

Social Interactions, Tipping, and Segregation
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Introduction

Many choices and behaviors are affected by what other people do:

- choice of Mac vs PC
- smoke, drink, attend a party
- live in a neighborhood

An interesting and important feature of choice models with “social interactions” is that there can be:

- multiple equilibria
- “tipping” – unstable or knife-edge equilibria

In contrast, in conventional situations where each person makes a decision independent of what her peers do:

- there is a unique “equilibrium”
- the equilibrium changes smoothly

In this lecture we will discuss simple models of:

- social interactions in individual choice
- social interactions in a “market” setting

We will then look at some data on neighborhood segregation in major cities, and ask whether we see evidence of a particular kind of “tipping.” (The data are drawn from a recent paper by D.Card, A. Mas, and J. Rothstein).

I will argue that in most cities there is a critical threshold – “the tipping point” – such that if the minority share in a neighborhood exceeds this level, nearly all the whites leave.

I. Individual Choice

Consider the choice of a Mac or a PC. Assume they cost the same, and that everyone has to have either one or the other. Person i will get utility

$$u_i(0) = \epsilon_i$$

from owning a Mac. She will get utility

$$u_i(1) = \alpha + \beta p$$

from owning a PC, where p is the fraction of her friends that have a PC, and $\beta > 0$ reflects the social interaction effect.

She buys a PC if $u_i(1) > u_i(0)$, or if $\epsilon_i < \alpha + \beta p$.

If a fraction p of people already own a PC, then everyone with $\epsilon_i < \alpha + \beta p$ will buy a PC. The rest buy a Mac.

If no one else has a PC, the cut-off is

$$\epsilon_i < \alpha$$

Suppose that the lowest value of ϵ_i is ϵ_{Low} . If $\alpha < \epsilon_{\text{Low}}$ then when $p=0$, there is no one in the entire population who would buy a PC. But if $p>0$, there will be some who want to get a PC.

So the fraction of people who want a PC depends on how many people already have a PC. This can lead to multiple equilibria.

Call $F(\epsilon)$ the “distribution function” of ϵ_i . For any value ϵ

$$F(\epsilon) = \text{fraction with } \epsilon_i \leq \epsilon .$$

We'll assume F is “S-shaped” as it is if the distribution of ϵ_i is “bell shaped”.

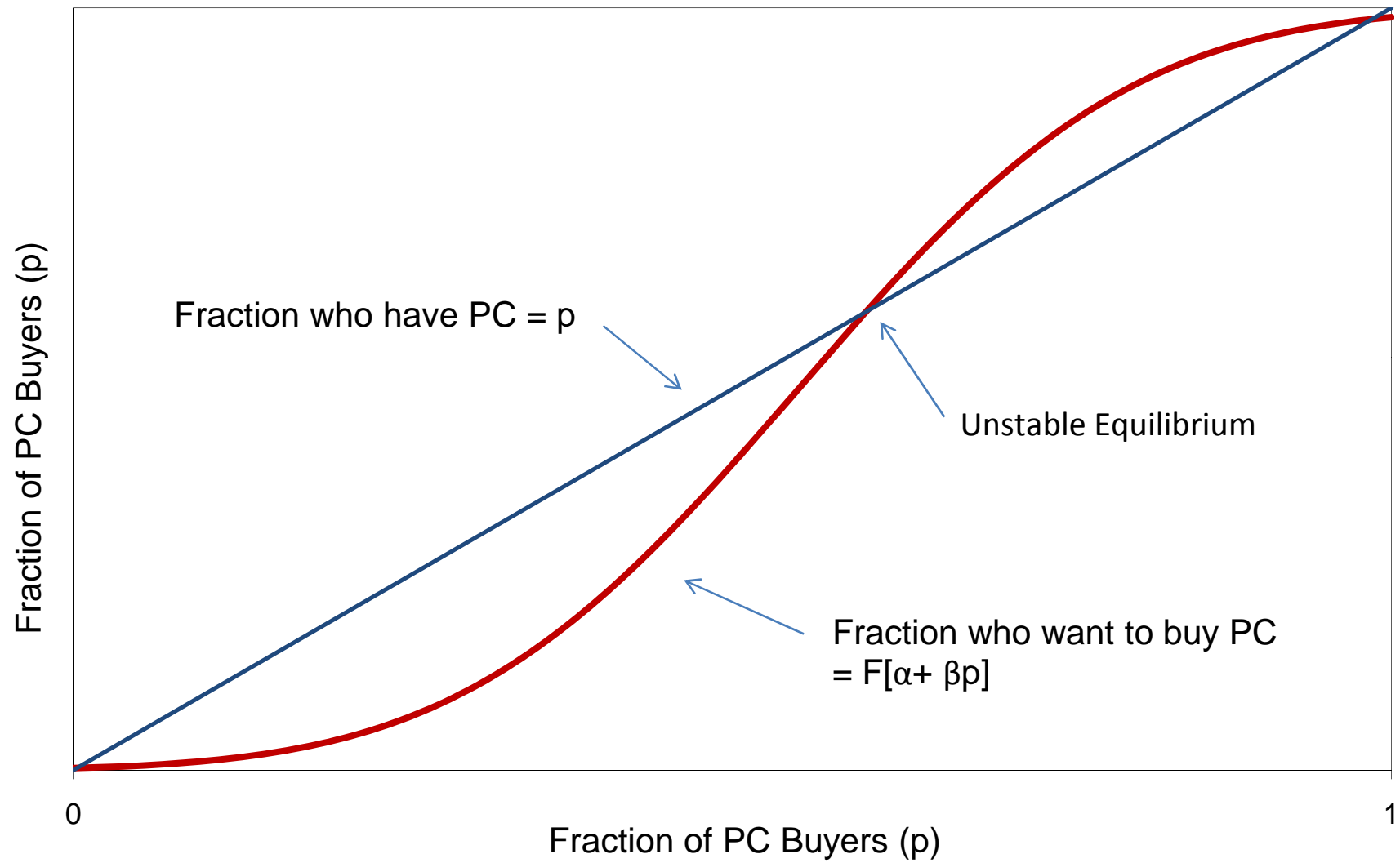
At an equilibrium:

$$p = F(\alpha + \beta p) = \text{fraction of people with } \epsilon_i < \alpha + \beta p$$

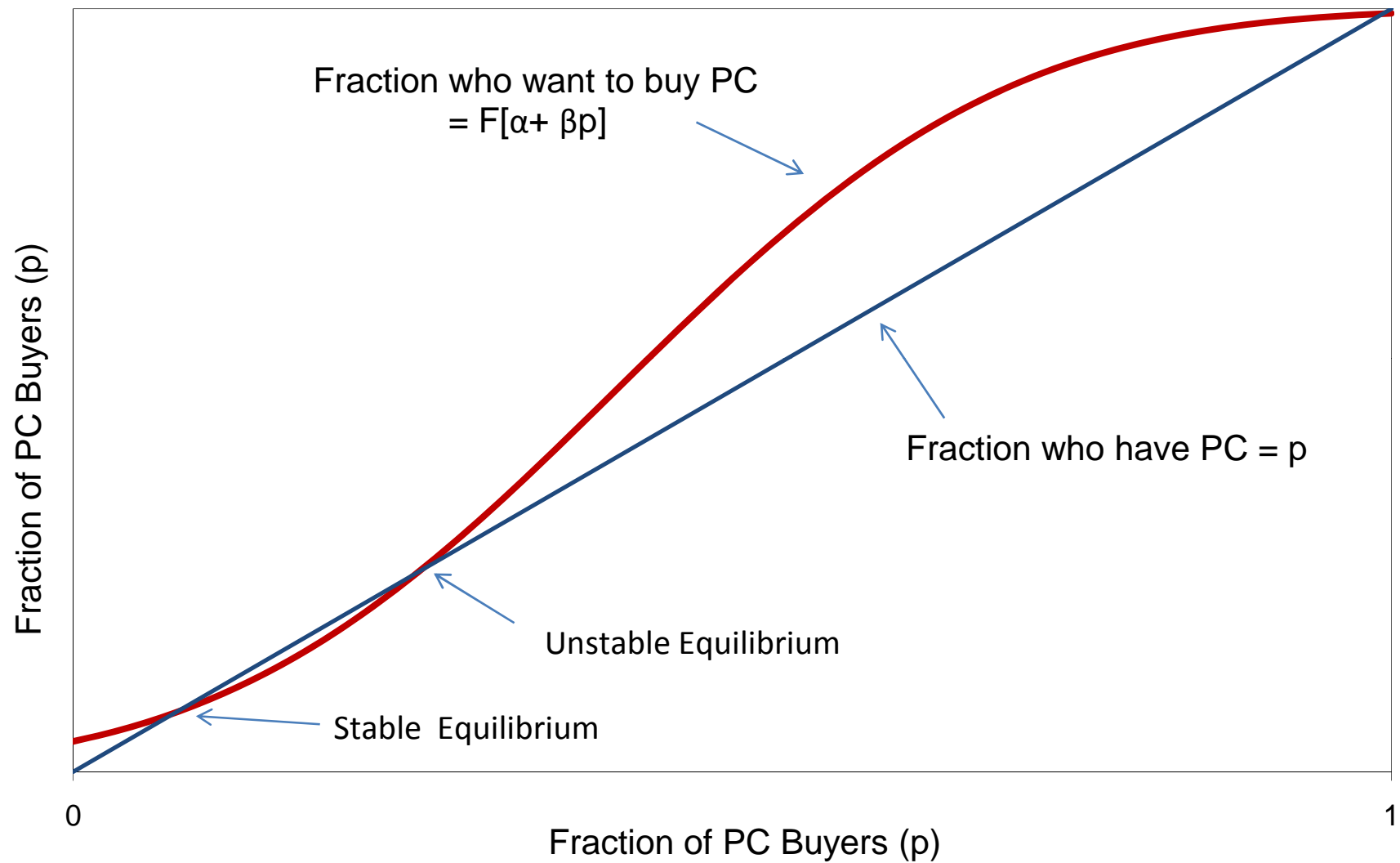
Think of p as the fraction of people who have a PC, and $F(\alpha + \beta p)$ as the fraction who want a PC, given p .

The next slides give examples assuming F is S-shaped.

Determination of Equilibrium for p =Fraction of PC Buyers



Determination of Equilibrium for p =Fraction of PC Buyers



II. Market Choice

Now we'll look at a market version of social interactions. Assume we have a neighborhood with 100 houses, all identical (Levittown), and two groups of buyers: W and M

If we want to sell a fraction $N^w/100$ of the houses to W 's, the price has to be

$$p = b^w(N^w/100)$$

This is W 's "inverse demand" function giving p as a function of the fraction of homes sold to W 's. b^w is negatively sloped.

There is also a function for the price if we want to sell a fraction $N^m/100$ houses to M 's, $b^m(N^m/100)$, that is negatively sloped in $N^m/100$.

In an equilibrium, W and M pay the same price and

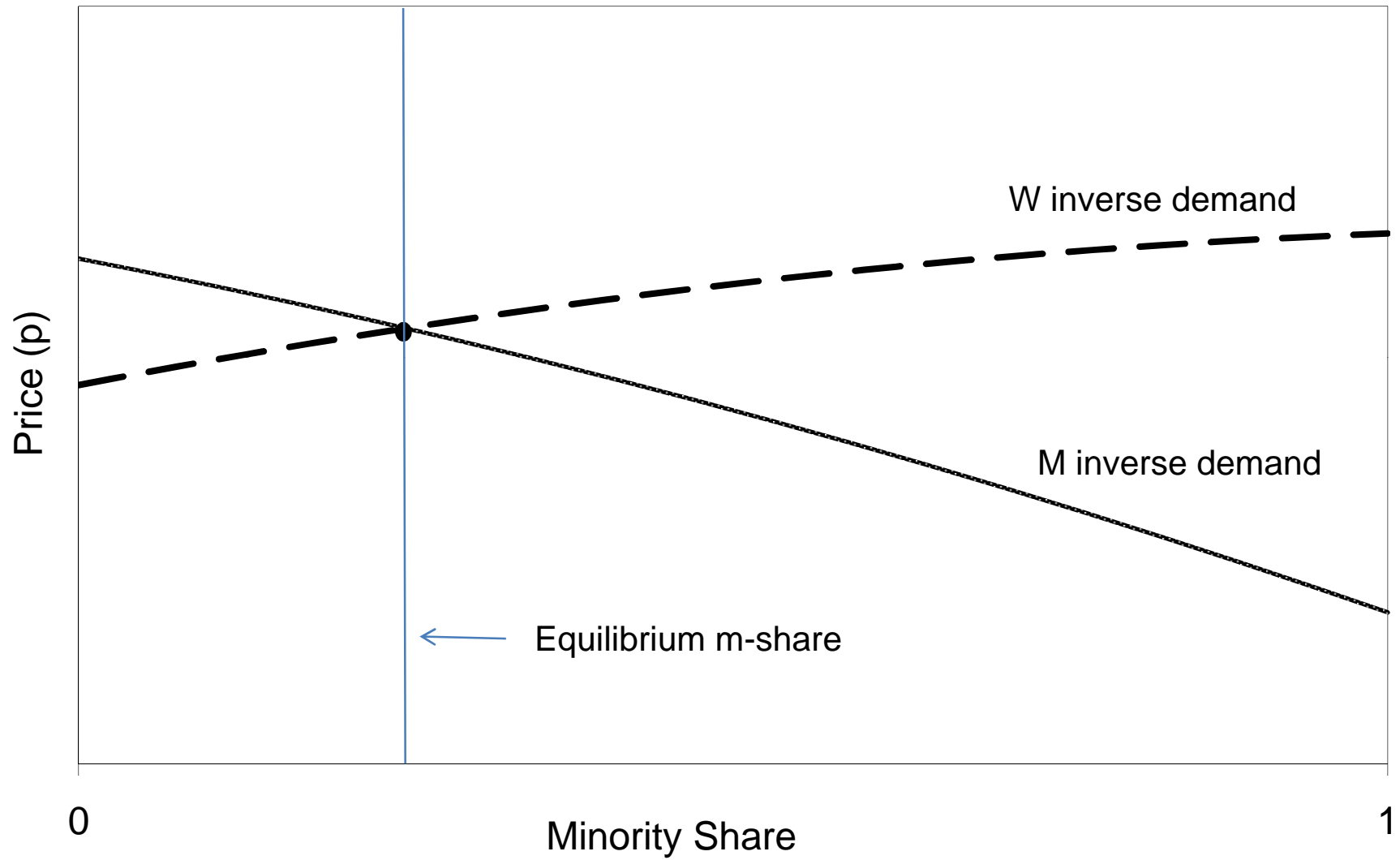
$$N^w/100 + N^m/100 = 1.$$

So we can write $N^w/100 = 1 - m$, where $m = N^m/100$ is the “minority share” in the neighborhood. At a neighborhood equilibrium we must have

$$b^w(1 - m) = b^m(m)$$

The graph is shown on the next slide. We graph b^m as a function of m , reading from left ($m=0$) to right ($m=1$) this is downward sloping. For W 's we read from left ($m=1$, so no W 's in the neighborhood) to right.

Market Equilibrium (no social interactions)



Now let's introduce a social interaction effect. Suppose that the price that W 's will pay depends on how many units they buy, and on the m -share:

$$p = b^w(N^w/100, m)$$

Again, $\partial b^w / \partial N^w < 0$ if you have to lower the price (holding constant m) to get W 's to fill all the houses. Call this the "demand effect".

The effect of m is the "social interaction" and depends on W 's preferences. Enlightened W 's might prefer a neighborhood with higher m , at least up to a point. But eventually, we might expect that b^w will fall if m becomes "too big".

Again, in equilibrium we have to fill all the houses, so

$$N^w/100 = 1 - m .$$

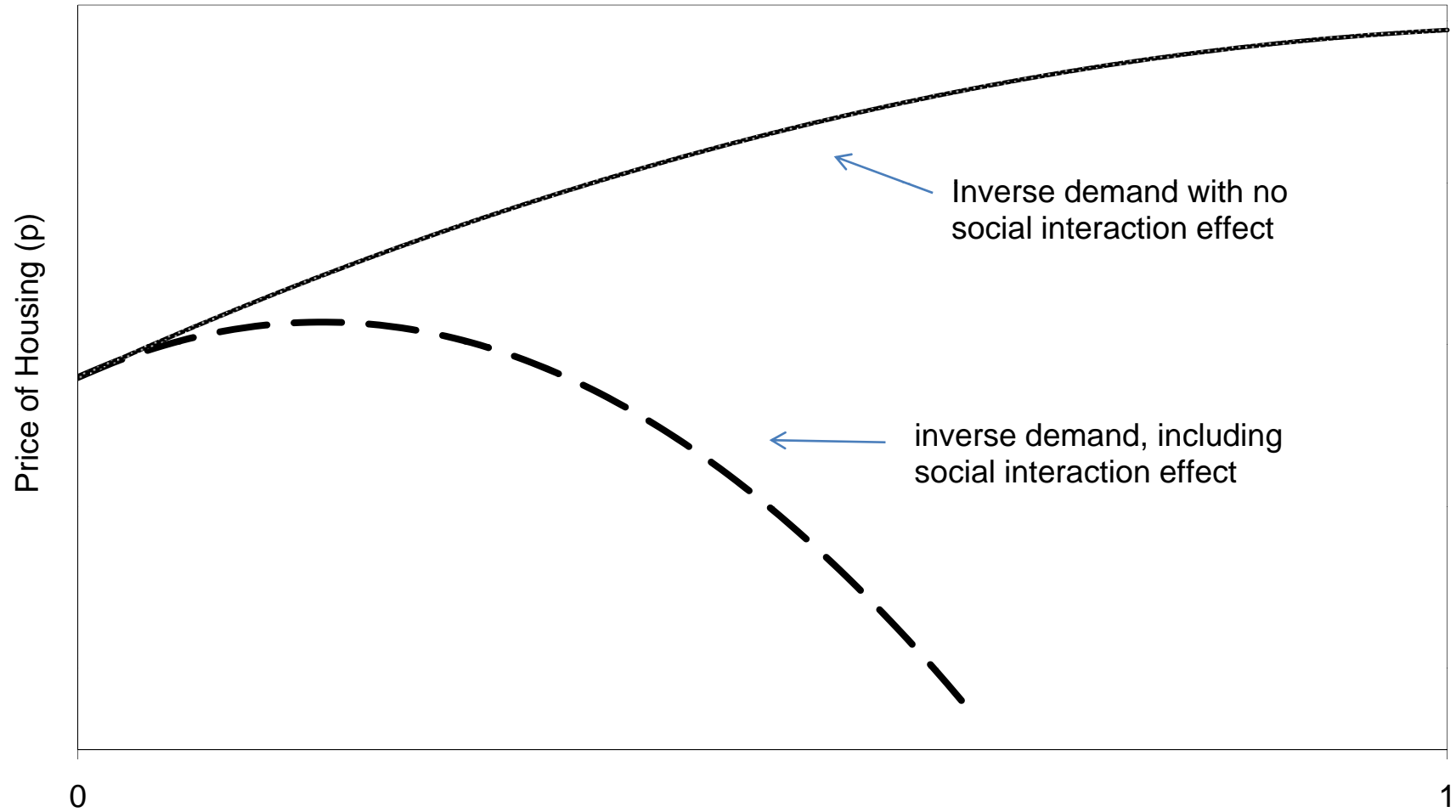
Thus we can write:

$$p = b^w(1 - m , m) .$$

As we increase m we get 2 effects. First, the “demand” effect says b^w will rise, because now fewer houses are sold to W 's. But the “social interaction” effect adds a second dimension.

We could have a picture like the next slide:

White Demand for Homes with Demand Effect and Social Interaction Effect

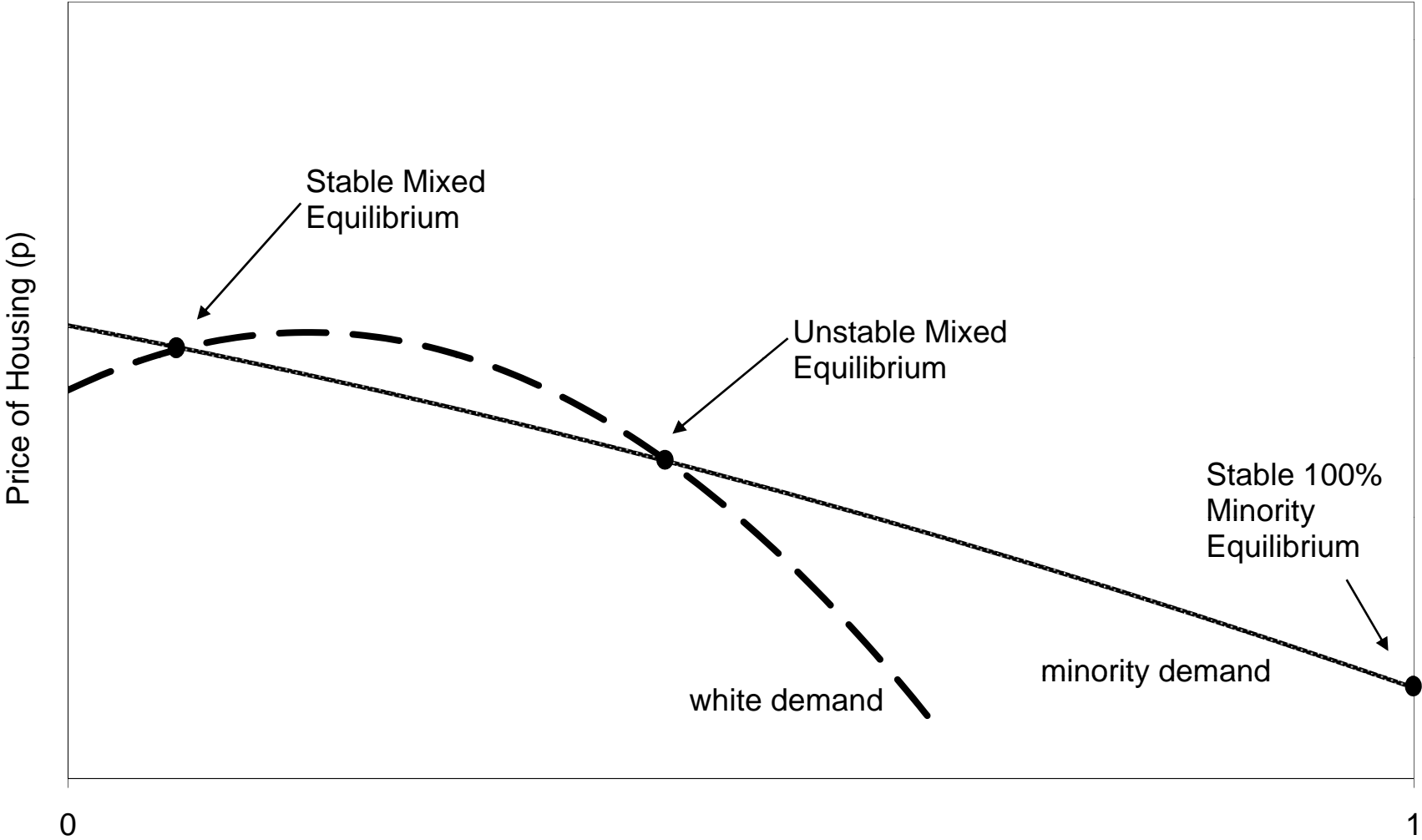


Now lets look at the equilibrium, where W's and M's pay the same price and all homes are occupied:

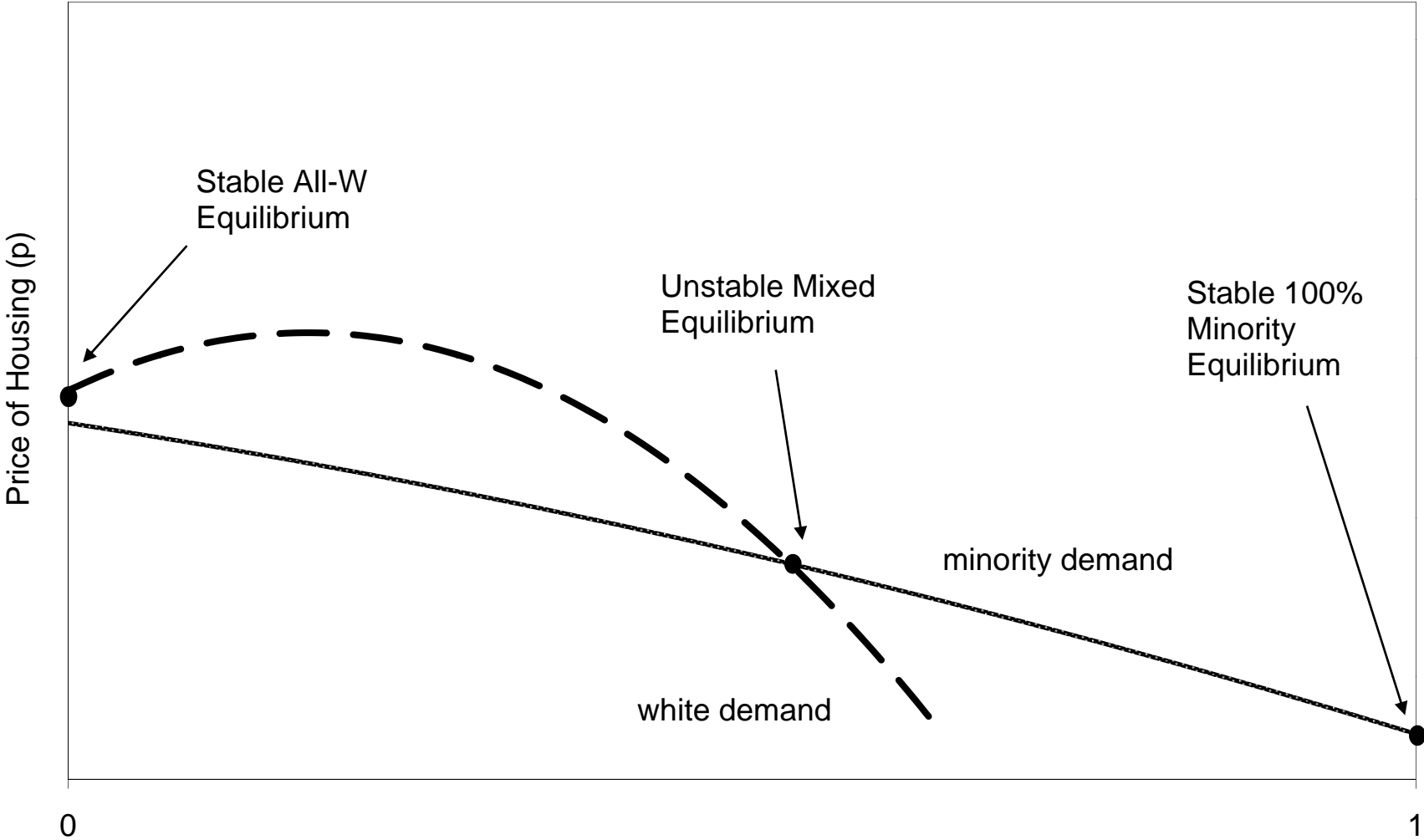
$$p = b^w(1 - m, m) = b^m(m).$$

The next slides shows that this can have multiple solutions (or solutions at $m=0$ or $m=1$ only). The reason is that now b^w is highly non-linear, first rising with m , then falling.

Equilibrium with Social Interaction in White Demand

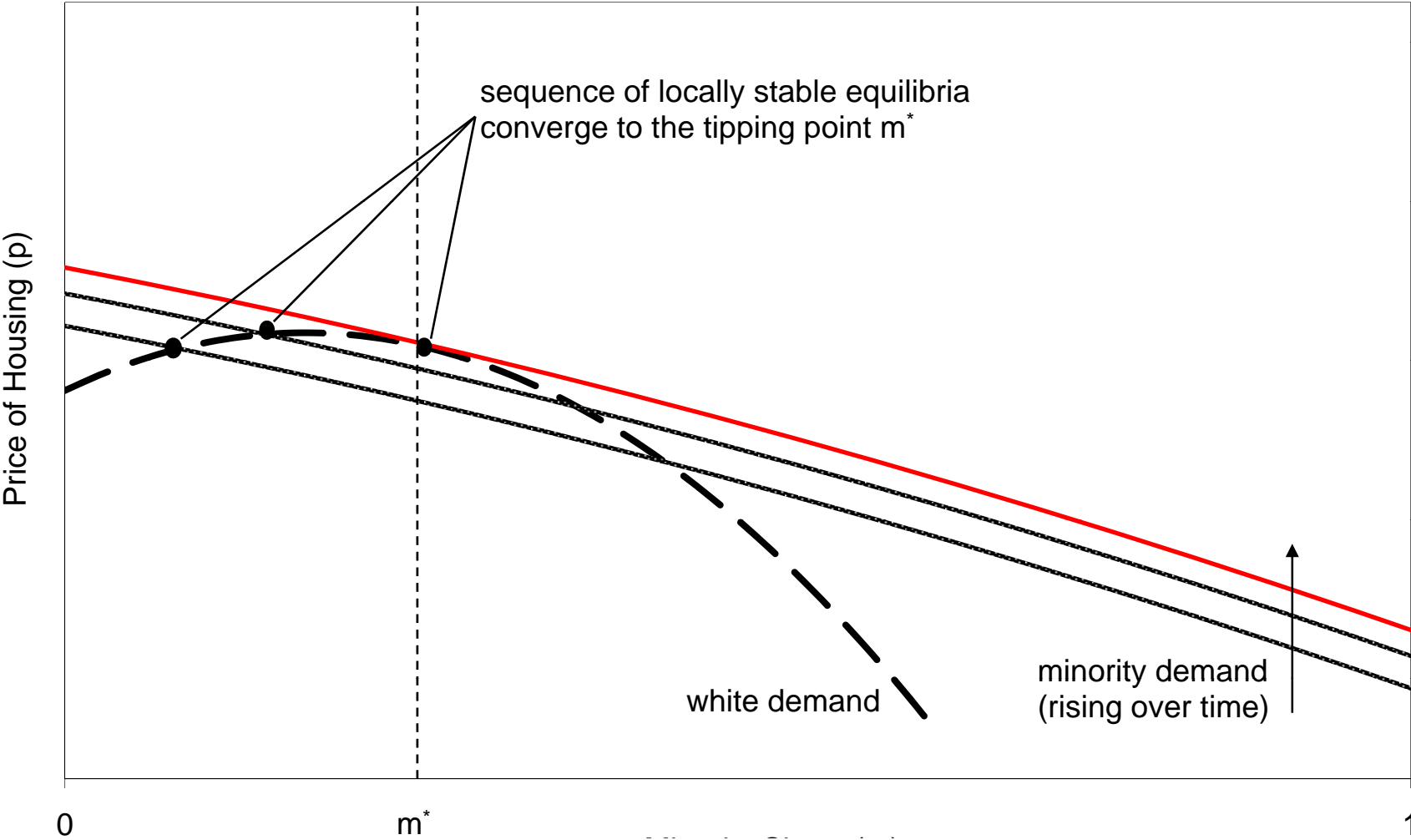


Equilibrium with Social Interaction in White Demand



Now let's consider a "dynamic" city, where M's are gradually becoming richer. This will cause the b^m function to shift vertically. Starting from an initial 100% W situation, eventually M's will start to move in. At first this is stable, but eventually the b^m function "pulls away" and once this happens, all the W's leave.

Illustration of Tipping Point in Neighborhood Minority Share



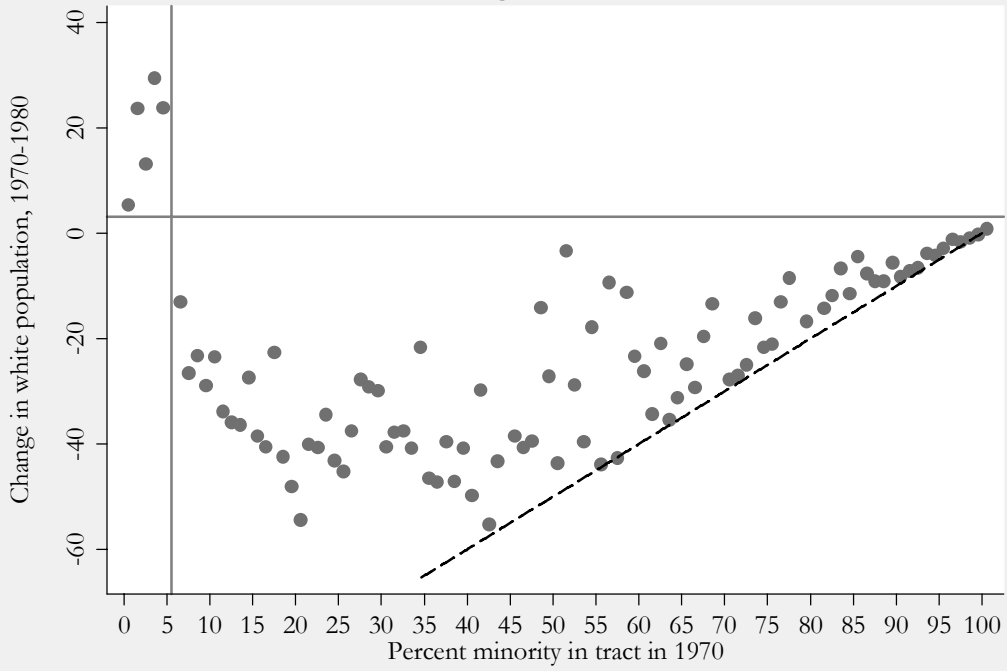
What are the implications?

If the tipping point m^* is (roughly) constant for all the neighborhoods in a city, then we will see some stable neighborhoods with $m < m^*$. We may see a few with m “close to m^* ”. But once a neighborhood gets too close, it changes rapidly to 100% m -share.

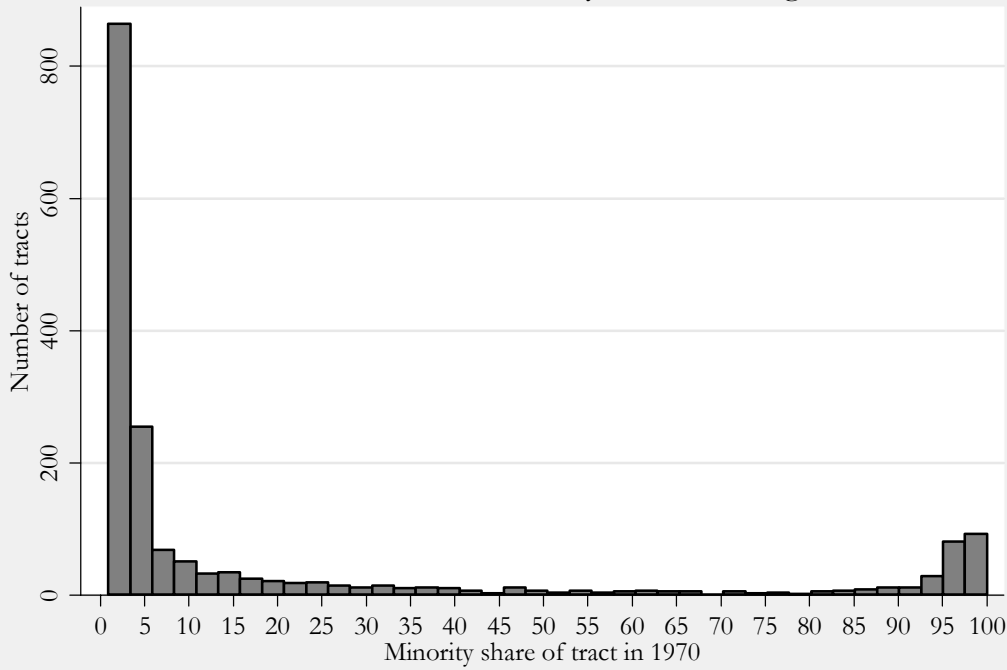
Data: Decennial Censuses

- each city divided into “tracts”
- track tracts over time, looking at how white population change from one census to the next (10 years later) varies with initial m -share
- look for “discontinuity” at some (relatively low) share

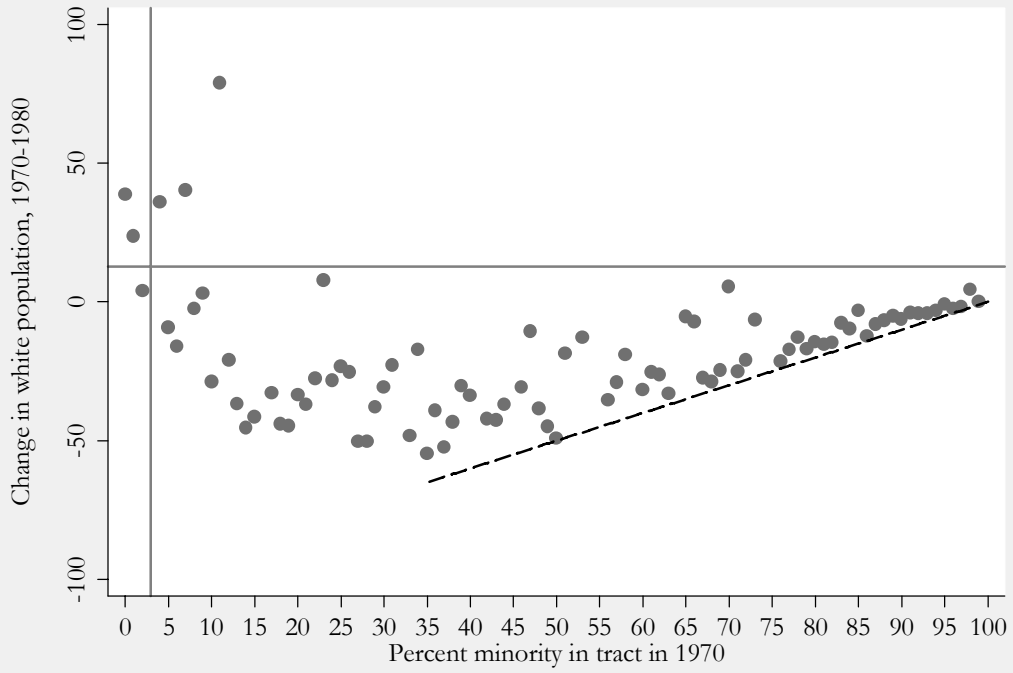
Chicago, 1970-1980



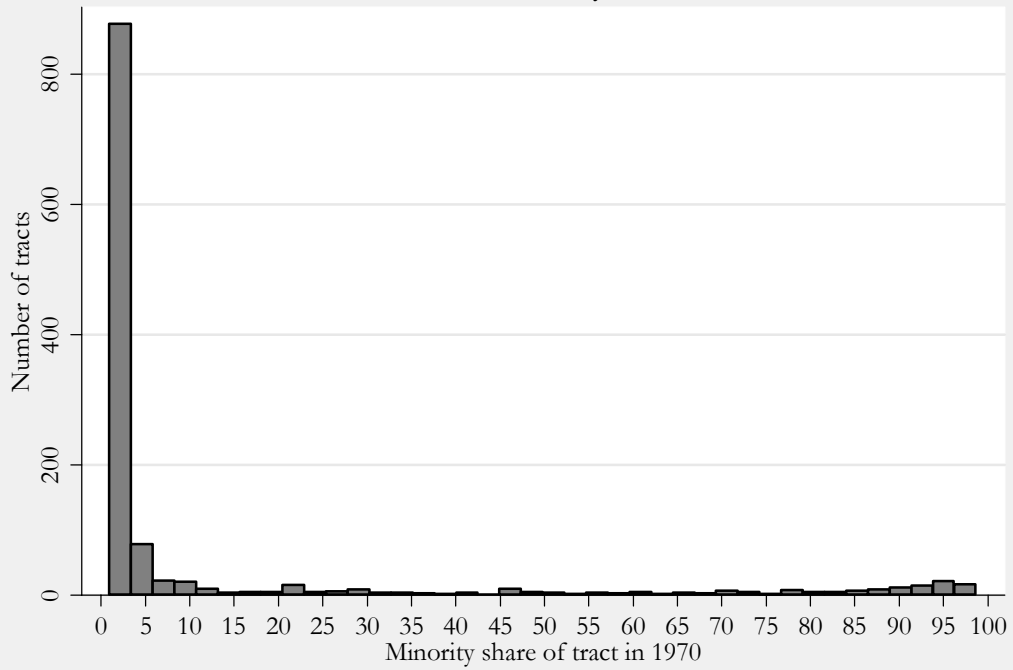
Distribution of tract minority share, Chicago, 1970

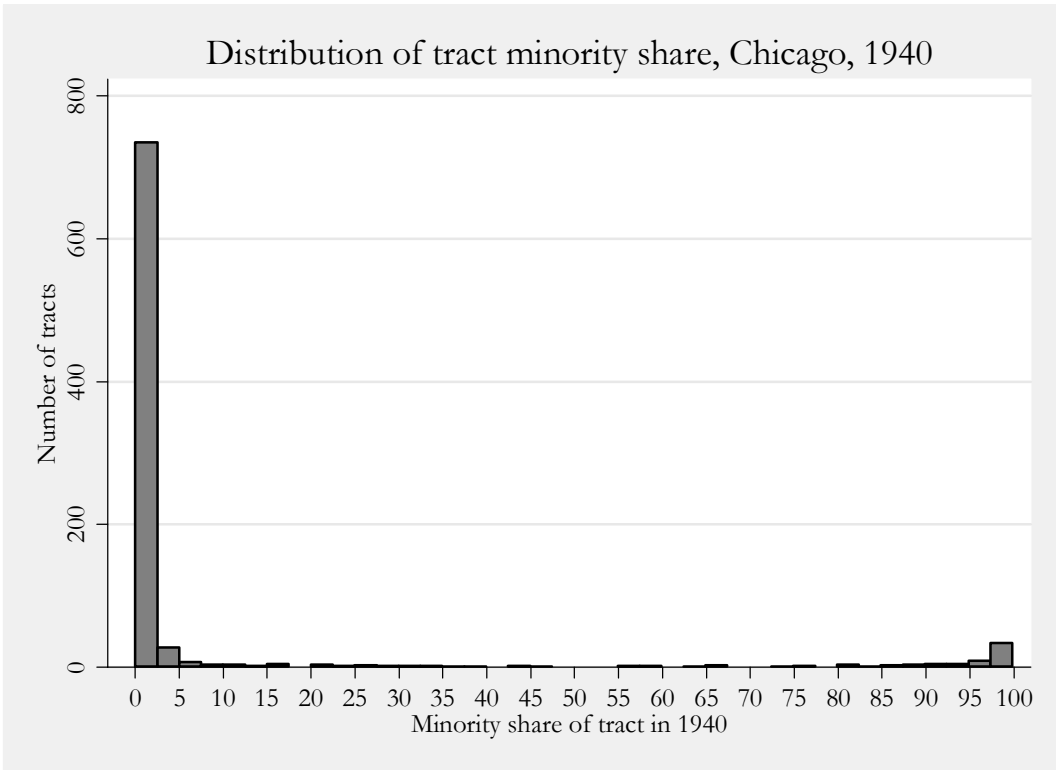
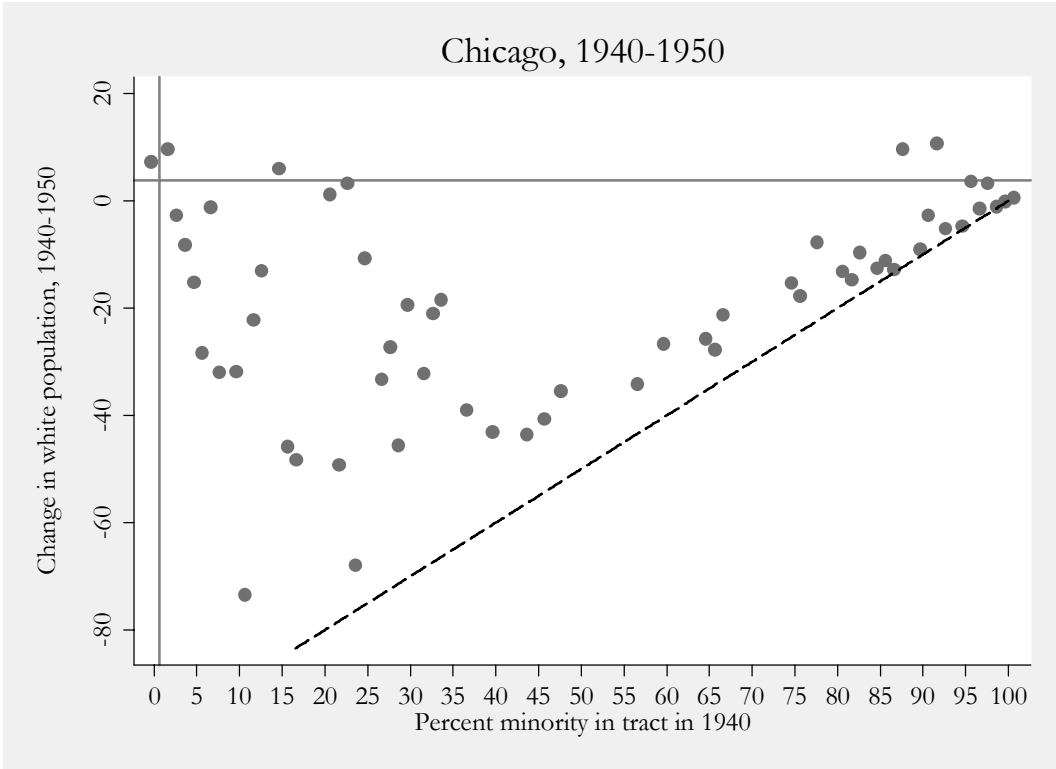


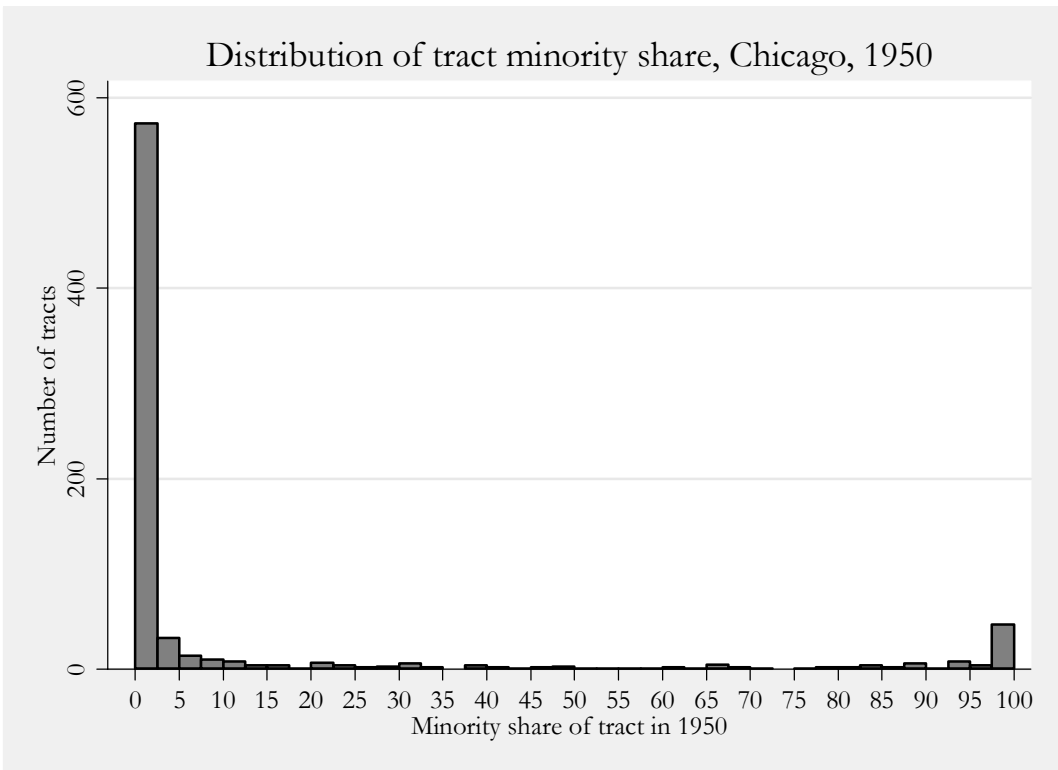
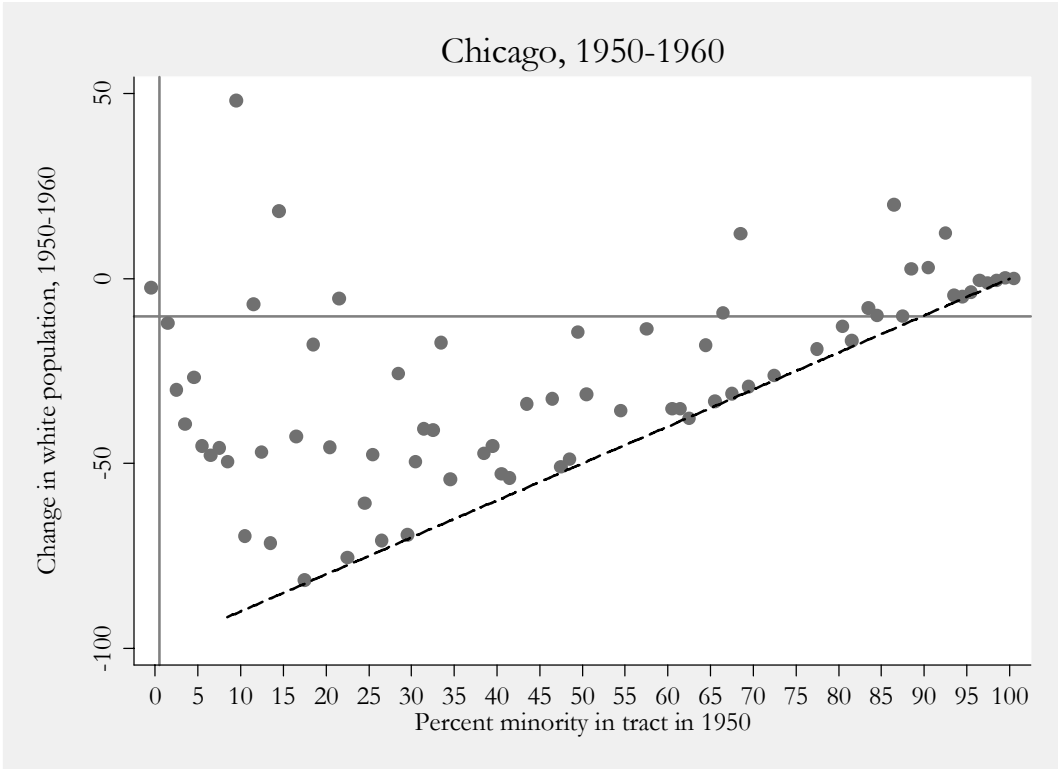
Detroit, 1970-1980



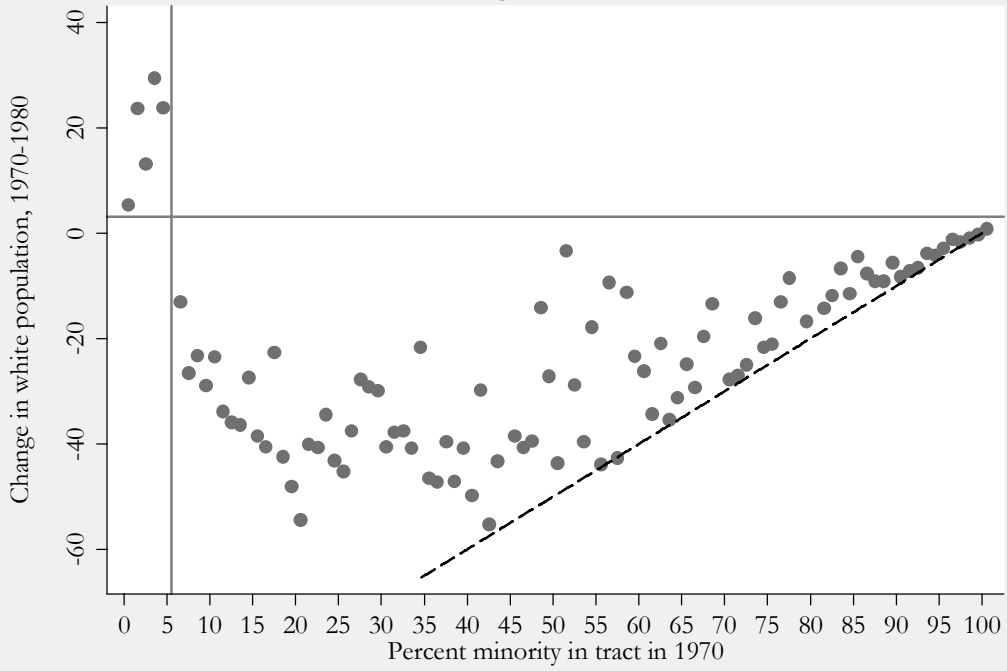
Distribution of tract minority share, Detroit, 1970







Chicago, 1970-1980



Distribution of tract minority share, Chicago, 1970

