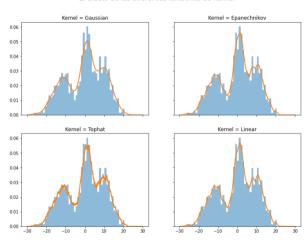
- ► Calculate Euclidean distances between all pairs of establishments.
- ▶ Use Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) to estimate the density of these distances.

K Density Estimates



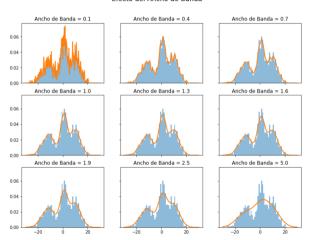
K Density Estimates

El efecto de las diferentes funciones de Kernel



K Density Estimates

Efecto del Ancho de Banda



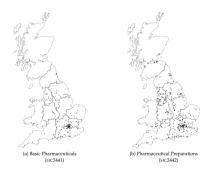
Density estimates

$$\hat{K}(d) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)h} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=1+1}^{n} K\left(\frac{d-d_{i,j}}{h}\right)$$
(1)

- $ightharpoonup d_{i,j}$ the observed distance between establishments i and j
- Gaussian kernel
- Section 3.4.2 of Silverman (1986): $h = 1.059\sigma n^{-1/5}$; $h = 0.79IQR\sigma n^{-1/5}$; $h = 0.79min\{\sigma, IQR/1.34\}n^{-1/5}$

3 Generate Counterfactuals:

- ▶ Randomly assign establishments to locations, maintaining the number of establishments and industrial concentration.
- ► Create 1,000 simulations to construct a baseline for comparison.



4 Statistical Significance and Localization Metrics

Local confidence intervals are constructed for each distance d by comparing the observed K-density, $\hat{K}(d)$, with the distribution of simulated K-densities from random assignments.

$$\bar{K}_A(d) = 5$$
th percentile of $\hat{K}_{sim}(d)$, (2)

$$\underline{\mathbf{K}}_{A}(d) = 95$$
th percentile of $\hat{K}_{sim}(d)$, (3)

Interpretation:

- ▶ If $\hat{K}(d) > \bar{K}_A(d)$, it indicates significant **localization** at distance d.
- ▶ If $\hat{K}(d) < \underline{K}_A(d)$, it indicates significant **dispersion** at distance d.

4 Statistical Significance and Localization Metrics

Local confidence intervals are constructed for each distance d by comparing the observed K-density, $\hat{K}(d)$, with the distribution of simulated K-densities from random assignments. **We can also define an index of localization:**

$$\gamma_A(d) \equiv \max \left(\hat{K}_A(d) - \bar{K}_A(d), 0 \right), \tag{4}$$

as well as an index of dispersion:

$$\psi_A(d) \equiv \max \left(\bar{K}_A(d) - \hat{K}_A(d), 0 \right). \tag{5}$$

Interpretation:

- ► To reject the hypothesis of randomness at distance d because of localization (dispersion), we only need $\gamma_A(d) > 0$ ($\psi_A(d) > 0$).
- ► The exact value of these two indices does not matter. However, the indices do indicate how much localization and dispersion there is at any level of distance.

4 Statistical Significance and Localization Metrics

Global confidence bands to make statements about the overall location patterns of an industry.

- ▶ Denote $\bar{K}_A(d)$ the upper confidence band of industry A.
- ▶ This band is hit by 5% of our simulations between 0 and 180 km.
- ► If

$$\hat{K}_A(d) > \bar{\bar{K}}_A(d)$$

for at least one $d \in [0, 180]$, this industry is said to exhibit **global localization** (at a 5% confidence level).

4 Statistical Significance and Localization Metrics

Global confidence bands to make statements about the overall location patterns of an industry.

- ► An industry which is very localized at short distances can show dispersion at larger distances.
- ▶ Then an industry is said to exhibit **global dispersion** (at a 5% confidence level) when

$$\hat{K}_A(d) < \underline{\underline{K}}_A(d)$$

for at least one $d \in [0, 180]$ and the industry does not exhibit localization.

16 / 43

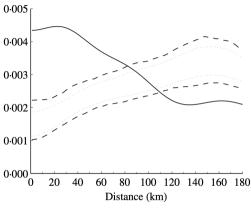
4 Statistical Significance and Localization Metrics

We can also define an index of global localization:

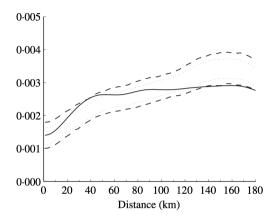
$$\gamma_A(d) \equiv \max\left(\hat{K}_A(d) - \bar{\bar{K}}_A(d), 0\right),\tag{6}$$

as well as an index of global dispersion:

$$\psi_A(d) \equiv \begin{cases} \max\left(\underline{\underline{K}}_A(d) - \hat{K}_A(d), 0\right) \text{ if } \sum_{d=0}^{d=180} = 0\\ 0 \text{ o.w.} \end{cases}$$
 (7)



(a) Basic Pharmaceuticals (SIC2441)



(b) Pharmaceutical Preparations (SIC2442)

Agenda

Motivation

2 Duranton and Overmar

3 Quantitative Spatial Models

Quantitative Spatial Models

- ▶ One of the most striking economic features of our world is the uneven distribution of economic activity across space.
- ► These rich patterns of the concentration of economic activity can be explained by a three-way interaction between natural advantages, agglomeration forces, and dispersion forces.
- ▶ The complexity of modeling these forces in spatial equilibrium has meant that the traditional theoretical literature on cities focused on stylized settings, such as a monocentric city or the Rosen Roback framework.
 - ► These models, however, **cannot** capture the rich internal variation in patterns of economic activity within and between real world locations

Quantitative Spatial (Urban) Models

- ▶ Although traditional models in urban economics explain certain features of the data, their simplifying assumptions olimit their usefulness for empirical work.
- These simplifying assumptions abstract from empirically relevant differences in natural advantage across locations, such as access to natural harbors or green parks.
- ➤ To address these limitations, recent quantitative spatial (urban) models allow for empirically relevant differences in natural advantage while also incorporating agglomeration forces.
- ▶ These models are designed to connect directly to observed data on cities.

- ► Consider a city (or coutry), embedded in a wider economy.
- ► The city/country consists of a set of discrete locations (blocks/cities).
- ▶ These locations are populated by workers, who are mobile between locations and the larger economy.
- Workers have idiosyncratic preferences for living and working in different locations within the city/country).
- ► They consider all the personal, work-related, or amenity-related reasons and pick the locations that yields the highest utility.

- ▶ We begin with a twist to Rosen-Roback; between cities
- ▶ Rosen–Roback key insight is that any local shock to the demand or supply of labor in a city is, in equilibrium, fully capitalized in the price of land.
- ► As a consequence, shocks to a local economy do not affect worker welfare.
- ► This rule's outs some interesting questions

- The goal of the model is to clarify what happens to wages, costs of housing and worker utility when a local economy experiences a shock to labor demand or labor supply.
- An example of a shock
 - to labor demand is an increase in productivity.
 - ▶ to labor supply is an increase in amenities.

- ▶ We'll work through a 2 location case to develop intuition, but it can be easily extended to n locations
- ▶ We assume that workers and firms are mobile across cities, but worker mobility is not necessarily infinite, because workers have **idiosyncratic preferences for certain locations**.

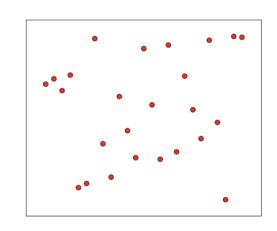
- ► Assume wages, rents, amenities are exogenous
- ▶ Person i's indirect utility of being in A:

$$V_A^i = w_A - r_A + A_A + \epsilon_A^i \tag{8}$$

► Person i's indirect utility of being in B:

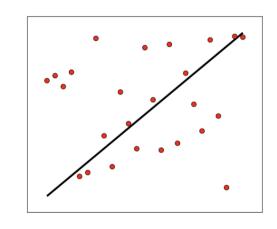
$$V_B^i = w_B - r_B + A_B + \epsilon_B^i \tag{9}$$



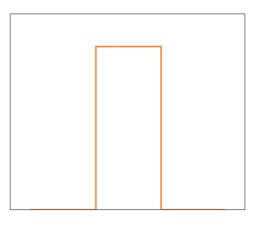


Value of shock B (ϵ_B)

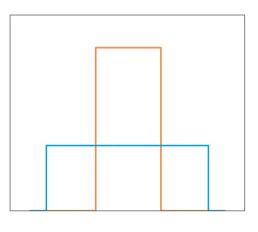
Value of shock A (ϵ_A)



Value of shock B (ϵ_B)



$$\epsilon_{A} - \epsilon_{B}$$



$$\epsilon_{A} - \epsilon_{B}$$

Firms

► The production function for firms in city c is Cobb–Douglas with constant returns to scale, so that

$$ln y_c = X_c - hN_c + (1 - h)K_c$$
(10)

- ightharpoonup where X_c is a city especific productivity shifter.
- there is an international capital market, and that capital is infinitely supplied at a given price i

Construction

► The supply of housing is

$$r_c = z + k_c N_c \tag{11}$$

- ▶ number of housing units in city c is assumed to be equal to the number of workers.
- \triangleright k_c is the elasticity of the supply of housing

Equilibrium

► Local labor market supply

$$w_B = w_A + (r_B - r_A) + (A_A - A_B) + s \frac{(N_B - N_A)}{N}$$
 (12)

Labor demand

$$w_c = X_c - (1 - h)N_c + (1 - h)K_c + \ln(h)$$
(13)

► Local housing demand

$$r_B = r_A + (w_B - w_A) + (A_B - A_A) - s \frac{(N_B - N_A)}{N}$$
(14)

Housing supply

$$r_c = z + k_c N_c \tag{15}$$



- ► Two periods
 - Period 1: cities are identical
 - Period 2: TFP increases in b: $X_{B2} = X_{B1} + \Delta$ where $\Delta > 0$
- ▶ Workers are more productive in B than A.

Change in nominal wages?

$$w_{B2} - w_{B1} = \Delta \tag{16}$$

$$w_{A2} - w_{A1} = 0 (17)$$

Change in population?

$$w_{B2} = w_{A2} + (r_{B2} - r_{A2}) + s \frac{(N_{B2} - N_{A2})}{N}$$
(18)

$$w_{B1} = w_{A1} + (r_{B1} - r_{A1}) + s \frac{(N_{B1} - N_{A1})}{N}$$
(19)

$$\Delta = k_B N_{B2} - k_A N_{A2} - k_B N_{B1} + k_A N_{A1} + s \frac{(N_{B2} - N_{A2} - N_{B1} + N_{A1})}{N}$$
 (20)

$$(N_{B2} - N_{B1}) = \frac{N}{N(k_B + k_A) + 2s} \Delta \ge 0$$
 (21)

36 / 43

Change in housing markets?

► In B

$$r_{B2} - r_{B1} = \frac{Nk_B}{N(k_B + k_A) + 2s} \Delta \ge 0$$
 (22)

► In A

$$r_{A2} - r_{A1} = \frac{-k_A N}{N(k_B + k_A) + 2s} \Delta \le 0$$
 (23)

Change in Real wages?

► In B

$$(w_{B2} - w_{B1}) - (r_{B2} - r_{B1}) = \frac{Nk_A + 2s}{N(k_B + k_A) + 2s} \Delta \ge 0$$
 (24)

► In A

$$(w_{A2} - w_{A1}) - (r_{A2} - r_{A1}) = \frac{k_A N}{N(k_R + k_A) + 2s} \Delta \ge 0$$
 (25)

38 / 43

Marginal worker?

$$V_c^i = w_c - r_c + A_c + \epsilon_c^i \tag{26}$$

▶ The change in the relative preference for city a of the marginal worker is equal a

$$\left(\epsilon_{A2}^{i} - \epsilon_{B2}^{i}\right) - \left(\epsilon_{A1}^{i} - \epsilon_{B1}^{i}\right) = \frac{2s}{N\left(k_{B} + k_{A}\right) + 2s}\Delta \ge 0 \tag{27}$$

- ▶ The marginal worker in period 2 is different from the marginal worker in period 1.
- ► Since city b offers higher real wages in period 2, the new marginal worker in period 2 has stronger preferences for city a.

Effect of a labor supply shock on wages and prices

- ► Two periods
 - Period 1 both cities are identical
 - ▶ Period 2 amenity increases in B: $A_{B2} = A_{B1} + \Delta'$ where $\Delta' > 0$

Spatial Equilibrium with Agglomeration Economies

- Consider the case where there are agglomeration economies so that the productivity of firms in a locality is an endogenous function of the level of economic activity in that locality.
- ► This amounts to endogenizing the city-specific productivity shifter.
- ▶ Eg. productivity in a locality is a function of the number of workers in that locality

$$X_c = f(N_c) \tag{28}$$

- with f' > 0
- Decisions of workers generates a positive externality.

Spatial Equilibrium with Agglomeration Economies

Assume

$$X_c = x_c + \gamma N_c \tag{29}$$

► The MPL

$$w_c = x_c + (\gamma - (1 - h)) N_c + (1 - h) K_c + \ln(h)$$
(30)

Spatial Equilibrium with Agglomeration Economies

- ► Two periods
 - Period 1 both cities are identical
 - Period 2 amenity increases in B: $X_{B2} = X_{B1} + \Delta$ where $\Delta > 0$