

SOCIO-ECONOMIC DISTANCE AND SPATIAL PATTERNS IN UNEMPLOYMENT

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SUMMARY

This paper examines the spatial patterns of unemployment in Chicago between 1980 and 1990. We study unemployment clustering with respect to different social and economic distance metrics that reflect the structure of agents' social networks. Specifically, we use physical distance, travel time, and differences in ethnic and occupational distribution between locations. Our goal is to determine whether our estimates of spatial dependence are consistent with models in which agents' employment status is affected by information exchanged locally within their social networks. We present non-parametric estimates of correlation across Census tracts as a function of each distance metric as well as pairs of metrics, both for unemployment rate itself and after conditioning on a set of tract characteristics. Our results indicate that there is a strong positive and statistically significant degree of spatial dependence in the distribution of raw unemployment rates, for all our metrics. However, once we condition on a set of covariates, most of the spatial autocorrelation is eliminated, with the exception of physical and occupational distance. Racial and ethnic composition variables are the single most important factor in explaining the observed correlation patterns. Copyright © 2002 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper we examine the spatial patterns of unemployment in Chicago over two decades, 1980 and 1990. We study unemployment clustering with respect to different economic distance metrics that reflect the structure of agents' social networks. Our goal is to characterize spatial patterns of unemployment with respect to these metrics, in order to determine whether they are consistent with models in which agents' employment status may be affected by information exchanged locally within their social networks.

There is considerable evidence that social networks are important for job search. A vast body of research in economics and sociology has shown that at least 50% of all jobs are found through informal channels, such as talking to one's friends, family, neighbours, and social contacts in general. In a study of 282 male professional and technical workers in the Boston area, Granovetter (1995) finds that about 57% of current jobs were found through personal contacts or referrals. Occupational contacts and weak ties were especially important.¹ Corcoran *et al.* (1980) find very similar results using a much larger data set from the 1978 wave of the PSID. Montgomery (1991)

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¹ Two persons A and B have weak ties if agent A's social network has very little overlap with agent B's set of contacts. They have strong ties if they talk to roughly the same group of people.

reports additional evidence and develops an adverse selection model in which informal hiring (through referrals) coexists in equilibrium with more formal hiring channels.

Such information exchange processes occurring within agents' networks can generate observable implications if the network structure is at least partially observable to the econometrician. For example, if social networks are geographic in nature, i.e. individuals talk mostly to those who are physically nearby, then individuals' outcomes will be related to their physical distance. A job-acquisition process that operated through such a network would generate clustering of unemployment with respect to physical distance. Of course, social networks need not be strictly geographic. Networks develop along other dimensions, such as race or ethnicity, religious affiliation, education. In addition, the information exchange between any pair of agents is likely to be more productive (in terms of generating job offers) if the two agents are close in terms of their respective occupations. If these non-physical metrics are important, they will be systematically related to agents' outcomes.

The underlying motivation for this research is to provide measures of spatial dependence in unemployment according to several metrics, in order to empirically evaluate competing economic models of behaviour. Local interaction models of information exchange and informal hiring channels can be estimated by choosing parameters to match the observed spatial autocorrelation patterns as a function of a given metric, via a Simulated Method of Moments or an Indirect Inference procedure.² The spatial implications of models of positive sorting of individuals across locations, the spatial mismatch hypothesis, or a theory of unemployment that relies on the distribution of skills across workers can also in principle be evaluated using the approach developed here.

More generally, a better understanding of the likely components of socio-economic distance will greatly facilitate the estimation of social interaction effects.³ Akerlof (1997) analyses a theoretical model in which social interactions are inversely related to social distance between agents. According to Akerlof, the concept of social proximity includes, but is not limited to, geography. In order to empirically evaluate such a model, the possible determinants of social locations need to be identified. Evidence from the sociology literature on social networks and local communities provides the motivation for the types of candidate metrics we consider. As Manski (1993) points out, using such direct evidence on the attributes that determine agents' reference groups is essential if one is to have any hope of estimating endogenous social effects.

In this paper, we construct several different metrics over Chicago Census tracts that attempt to capture the physical as well as non-physical dimensions of social networks and job information exchanges. These metrics are measures of physical distance, travel time, and the difference in ethnic and occupation distributions between tracts. Such metrics are often described by the sociological literature as likely dimensions along which networks develop. To illustrate some of the differences between metrics, we present a graphical illustration using a method called multidimensional scaling.⁴ Comparisons of tracts' relative distances under each metric are straightforward to make.

Upon construction of our metrics, we present nonparametric estimates of correlation across tracts as a function of specific metrics. First, we estimate these spatial Auto-Correlation Functions (ACFs) for unemployment rates themselves. Then, we estimate ACFs for residuals from a regression of

² Topa (2002) uses this approach to estimate a structural local interaction model.

³ Brock and Durlauf (2002) provide an excellent treatment of the identification issues and possible estimation strategies that are relevant for a general class of local interaction models.

⁴ Mardia *et al.* (1979) provide a detailed description of this method.

unemployment on a set of observable tract characteristics that are likely to affect the unemployment rate of the area and to be spatially correlated due to the sorting of individuals across areas.⁵ We compare the two estimates to get an idea of whether the clustering with respect to a given metric can be 'explained' by conditioning on these variables.

We also present non-parametric estimates of correlation as functions of combinations of metrics. For example, we estimate the auto-correlation of unemployment as a function of both physical and ethnic distance and analyse the resulting two-dimensional auto-correlation surface. We estimate two-distance ACFs for several combinations of metrics, allowing us to examine the clustering patterns of unemployment according to the first metric, for the set of census tracts that are at a given distance with respect to the second.

For any given ACF estimate, we provide a simple test of the hypothesis of spatial independence. We use a bootstrap method to generate an acceptance region for ACF estimates under the hypothesis of spatial independence. In addition to being easy to implement, these tests overcome the problem that usual distribution approximations for local average estimates tend to overstate their precision when the data is dependent. Our tests are also robust to measurement error in our metrics. Insofar as our measurements of distance are just proxies for the extent of connections between agents, they will certainly contain error.

Finally, we perform a covariance decomposition exercise, in order to determine which tract-level covariates contribute the most to 'explaining' the observed spatial correlation in the raw unemployment data. In particular, we provide a conservative and a liberal measure of the impact of specific subsets of regressors in explaining spatial correlation.

Our main results indicate that there is a strong positive and statistically significant degree of spatial dependence in the distribution of raw unemployment rates, at distances close to zero, for all our metrics. The correlation decays roughly monotonically with distance. The two-metric ACF estimates offer some additional insights. When the physical, travel time, or occupation metric is coupled with the ethnic metric, the latter drives most of the variation in spatial clustering: tracts that are at a given ethnic distance exhibit a roughly constant degree of auto-correlation no matter what the physical, time, or occupation distance is between them. On the other hand, when physical or travel time metrics are combined with distance in occupations, the estimated ACF surface is roughly decreasing in both distances.

The ACF estimates for the residuals from the regression of unemployment on a set of observable tract characteristics are quite flat. Once we condition on covariates, most of the spatial dependence is eliminated. The only exceptions are the one metric ACF estimated using physical distance, and the two-metric ACF surfaces based on a combination of physical and occupational metrics. Therefore, it seems that most of the spatial clustering observed in the data may be driven by sorting of heterogeneous agents across locations.⁶

The results of our covariance decomposition exercise indicate that the overall situation is best characterized as several variables each contributing some, rather than there being a single dominant explanatory variable. However, among these variables it is clear that the racial and ethnic composition within each tract contributes the most to 'explaining' the spatial correlation present in the raw data. Measures of human capital have a more limited impact and spatial mismatch variables do not seem to play a role.

⁵ These variables include measures of human capital, age, race, housing values and neighbourhood quality, and so on.

⁶ This, in turn, may be explained by a preference for living next to people with similar traits, or by a desire to internalize the sort of local spillovers discussed here.

The methods in this paper may prove useful for data exploration and description of stylized facts in many other contexts. Our approach could be applied to other socio-economic outcomes of interest, such as participation in welfare programs, crime, dropping out of school, or teenage childbearing. All that is required is measures of the relevant metric(s) describing the relationship between units of observation—households, individuals, or Census tracts.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data. Section 3 discusses the different distance metrics used in our analysis, as well a comparison of the configurations implied by selected metrics via multidimensional scaling. The spatial econometric model is presented in Section 4. Section 5 reports the results of our ACF estimates for the different metrics and offers possible interpretations. Finally, Section 6 presents preliminary conclusions and discusses extensions of the current paper.

2. DATA

Most of the data come from the Bureau of the Census⁷ for the city of Chicago, at the tract level, for 1980 and 1990.⁸ There are 866 Census tracts in the city of Chicago, and they are grouped into 75 Community Areas, which are considered to have a distinctive identity as a neighbourhood.⁹ Our unit of observation is the Census tract.

In this paper we examine the clustering patterns of unemployment rates across Census tracts. Our outcome variable is defined as the percentage of unemployed persons over the civilian labour force (16 years and older). Unemployed persons are people who were neither 'at work' nor 'with a job but not at work' during the reference week used by the Census, and who were actively looking for work during the last four weeks prior to the reference week.

As we mentioned above, we want to examine the spatial patterns of unemployment both *unconditionally* and *net* of the clustering effect that may be simply due to sorting of individuals into locations. Therefore, we control for a rather long list of observable neighbourhood attributes, that may be correlated with the probability of being employed, on the one hand, and may be dimensions along which people sort when deciding where to reside, on the other. We use three sets of covariates, listed in Table I and described below.

First, we define a set of *sorting variables*, i.e. variables that may affect the decisions by different types of individuals to locate in a given area. These include average housing values in the Census tract, median gross rents, the fraction of vacant housing units in the area, the fraction of persons with managerial or professional jobs, the percentage of non-white persons, the percentage of Hispanic persons, a segregation index, and the number of persons per household.

Second, we consider variables that may be linked more directly to the probability of being employed. These include the percentage of persons with at least a high school diploma, the fraction of persons with at least a college degree, the age composition in the tract (to proxy for potential experience), the fraction of females 16 years and older, and the percentage of males and females out of the labour force in the tract.

⁷ Summary Tape Files 3A.

⁸ Travel times between locations were calculated using published CTA documentation.

⁹ A set of tracts is defined as a Community Area if it has 'a history of its own as a community, a name, an awareness on the part of its inhabitants of common interests, and a set of local businesses and organizations oriented to the local community' (Erbe *et al.*, 1984, p. xix).

Table I. Census tract characteristics used as regressors

Sorting variables	
Racial/ethnic composition	Percentage of non-white persons Percentage of Hispanic persons
Others	Segregation Index Average housing values Median gross rents Fraction of vacant housing units Percentage of persons with managerial/professional jobs Number of persons per household
Employability	
Education	Percentage of high school graduates Percentage of college graduates
Others	Percentage of persons 0–18 years old Percentage of persons 0–24 years old Percentage of persons 18–24 years old Percentage of persons 16 years and older who are females Percentage of males out of the labour force Percentage of females out of the labour force
Spatial mismatch	
	Median commuting time to work

Finally, there is a relatively large literature in urban and labour economics that discusses the *spatial mismatch* hypothesis. The literature aims at explaining the high unemployment levels in mostly black, inner-city neighbourhoods by local labour market conditions. The basic idea is that during the 1970s and 1980s many jobs (especially low-skill ones in the service industry) have moved from central city areas to the suburbs. In addition, the contention is that there is low residential mobility and a certain degree of housing segregation for inner-city blacks. For example, it may be very costly for a black household to relocate to the suburbs in a mostly white neighbourhood, where the social capital provided by a black community would be missing. Several authors, such as Holzer (1991) and Ihlanfeldt and Sjoquist (1990,1991) have analysed this issue empirically. By now, there is a certain consensus that physical proximity to jobs explains a portion of black/white unemployment differences, for instance. Therefore, we include the median commuting time to work for workers who reside in each tract as our measure of proximity to jobs.

3. DISTANCE METRICS

In this section we introduce four different distance metrics that we use in the remainder of the paper to estimate spatial ACFs. In each instance, we try to motivate the particular choice of metric. It is important to keep in mind that our analysis is at the Census tract level, and not at the individual agent level. Therefore, we do not trace out individual agents' networks, but rather we define distances between pairs of tracts that attempt to reflect the dimensions along which social networks are stratified. In so doing, we refer to a rich sociological literature that documents the patterns of relations among agents. One unifying theme in the literature is that networks appear to be fairly homogeneous with regard to certain socio-demographic attributes.

3.1. Costs of Interaction

The first obvious choice for a distance metric reflects the locations of individuals on the physical map of the city. The underlying assumption is that the development and maintenance of social contacts is limited to some extent by physical distance and by transportation networks. In other words, we assume that there exist monetary and time costs of maintaining active social ties, that are increasing in the physical distance between agents or in the travel time between locations of residence. This assumption implies that individuals are more likely to interact with people who live physically close, and that the frequency of contact depends negatively on physical distance or travel time.

Furthermore, local organizations at the neighbourhood level, such as churches, local businesses, neighbourhood clubs, schools or daycare centers, local sports or cultural associations, may lower the costs of interactions for individuals who reside within a neighbourhood or in adjacent areas, thus fostering social ties and facilitating information exchanges at the local community level.

There is a legitimate concern that physical distance may have become less and less important in shaping social networks, as many interactions take place between people who reside in different neighbourhoods or even cities. High residential mobility and the availability of communication tools such as the telephone or the Internet weaken the constraints that geographic space imposes on communities.¹⁰

However, there is some evidence that suggests that physical distance still plays an important role. In a study of Toronto inhabitants in the 1980s, Wellman (1996) finds that a surprisingly high fraction of interactions took place among people who lived less than 5 miles apart. The study asked respondents (egos) to name a set of persons (alters) with whom they had active social ties, and recorded the place of residence of respondents and alters, as well as the frequency of interactions within each ego–alter pair. The data show that about 38% of yearly contacts in all networks took place between ego–alter pairs that lived less than 1 mile away. Roughly 64% of all contacts took place between agents who lived at most 5 miles away.

In a Detroit study that used a 1975 survey of about 1200 residents, Connerly (1985) states that 41% of respondents had at least one third of their Detroit friends residing within one mile. Guest and Lee (1983) perform a similar analysis for the city of Seattle, using the notion of Community Area. Using a sample of roughly 1600 residents, they find that for about 35% of the respondents at least half of their friends resided in the same local community, whereas for about 47% of them at least a few of their co-workers lived in the same area. More relevant to this paper, Hunter (1974) reports that out of roughly 800 Chicago residents interviewed during 1967–8, about 49% said that the majority of their friends resided in the same local community.¹¹ Therefore, identifying social contacts with agents who live physically nearby seems like a reasonable approximation for one of the dimensions of social networks.

One important qualification is that such studies do not tell us anything about the *content* of these contacts: ideally, we would like to restrict our attention to networks whose primary content is the information exchange about job openings. But one aspect reported by Wellman (1996) is encouraging. He observes that ties with one's neighbours are weaker (in the sense specified in

¹⁰ There is a considerable debate among sociologists on whether the notion of a local physical community has lost all meaning. See Wellman and Leighton (1979) and Connerly (1985).

¹¹ The exact definition of a local community roughly coincides with that of a Community Area, discussed earlier in Section 2.

Section 1) than ties with friends or kin. It is precisely this kind of ties that is more conducive to generating useful information about jobs (see Granovetter, (1995)).

We use two different metrics to represent costs of interaction: physical distance and travel time:

- **Physical distance.** PD_{ij} is the 'as the bird flies' distance in kilometres between the centroids of tracts i and j . This metric is rather rough, as it does not take into account physical barriers, such as rivers or highways. It may also be worth while to examine variations of this metric that take into account the population size or density in each census tract. The distribution of pairwise distances across tracts using this metric is skewed to the right, and varies between about 200 metres and almost 45 kilometres. The median distance is roughly 11 kilometres.
- **Travel time distance.** TD_{ij} is the travel time distance (in minutes), using public transportation (CTA), between the centres of the Community Areas in which tracts i and j are located. Travel times were calculated from CTA timetables published in 1997 and reflect best-case travel times.¹² The median travel time is 50 minutes and the distribution varies between zero and 120 minutes.

3.2. Race and Ethnicity

Even casual observation suggests that personal networks may be stratified along specific socio-demographic attributes, such as race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, language, age, gender, education levels. In other words, agents are likely to draw a disproportionate share of their social contacts among sets of people that are very similar to themselves. This tendency is denoted as inbreeding, or homophily, among sociologists. Economists, on the other hand, refer to this phenomenon as positive sorting, or assortative matching.¹³

But how exactly widespread is positive sorting within agents' personal networks? There is some evidence that it is very strong among immigrant communities (see e.g. Light *et al.*, 1993). The strongest evidence, however, comes from the 1985 General Social Survey. This study, begun in 1972, is an annual¹⁴ survey of the attitudes and behaviours of Americans on a wide variety of topics. The 1985 edition included a module on social networks of 1534 individuals, drawn as a nationally representative sample. Respondents were asked to name people with whom they 'discussed important matters'. Several characteristics of these alters were then collected, among which their age, sex, education, race, ethnicity, and religious affiliation.

Marsden (1987, 1988) has used the GSS data in order to analyse the question of assortative matching. The results indicate that personal networks are quite homogeneous along several dimensions. In particular, network homogeneity with respect to race and ethnicity is very high. Only 8% of the respondents reported alters with *any* racial or ethnic diversity (both between ego and alters, and among alters). In addition, racial and ethnic heterogeneity of alters is only 13% of the total racial and ethnic heterogeneity among respondents.

Marsden (1988) then looks specifically at ego–alter pairs, and decomposes the cell frequencies (e.g. the relative frequency of black–black pairs over all the ego–alter pairs) into a portion that is due to purely random matching (based on the marginal distributions of the race/ethnic categories

¹² We hope that travel times during the 1980s are not very different from current ones. We tried as much as possible not to consider new lines that were opened in the mid-1990s.

¹³ See Becker and Murphy 'The sorting of individuals into categories when tastes and productivity depend on the composition of members', unpublished manuscript', for example.

¹⁴ The GSS produced surveys annually in 1973-8 and 1983-93. Since 1994, it has been conducted every two years.

among respondents and alters), and a portion that is due to positive sorting. It turns out that the strongest level of association, over and above random matching, takes place for the race/ethnicity attribute.¹⁵ For example, the chance of observing a black-black tie is 4.2 times higher than that generated by pure random matching, given the relative proportions of the different racial and ethnic categories in the population.¹⁶

Since our study is based on aggregated data and not on individual network data, we would like to incorporate the positive sorting feature of social networks into a distance metric, that considers two tracts with very similar ethnic compositions to be close. The objective is to track more closely this important dimension along which personal networks are structured. We propose the following metric to take into account racial and ethnic attributes:

- **Race and ethnicity distance.** ED_{ij} is the Euclidean distance between the vector e_i of percentages of nine races and ethnicities¹⁷ present in tract i and the corresponding vector e_j in tract j :

$$ED_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^9 (e_{ik} - e_{jk})^2}$$

Thus two tracts with exactly the same racial and ethnic composition will be considered to be at racial and ethnic distance zero. Two tracts with extreme racial and ethnic compositions (e.g. one is 100% Italian whereas the other is 100% Polish) will have a maximal racial/ethnic distance of $100\sqrt{2}$. As is well known, Chicago is a very segregated city: the distribution of ethnic distances is quite bimodal, with modal distances roughly at zero and 140 in both years.

3.3. Occupations

The last distance metric that we propose focuses on the informational content of social interactions. From our unemployment perspective, not all contacts are meaningful. We would like to keep track of those social ties that are more likely to convey useful information about job openings, or to generate referrals. For example, if agent A is a graphic designer and agent B is a doctor, even if they appear in each other's personal network it is unlikely that they would communicate any useful information about jobs to each other.

Again, there exists a certain amount of evidence on this. For example, Schrader (1991) uses a survey of about 300 middle-level managers in the context of the US specialty steel industry. He finds strong support for the hypothesis that information flows quite freely through professional networks. Granovetter (1995) reports that a significant fraction of tips on job openings comes from business acquaintances and social contacts with similar occupations.

Therefore, we think it may be relevant to construct a distance metric between pairs of tracts that is based on the within-tract distribution of occupations, in order to take into account the potential usefulness of the informational content of social networks. We propose the following:

¹⁵ Marsden also considered age, gender, education, and religion. All these attributes exhibit a statistically significant positive degree of assortative matching, over and above random matching.

¹⁶ The same statistic is 2.9 for Hispanics, 3.1 for Asians, 2.6 for Whites.

¹⁷ We use the percentage of Black, Native American, Asian and Pacific Islander, Hispanic, White, German, Irish, Italian, and Polish persons 16 years and older in each tract.

- **Occupational distance.** OD_{ij} is the Euclidean distance between the vector o_i of percentages of workers in 13 different occupations in tract i and the corresponding vector o_j in j :¹⁸

$$OD_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{13} (o_{ik} - o_{jk})^2}.$$

The interpretation of this metric is analogous to that of the race/ethnicity one: tracts with similar occupation proportions are close. The distribution of occupational distances is skewed to the right and varies between 2 and 124 in 1980, between zero and 141 in 1990. The median is 22 and 24 in the two years.

3.4. Combinations of Distance Metrics

According to the definition of the racial/ethnic metric, or the occupational metric, two tracts are going to be at zero distance if they have the same racial/ethnic (or occupational) composition, even though they are located at the opposite physical ends of the city. This may not be entirely satisfactory. One might think that the appropriate social distance metric, in order to identify who is more likely to talk to whom, is some combination of physical distance (or travel time) and racial/ethnic or occupational distance. Thus areas with exactly the same ethnic composition but at the opposite ends of the city may interact less than areas with slightly different ethnic compositions but much closer geographically.

In order to take this possibility into account, we also estimate ACFs of unemployment as a function of pairs of metrics. In this case, the estimated correlation between any two tracts will be a function of their distances with respect to both metrics. We can then examine how unemployment clustering depends on different combinations of the two distances. Consider, for example, physical and racial/ethnic distance. Fixing racial/ethnic distance at a level close to zero (say 20), and tracing the ACF as a function of physical distance alone, one can get an idea of how spatial correlation varies with physical distance, *conditional* on ethnic distance being equal to 20. Several possibilities may arise. The ACF may decay monotonically in both directions, or be flat with respect to one metric and only vary with the other.

We consider several pairs of distances.¹⁹ We look at racial/ethnic and occupational metrics together and take combinations of the two types of geographic distance with racial/ethnic metric on the one hand, and with the occupational metric on the other hand. Thus we estimate the following combinations of different metrics: physical and racial/ethnic distance; physical and occupational distance; travel time and racial/ethnic distance; travel time and occupational distance; and racial/ethnic and occupational.

¹⁸ The occupations are: executive, administrative, and managerial; professional specialty; technicians; sales; administrative support; private household; protective service; other service; farming, forestry, and fishing; precision production, craft, and repair; machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors; transportation and material moving; handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and labourers.

¹⁹ We avoid dealing with more than two metrics simultaneously because the performance of our local average technique declines rapidly with an increase in the number of metrics simultaneously considered. This is another version of the well-known problem of local averages suffering from a 'curse of dimensionality'.

3.5. Comparison of Economic Distance Metrics

This subsection describes differences in relative locations of tracts under each of our metrics. We use a method to visually represent our constructed metrics as a configuration of points on the plane, and compare this configuration to a map of tracts' physical locations. Specifically, we use a method called multidimensional scaling (MDS) to construct a configuration of points in two dimensions whose interpoint distances approximate those for a given metric. Essentially, our algorithm constructs a configuration using the first two principal components of a standardized version of a distance matrix. Of course the MDS configuration is unique only up to a choice of location and orientation, so we can only compare relative distances under each metric.²⁰ A goodness of fit statistic for the MDS configuration is available that can be roughly interpreted as the percentage of the variation in original distances captured by the fitted configuration. It is roughly analogous to the percentage of variance explained by the first two principal components of a covariance matrix.²¹

We plot the first tract in each of the 75 community areas to give an idea of these configurations under various metrics. Fifteen of these tracts are labelled with their community name so that changes in relative positions and clustering of these tracts can be examined. These areas are Armour Square, Austin, Bridgeport, Clearing, Dunning, Englewood, Gage Park, Hyde Park, Lincoln Park, Loop, Morgan Park, Rogers Park, South Chicago, South Shore, and Uptown.

The physical locations of the tracts are depicted in Figure 1. The origin on this map is centred at the geographic centre of the points, near the Bridgeport neighbourhood. The vertical and horizontal axis represent deviations in kilometres from the centre. The axes are not labelled, however, in order to emphasize that relative distances between tracts are the objects of comparison across metrics, units will vary. The goodness of fit statistic for this configuration is virtually one, since the city of Chicago is not large enough for the curvature of the earth to matter.

The MDS configuration for our measure of ethnic distance in 1990 is presented in Figure 2. This configuration captures almost all the variation in the ethnic metric, having a goodness of fit statistic of 96% in both 1980 and 1990. The clustering of community areas is striking. Predominantly minority areas such as South Shore, Englewood, and Morgan Park are clustered at the bottom of Figure 2. These three Community Areas have a proportion of black persons that ranges between 97% and 100% in 1990. On the other hand, the cluster composed by Clearing, Dunning, Lincoln Park, and the Loop is predominantly white: in these Areas, whites make up between 87% and 98% in 1990. The ethnic composition in these clusters is remarkably stable across the two Census years.²² Relatively few neighbourhoods had a mixed composition, such as Hyde Park (because of the residents affiliated with the University of Chicago) or Gage Park and Austin (that went from being predominantly white in 1980 to having a slight Hispanic majority by 1990).

The MDS configurations for travel time and occupational distance are available from the authors upon request. The MDS configuration for the CTA travel time metric has a goodness of fit statistic

²⁰ To facilitate comparisons, we have translated and rotated each fitted configuration to line up (to the extent possible) with that based on physical distance using a method called Procrustes rotation. See Mardia *et al.* (1979) for a complete explanation of this procedure.

²¹ A brief description of MDS and this goodness of fit statistic is contained in an Appendix available from the authors upon request. See also Mardia *et al.* (1979) for a thorough exposition.

²² Both Clearing and Dunning have a significant presence of persons of Polish origin. This presence is very stable at around 15% in both years.

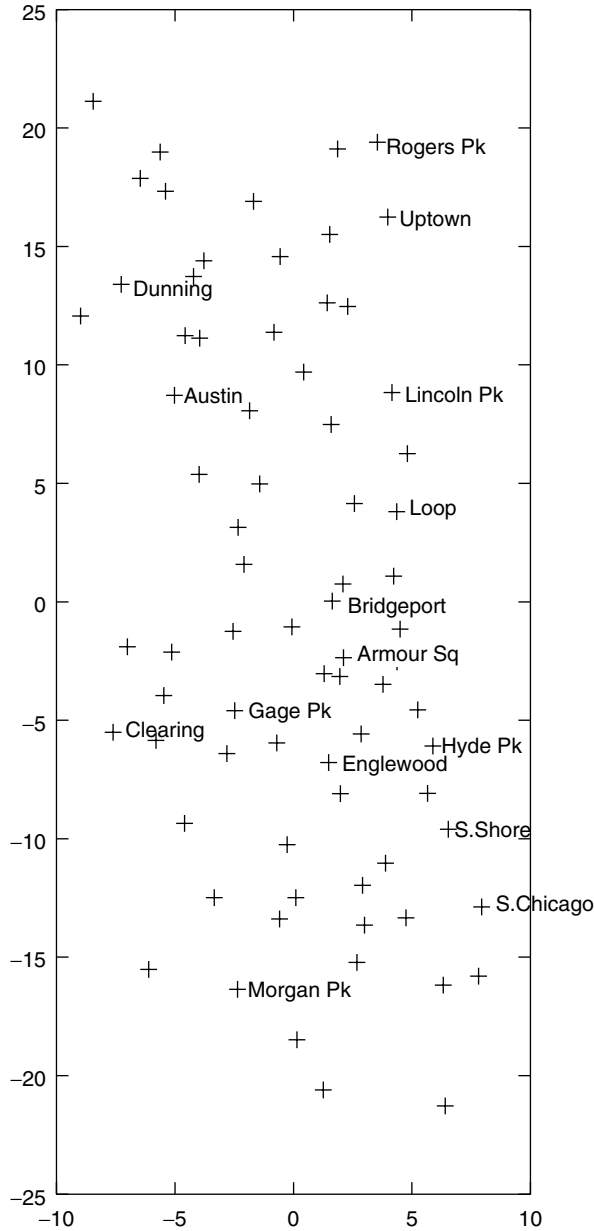


Figure 1. MDS locations for physical distance

of 36%. The reason for this relatively poor fit is that there are many locations across Chicago that are close to being equidistant in terms of travel time via public transportation. Thus many points are equidistant under this metric, making it difficult to represent in a low-dimensional Euclidean space. Neighbourhoods that lie on elevated train lines that radiate from the centre city are close

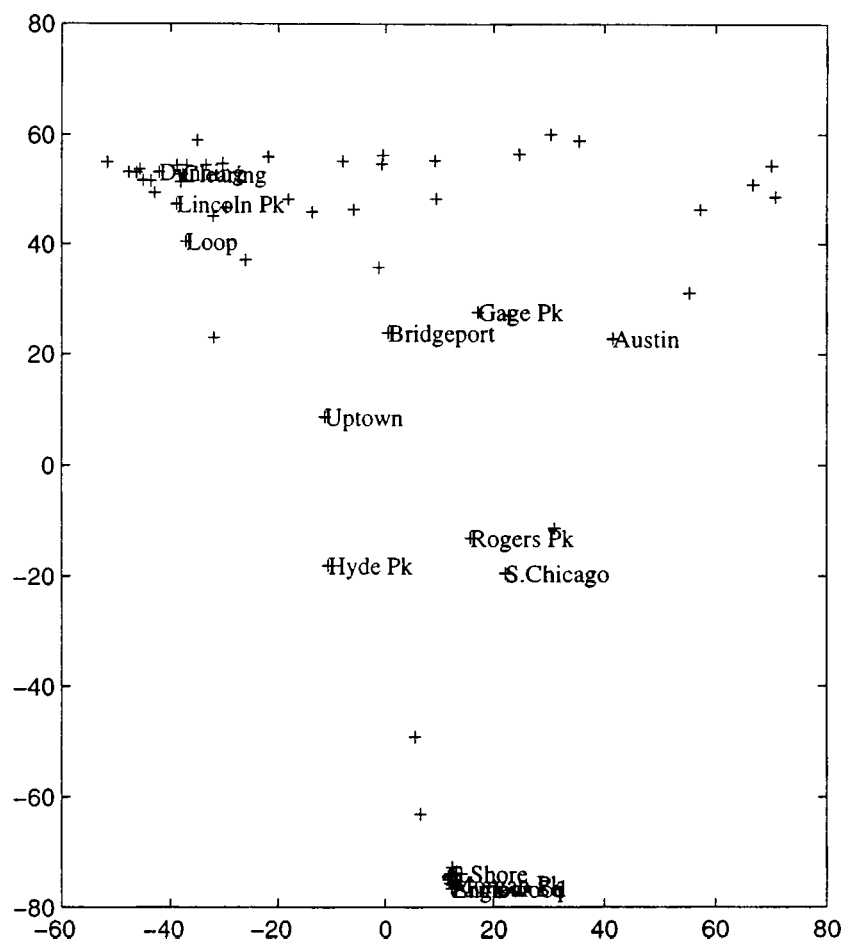


Figure 2. MDS locations for ethnic distance in 1990

in travel time to the Loop. This is why, for example, Rogers Park is relatively close to the Loop despite being at the physical edge of the city. The largest distances in travel times are between those tracts that are physically far apart and do not have train lines connecting them, like Dunning and Morgan Park. Finally, the MDS configuration for occupational distance has a goodness of fit between 54% (for 1980) and 60% (for 1990). Again, one can identify certain clusters: for example, in Lincoln Park, Hyde Park and the Loop the most popular occupations are executive, managerial, and professional specialty. Sales and administrative support are also strong.

4. SPATIAL ECONOMETRIC MODEL

This section contains a brief description of our spatial econometric model.²³ We model observation i as being located at a point s_i in a Euclidean space. The basic model of dependence is that the

²³ A more complete description of this model can be found in Conley (1999).

distance between observations' positions, corresponding to their economic distances, characterizes the dependence between their random variables. If observations i and j are close, then their random variables, say X_{s_i} and X_{s_j} , may be very highly correlated. As the distance between s_i and s_j grows large, X_{s_i} and X_{s_j} become closer to being independent.

Formally, we assume that our vector of variables X_s is stationary and satisfies regularity conditions in Conley (1999).²⁴ Stationarity means that the joint distribution of X_s for any collection of locations $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^m$ (i.e. $\{X_{s_1}, X_{s_2}, \dots, X_{s_m}\}$) is invariant to shifts in the entire set of locations $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^m$. So, for example, the covariance of X_{s_i} and X_{s_j} is a function of $s_i - s_j$. Furthermore we assume that this covariance is a function of distance, not the direction of the vector $s_i - s_j$:

$$\text{cov}(X_{s_i}, X_{s_j}) = f(\|s_i - s_j\|) \quad (1)$$

We will use estimates of this spatial covariance function to describe the covariance of variables as a function of distances.

To estimate the spatial autocovariance function in equation (1), we use a non-parametric estimator of the spatial autocovariance function. The estimator is essentially that proposed by Hall *et al.* ('On the non-parametric estimation of covariance functions', unpublished manuscript, 1992). The autocovariance at distance δ is estimated by a local average of cross-products of demeaned observations that are close to δ units apart. Letting $D_{ij} = \|s_i - s_j\|$, we estimate $f(\delta)$ with:

$$\hat{f}(\delta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N W_N[\|\delta - D_{ij}\|] (X_{s_i} - \bar{X})(X_{s_j} - \bar{X})$$

where \bar{X} is the sample mean of X , and the weight function $W_N(\cdot)$ is normalized to sum to one. In other words, we run a kernel regression of $(X_{s_i} - \bar{X})(X_{s_j} - \bar{X})$ on D_{ij} . We require $W_N(\cdot)$ to be a function of sample size that will concentrate its mass at zero as the sample becomes arbitrarily large at an appropriate rate. Thus, in large samples, the spatial covariance at distance δ will be estimated by an average of cross-products of only those observations that are arbitrarily close to δ units apart and \hat{f} will be consistent.

We will also estimate a generalization of this model that effectively allows us to consider two different distance metrics. To do this, we can simply interpret each observation's position as reflecting two metrics. For example if $s_{1,i}$ corresponds to the physical location of observation i and $s_{2,i}$ describes its ethnic composition, then we could index this observation by

$$s_i = \begin{bmatrix} s_{1,i} \\ s_{2,i} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, rather than restricting covariances to depend on the distance between s_i and s_j we can allow them to depend on distances between these two components:

$$\text{cov}(X_{s_i}, X_{s_j}) = f(\|s_{1,i} - s_{1,j}\|, \|s_{2,i} - s_{2,j}\|) \quad (2)$$

²⁴The assumption of stationarity can be relaxed to allow non-explosive processes that have covariances that vary over space. In this case our covariance function can be interpreted as an average of non-stationary covariances. The foremost regularity condition is that the process is mixing, that X_s and X_r become asymptotically independent as the distance between s and r goes to infinity.

Covariances here can depend on distance according to both metrics. We estimate this more general covariance function with a nonparametric regression as above. Estimates of (2) will be kernel regressions of $(X_{s_i} - \bar{X})(X_{s_j} - \bar{X})$ on two different measures of distance between observations i and j .

4.1. Testing Spatial Independence

We take a slightly unusual approach to conducting a test of whether there is spatial independence. Instead of using a limiting distribution of \hat{f} to test the implication that there is zero spatial correlation, $f(\delta) = 0$, we plot an acceptance region for the specific null hypothesis of spatial independence. Then our hypothesis test can be done by simply observing whether our point estimate of f lies inside the acceptance region.

To compute an acceptance region for the hypothesis of spatial independence we employ a simple bootstrap technique. We hold the sample locations fixed and simulate draws from a distribution with the same stationary (marginal) distribution as our data but with spatial independence. To do this simulation, we just sample with replacement from the empirical marginal distribution of our variables. For each of these bootstrap samples, which by construction are spatially independent, we can calculate a bootstrap estimate of f exactly as we had done for the original data. For each value of δ we take an envelope containing, say, 95% of our bootstrap estimates to give us an approximate acceptance region for the hypothesis of spatial independence.

We prefer this bootstrap method to tests based on limiting distributions for reasons beyond its simplicity. Tests based on the limiting distributions for our local average estimates of f will tend to be unreliable in the presence of spatial dependence. Because the estimator relies on local averages, estimates of asymptotic variances will be the same as if the data were spatially independent. There is evidence that such asymptotic approximations can be very misleading in time series applications of local average methods to data with a high degree of dependence (see e.g. Robinson 1983; Pritsker, 1996). Since, *a priori*, we expect there to be significant dependence between observations we want to avoid overstating the information in our sample by using these estimators to deliver pointwise standard errors. Furthermore, we want to entertain the possibility that our economic distances are measured with error. In this case, our estimator \hat{f} will recover a weighted average of the true autocovariances. The positive weights will be an unknown function of measurement errors and this will make using a limiting distribution to construct standard errors difficult. However, our bootstrap still computes a valid acceptance region for the null of spatial independence for the resulting statistic.

5. ACF ESTIMATES

In this section, we first present ACF estimates for each of our metrics, as well as for pairs of metrics. Then we present a simple decomposition exercise aimed at investigating which sets of variables are most important in describing patterns of spatial correlation. We end this section with a summary of our findings and a discussion of what they tell us about the nature of social interactions.

5.1. One-metric Spatial ACF Estimates

We now report the results of our spatial ACF estimates for each metric separately. These ACF estimates are formed using the kernel regression described above to estimate f and then normalizing it by dividing by the sample second moment to form a correlation function estimate.²⁵ In each plot, we represent both the estimated ACF for the raw unemployment rate (as a solid line), and the ACF for the residuals from the regression of unemployment on our covariates (as a dashed line). In addition, the portions of the ACFs that lie outside the 95% acceptance bands for the null hypothesis of spatial independence are marked with asterisks and circles, respectively.²⁶

Figure 3 contains ACF estimates for the physical distance metric. The first panel in this figure presents the correlation in 1980 unemployment rates and in residuals across tracts as a function of physical distance. The second panel contains the corresponding estimates for 1990 and the third contains estimates for the change in unemployment rate between 1980 and 1990.²⁷ Figure 4 contains similar plots for the racial/ethnic distance metric.²⁸

The first result to be noted is that the spatial ACF of unemployment is strongly and significantly positive at distances close to zero, and decreases roughly monotonically with distance for all metrics, in both years and in the first-difference case. Therefore, spatial clustering of unemployment is quite robust to the different choices of metrics. The second interesting result that is common across metrics is that clustering increases over time: the ACF estimates for the change in unemployment rate over the decade indicate a positive and statistically significant auto-correlation, that again decays with distance. These patterns are roughly consistent with a model of local interactions, in which the evolution of the state of each area is affected by the current state of the neighbouring areas.

An important difference exists between the ACF plots using physical and travel time metrics, on the one hand, and ethnic or occupation metrics, on the other. For the former, the ACF is positive for small distances and decays to zero at large distances, whereas for the latter metrics the ACF actually becomes strongly and significantly negative at large distances. This is especially true for the ethnic metric. Thus, two census tracts with very different racial/ethnic compositions are likely to experience divergent patterns of employment. Typically, a mostly white tract in, say, Lincoln Park, is likely to experience very low unemployment, whereas a tract with a high proportion of minorities in, say, Englewood, is likely to exhibit rather high unemployment rates.

Turning now to the ACF plots for the residuals of unemployment, one can notice important differences across metrics. For the physical metric, unemployment residuals still display a small positive and significant level of spatial auto-correlation at distances close to zero. Interestingly, this result holds true even for the regression in first differences.²⁹ A more general point can be made here about cross sectional dependence in panel data. Individual intercept effects are often used to try and account for, among other things, cross-sectional dependence in panel data. The bottom panel of Figure 3 shows quite clearly that data can still be spatially correlated even after individual effects have been differenced out.

²⁵ The kernel used was a normal kernel in all cases with standard deviations of: 0.3 for physical, 3 for travel time, 10 for ethnic, and 2.5 for occupation distance. We tried to err on the side of undersmoothing the data in these choices for bandwidth.

²⁶ 240 bootstrap draws were used to create this acceptance region.

²⁷ In the latter case, the covariates are first-differenced as well.

²⁸ The plots for the travel time and occupational metrics are very similar to the ACF plots for physical and ethnic distances, respectively, and are therefore omitted for the sake of brevity.

²⁹ This is the type of spatial dependence that was used in Topa (2002) to estimate a measure of local spillovers.

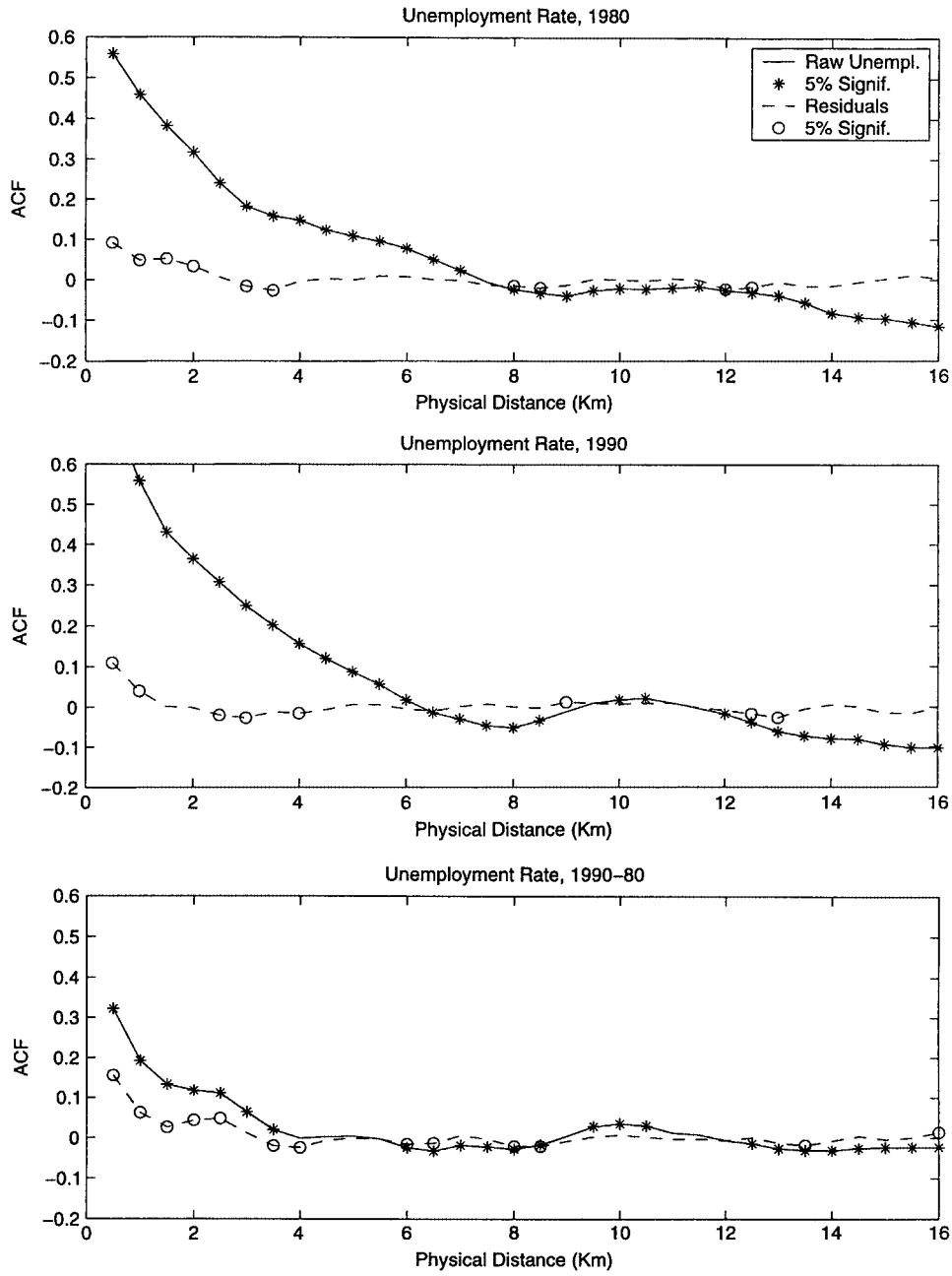


Figure 3. ACFs using physical distance

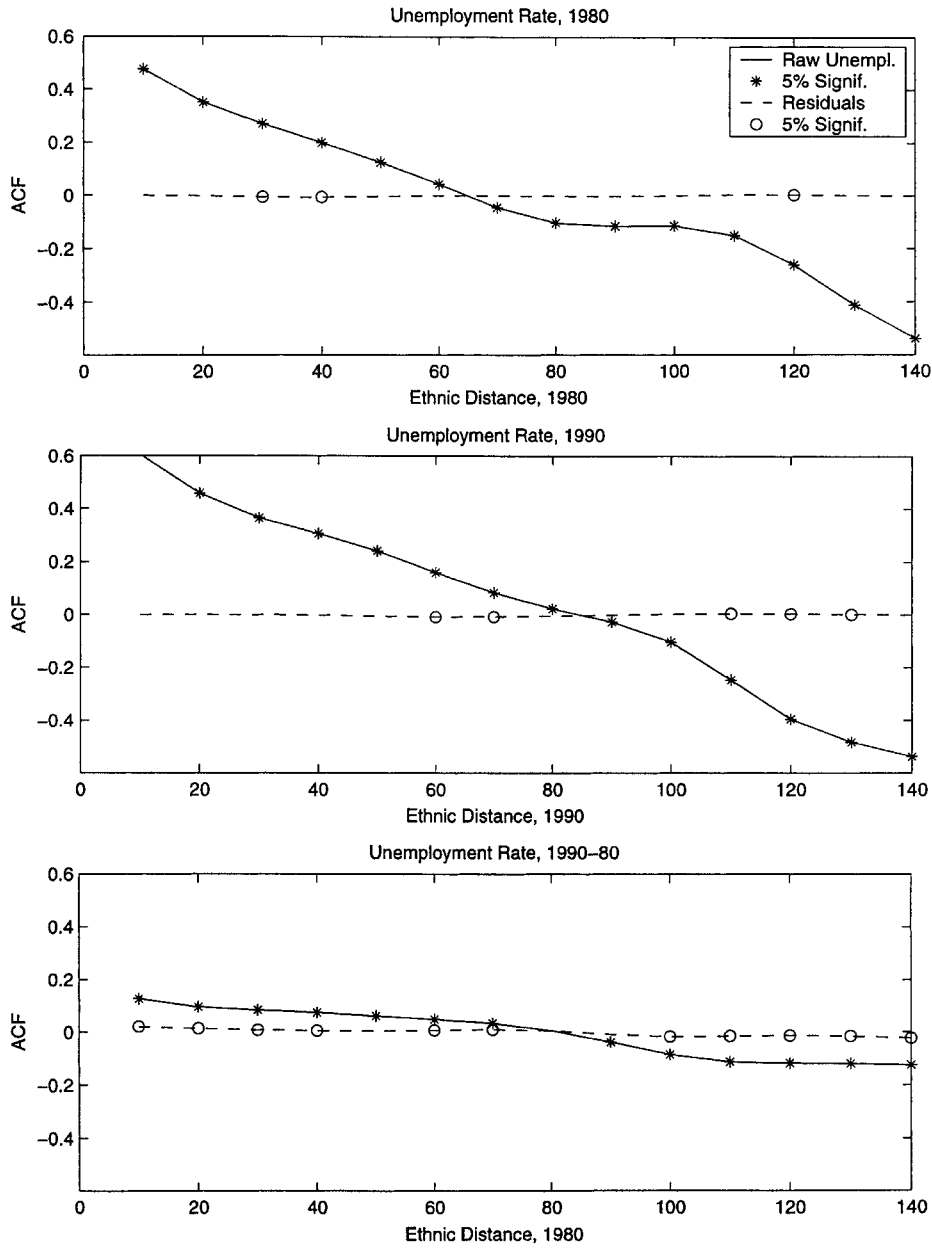


Figure 4. ACFs using ethnic distance

The degree of spatial dependence still present in the residuals of unemployment is weaker for the travel time metric, and disappears altogether for the ethnic and occupation metrics, in the level regressions. For the change regressions, the auto-correlation of unemployment residuals is still significantly different than zero, but the point estimates are very small. Thus it seems that after

one controls for covariates that may affect or reflect the sorting decisions of individual agents, there is very little spatial clustering left. This is especially true as one moves towards metrics that are thought to represent the dimensions along which agents' networks develop better than mere physical distance.

5.2. Two-metric Spatial ACF Estimates

In this section we present estimated correlations as a function of pairs of metrics both for unemployment itself and for its residuals from a regression on the covariates described in Section 2. Unemployment distributions in 1980, in 1990, and in first-differences were considered for each pair of metrics.³⁰ To conserve space we present only a subset of these estimates here, in Plates 1–7. Estimates of surfaces using travel time and physical distance are very similar, therefore we present only estimates using physical distance. The point estimates of the ACF of unemployment are reported as a mesh. The area of the point estimate surface that is outside a bootstrapped 95% acceptance region for the null hypothesis of spatial independence (80 draws) is shaded. Contour lines are also included, to help identify the gradient of the function.

Plate 1 reports the ACF of raw unemployment in 1980, when physical and ethnic metrics are employed. The pattern is remarkably clear. Conditional on any given physical distance, there is a very strong positive auto-correlation at low ethnic distances. The ACF is quite flat with respect to physical distance, whereas it decreases roughly monotonically with ethnic distance. In other words, conditional on any fixed ethnic distance, physical distance does not affect spatial clustering much. This same pattern is present in 1990, as well as in the first-differenced data, therefore we do not present these plots.

The spatial ACF estimates for 1980 unemployment with respect to physical and occupational metrics in Plate 2 reveal a different pattern. Here both physical and occupational distance do matter. The degree of spatial auto-correlation is strongest at about ($PD \approx 0, OD \approx 0$) and is decreasing in both PD and OD . Again this pattern is also present in 1990 and in the first differenced data: therefore we omit these plots.

Plate 3 reports ACF estimates for the combination of racial/ethnic and occupation distances. The ACF surface here is similar to that in Plate 1: for a given racial/ethnic distance correlations are relatively constant as occupation distance changes. In contrast, estimates are predominantly decreasing in racial/ethnic distance for all occupation distances. Again, this pattern is repeated in the 1990 and the change regressions.

Our overall findings for correlation in residuals mirror our one-metric results. With one exception, there are no significant correlation patterns in residuals as a function of pairs of metrics. Once we control for a set of observable characteristics in each tract, the spatial distribution of unemployment is essentially not clustered.

The only evidence of spatial correlation in residuals when two metrics are used appears in the 1980 unemployment ACF surface for physical and occupation distance. The ACF surface lies outside the acceptance region for independence at around ($PD \approx 0, OD \in [0, 10]$). This is also true both in 1990 and in the change regression. Therefore, there is some residual spatial dependence of unemployment, even after controlling for covariates that should reflect sorting decisions by

³⁰ We used a product kernel composed of univariate normal kernels having the following standard deviations: 0.6 for physical, 10 for ethnic, and 2.5 for occupation, and 3 for travel time distances. The bootstrap acceptance regions were formed with 80 draws.

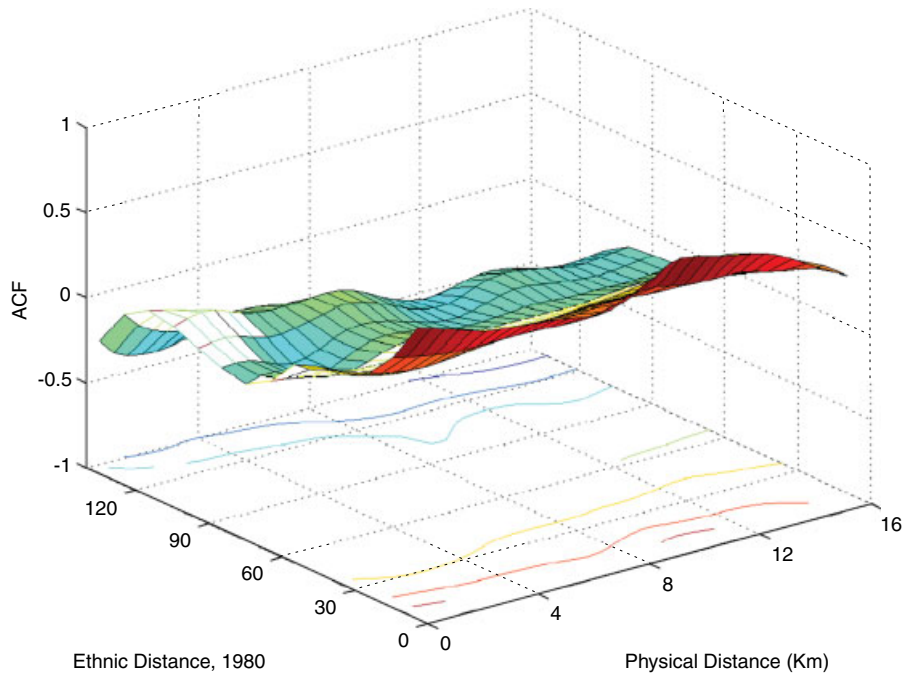


Plate 1. ACF for unemployment rate, 1980

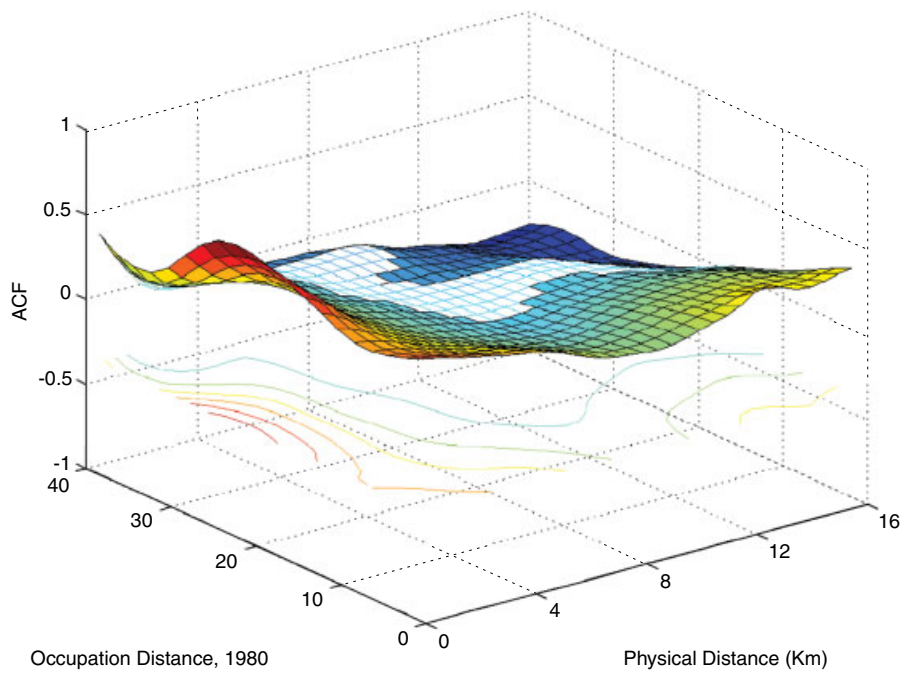


Plate 2. ACF for unemployment rate, 1980

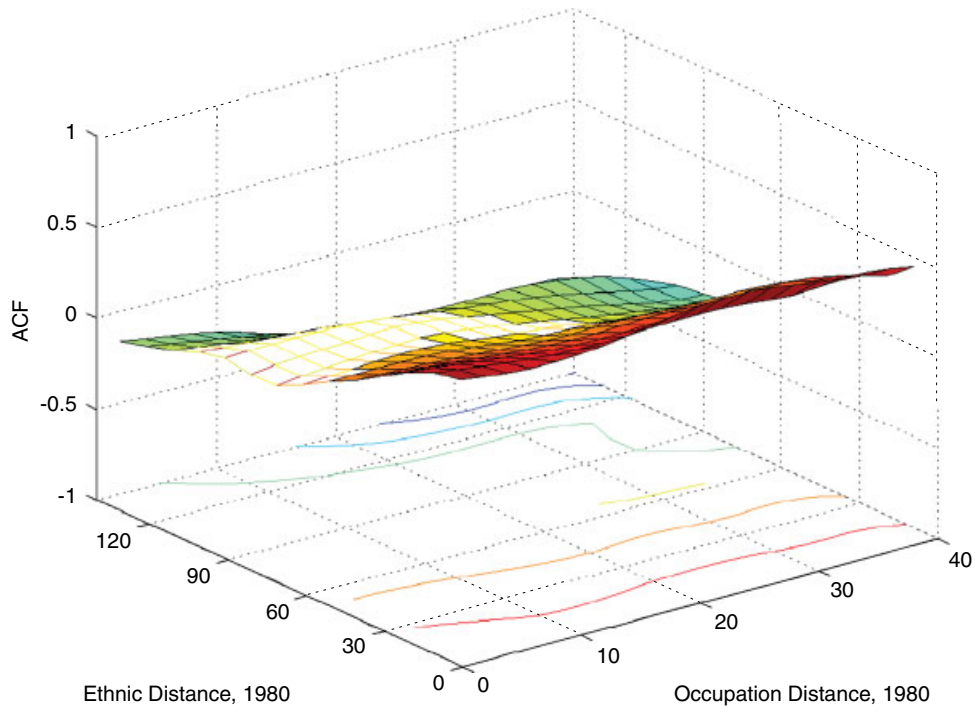


Plate 3. ACF for unemployment rate, 1980

agents. Furthermore, this significant portion of the ACF surface occurs in the range of physical and occupational distance that we expect to be most conducive to useful information exchanges about jobs within agents' social networks.

Ethnic distance clearly seems to be dominant in terms of explaining correlation structures. Once we condition on this metric, there are no systematic patterns of spatial correlation in unemployment with respect to any other metric. In other words, tracts that are at a given ethnic distance exhibit similar unemployment outcomes, regardless of their relative distance with respect to other metrics. This is a very strong result, even though it may be linked to the extreme racial and ethnic segregation in Chicago, and thus may not be generalizable to other US metropolitan areas.

5.3. Covariance Decompositions in the One-metric Case

We have seen in Section 5.1 that the spatial correlation patterns of the residuals of unemployment display little, if any, significant spatial dependence, except for the physical distance metric. Thus it seems that the set of observable characteristics, that we have considered to account for agent heterogeneity as well as sorting across locations, eliminates most of the spatial dependence in unemployment rates. We now proceed to look more closely at these covariates, to try to identify which characteristics contribute the most to 'explaining' the strong clustering that appears in the raw unemployment data.

An issue arises here on how to best decompose spatial correlation. An orthogonal decomposition of our spatial correlation estimates into components that could be attributed to say measures of human capital, ethnic composition and other groups of covariates would be ideal. However, obtaining such a decomposition is complicated by the fact that our covariates are certainly not independent and there are multiple ways to orthogonalize them. Rather than take a stand on a particular orthogonalization, we look at two particular specifications to get an idea of the relative importance of each set of variables. One provides a conservative estimate of a set's importance by looking at its marginal impact, conditioning on all other variables. The other provides a liberal estimate by looking at the impact of using only that set of variables in a bivariate regression.

We proceed as follows. For each metric, we re-estimate one-metric spatial ACFs for residuals from two additional regressions. The first uses only the set of variables of interest (e.g. racial composition), and the second uses all regressors except those in this set. These estimated ACFs are plotted along with our previous estimates for the ACF of both raw unemployment rates and the residuals from a regression including all our regressors. We compare the residual ACF when the full set of regressors is used to that when each set is omitted, and interpret the difference as a conservative measure of the impact of that set of variables. A liberal estimate of the impact of the set of variables is obtained by comparing the correlation of raw unemployment rates themselves to the correlation present in residuals when only that set of variables is used in the regression.³¹ We use this approach to investigate the contribution of three sets of variables in explaining spatial correlation: racial composition, education, and spatial mismatch variables.

We report these comparisons, only for 1990 unemployment rates, in Figures 5 and 6.³² As Figure 5 shows, the racial and ethnic composition variables—the fraction non-white and

³¹ A comparison of the values of adjusted *R* square from these regressions offers an analogous investigation of the impact of these sets of regressors on explaining the variance of unemployment across tracts. These statistics are reported in Tables AI and AII contained in the Appendix.

³² The results for 1980 and the change are very similar, so we omit them for the sake of brevity.

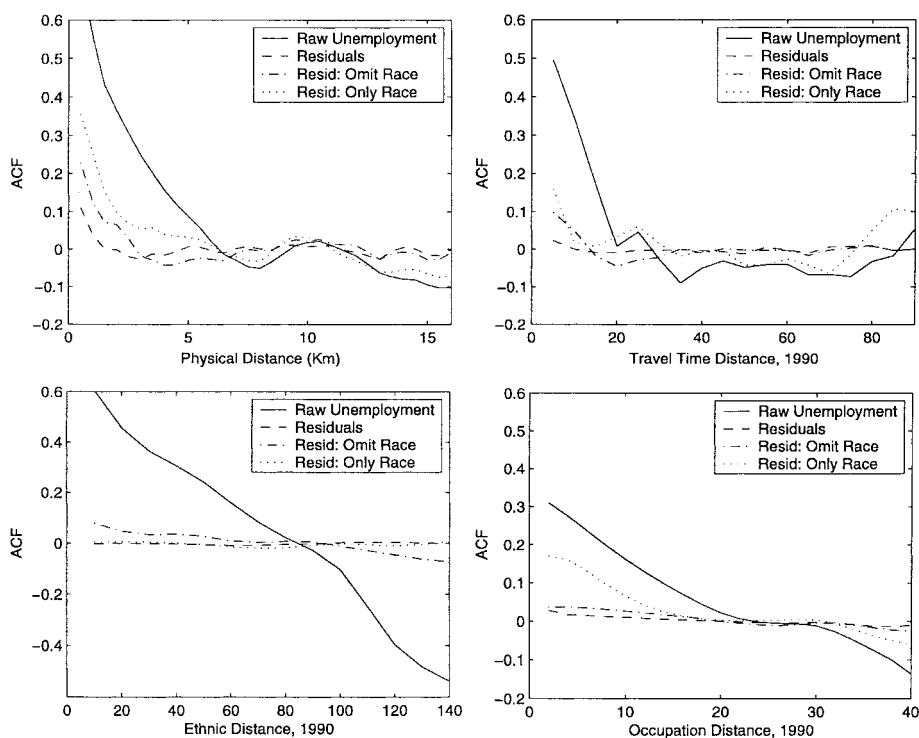


Figure 5. ACF decomposition for unemployment Rate, 1990—racial/ethnic composition

Hispanic—have a significant impact, for all metrics. Excluding these variables from the original set of covariates produces residuals with a statistically significant positive amount of spatial correlation at distances close to zero. The maximum amount of autocorrelation ranges from about 0.23 in the physical metric case to about 0.04 in the case of occupational distance. Compared to residuals using the full set of regressors, the point estimates of spatial autocorrelation increase substantially. When these racial/ethnic composition variables are the only regressors, the spatial correlation in the corresponding residuals is dramatically less than in the raw unemployment rates. In particular, in the racial/ethnic distance case, racial composition variables alone eliminate all of the autocorrelation in raw unemployment. Thus, these variables appear to be very important in ‘explaining’ the spatial correlation of unemployment rates as a function of all metrics. However, it is important to note that there is evidence that the remaining variables do contribute to ‘explaining’ spatial correlation. For all metrics, our conservative measure of the importance of race/ethnicity yields a substantial but not overwhelming marginal impact of these variables. For example, consider the ethnic distance panel of Figure 5. The dot-dashed line in this panel represents the correlation in residuals when our race and ethnicity variables are not in the regression. Although it is above the dashed line representing correlation in residuals from the full specification, it is far short of the solid line describing the correlation present without conditioning on the non-race/ethnicity variables.

The education variables—the fraction of high school and college graduates—have a limited impact on our ACF estimates. Except for the racial/ethnic metric case, our conservative measure

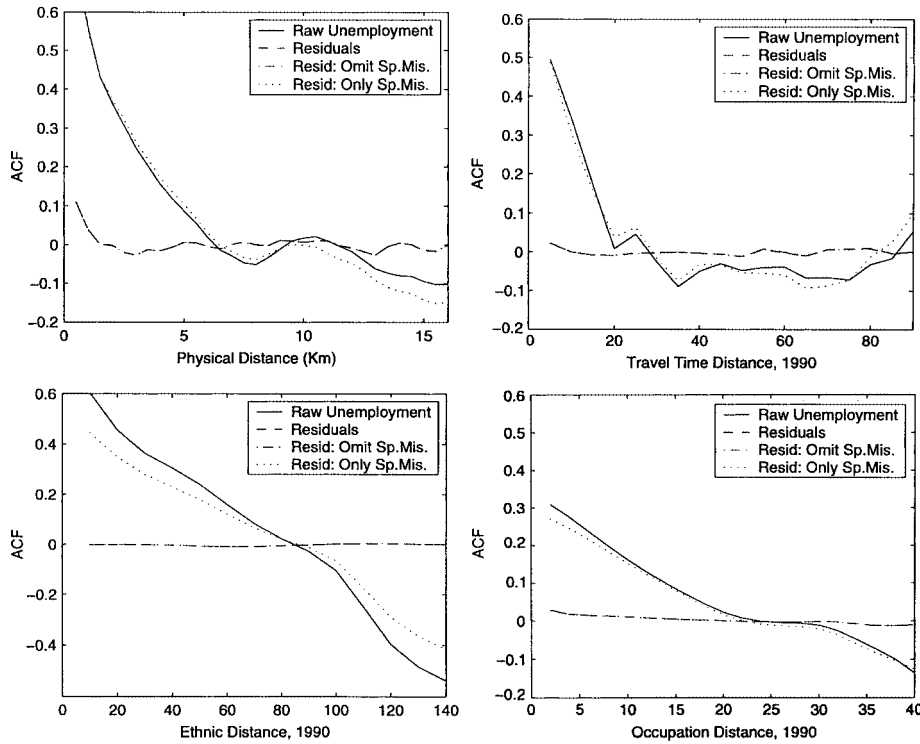


Figure 6. ACF decomposition for unemployment Rate, 1990—spatial mismatch

of impact shows a modest increase in the residual ACF of unemployment. However, the amount of spatial correlation is still quite small if compared to the raw autocorrelation. The comparison of the raw unemployment ACF with that when only education variables are used—our liberal measure—confirms this result.

Finally, Figure 6 shows that the spatial mismatch variable—the median commuting distance to jobs—does not have a noticeable impact upon correlation using any metric, when our conservative measure is used. The spatial correlation in residuals remains essentially unchanged when this variable is omitted from the full set of regressors. Even with our liberal measure, the impact of this variable on the autocorrelation of unemployment is almost negligible, except when the racial/ethnic metric is used. Therefore, there is little support for the spatial mismatch hypothesis playing an important role in explaining the observed patterns of spatial dependence, at least given our proxy for access to jobs.³³

5.4. Interpretation

We can summarize the main results in this section as follows. First, there is a considerable amount of spatial correlation in raw unemployment at distances close to zero for all

³³ A similar finding was reported in Topa (2002).

our metrics. However, once we condition on a set of regressors, the residuals display little to no correlation. Our only evidence of small but significant spatial correlation occurs using physical distance and the combination of physical and occupation distance. Second, racial/ethnic distance seems to be the dominant metric with respect to which raw unemployment exhibits any systematic spatial patterns. Once we condition on it, the other metrics do not play a role. Third, within the set of conditioning variables, the racial and ethnic composition within each tract seems to 'explain' the largest share of the spatial correlation in unemployment.

The finding that our tract-level regressors all but eliminate the observed spatial correlation in raw unemployment rates is quite surprising, considering all the possible unobserved factors that may drive sorting or generate comovements in unemployment, but are excluded in this analysis. A partial list includes school quality in each tract or in neighbouring areas; crime rates; the location of employment agencies; the presence of parks and other local public goods. Such unobservables are a plausible source of the small correlation we find associated with physical distance. However, when we turn to metrics that should reflect the likely dimensions of social networks more closely, these effects disappear.

Another way to describe our findings is to say that the available information about a tract's own characteristics is sufficient to predict that tract's unemployment rate with an error that is essentially uncorrelated across tracts. It is doubtful that additional information about nearby tracts would add anything useful to predict its unemployment rate, as the residuals appear to be close to spatially uncorrelated. So spillover effects across tracts are likely to be very difficult to find. This suggests that the appropriate scale of analysis to search for evidence of local interactions may be smaller than a census tract.

Several explanations could be given for our findings that, regardless of their physical or occupational distance, tracts that have similar ethnic compositions experience similar unemployment outcomes and that racial and ethnic composition variables explain the largest share of the spatial correlation of unemployment. It is clear that race and ethnicity are important explanatory variables for predicting unemployment for several potential reasons. They could proxy for unobserved heterogeneity in skills or human capital, or reflect differential access to the labour market: this, in turn, may be due to informal hiring networks, or to discrimination in the labour market.³⁴ The association of the race and ethnicity with unemployment combined with spatial correlation in these measures themselves could generate our findings. This is a plausible explanation as racial and ethnic variables are in fact strongly spatially correlated as a function of physical distance. ACF estimates for the fraction of non-whites and Hispanics in 1980, using physical distance, indicate that both these variables exhibit a large positive degree of spatial correlation that decays with distance.³⁵ The same pattern holds in 1990 and using first differences.

There may be several reasons for the high correlations of the percentages of non-whites and Hispanics in physically nearby tracts. They may be due simply to a taste for living next to people

³⁴ Holzer (1996) reports that employers may avoid hiring people of a certain race or ethnicity, or who come from specific neighbourhoods. Montgomery ('social networks and persistent inequality in the labor market', unpublished manuscript, 1992) analyses a model in which the use of informal hiring channels, coupled with homophily in social networks along racial and ethnic lines, leads to persistent inequality in labour market outcomes across racial and ethnic groups.

³⁵ It is interesting to note that the spatial correlation for non-whites reaches zero at about 7 km, whereas for Hispanics it reaches zero faster, at roughly 4 km. This indicates that clusters of non-whites (predominantly blacks) are larger geographically than those of Hispanics.

of the same race/ethnicity (a pure preference story), or to the existence of segregation in the housing market. This may also be an artifact of agents choosing location in response to the type of social network effects that we are trying to study. An investigation of this last explanation will require individual level data, again emphasizing the limits of the census tract aggregates we use here.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper has tried to characterize spatial patterns of unemployment in the city of Chicago. We defined several distance metrics that, following economic and sociological considerations, we expected to track the dimensions along which networks are constructed. In particular we used physical distance, travel time, and the difference between the ethnic or occupational distribution within any two areas. We presented MDS representations of selected metrics to illustrate some of their differences. We then presented nonparametric estimates of the auto-correlation function with respect to each metric and pairs of metrics, both for unemployment and for residuals from its regression upon tract characteristics.

Our results are mixed. For the one metric case, when the variable is raw unemployment, we find a strong and positive level of auto-correlation of unemployment at distances close to zero, for all the metrics proposed here. This spatial correlation decays roughly monotonically with distance. However, when we look at the residuals from a regression of unemployment on a set of observable tract characteristics, most of the spatial dependence is eliminated, especially when we consider ethnic or occupational metrics.

In the two metric case, some additional patterns emerge. When combinations of physical, travel time, or occupation distance are used together with ethnic distance, the latter seems to drive most of the spatial dependence of raw unemployment data. The ACFs do not show any systematic correlation pattern with respect to any other metric, once we condition on a given ethnic distance. As in the one-metric case, conditioning on our tract-level variables eliminates most of the spatial dependence of unemployment. The lone instance of significant (but small) correlation occurs in the case of physical and occupation metric combination.

Finally, we address the question of which regressors are most important to eliminate the spatial correlation present in the raw data. It seems that our racial and ethnic composition variables are the single most important factor in reducing the amount of spatial dependence present in the raw data, for all years and under all metrics. Education variables play a more limited role, whereas the spatial mismatch variable does not change our initial results in any appreciable way.

The results suggest that the Census tract level may not be the appropriate scale of analysis to search for evidence of social interactions. Perhaps most of the action takes place at a lower level of aggregation. Furthermore, the dominance of the racial/ethnic distance metric and of the racial/ethnic composition variables in explaining the spatial correlation patterns in raw unemployment is intriguing. Further research is necessary to determine whether this phenomenon is unique to the city of Chicago, or applies to other US metropolitan areas as well. The use of linked firm-employee data sets and structural models of behaviour may be necessary to distinguish between competing explanations for this dominance, such as skill-biased technological change, informal hiring networks and social capital, discrimination in the labour market and segregation in the housing market.

Table AI. Adjusted R squared from regressions of unemployment on each set of variables

	1980	1990	1990–80
Racial/ethnic composition	0.405	0.4651	0.0618
Education	0.2849	0.314	0.1107
Spatial mismatch	0.0694	0.0731	–0.0006

Table AII. Change in adjusted R squared when each set of variables is omitted

	1980	1990	1990–80
Baseline	0.6096	0.7322	0.315
Racial/ethnic composition	0.0564	0.0799	0.0482
Education	0.0295	0.0213	0.039
Spatial mismatch	–0.0001	0.0001	–0.0005

APPENDIX

We present adjusted R^2 from the sets of regressions that generated the results of the covariance decompositions. Table AI presents adjusted R^2 from OLS regressions of unemployment rates in 1980, 1990, and in first differences on each set of variables—race, education, and spatial mismatch—in turn. Table AII presents the difference between adjusted R^2 from a regression including all our conditioning information and one with everything *except* the listed set of variables. So, the first row in Table AI describes the percentage of the variation in unemployment accounted for by our race/ethnicity variables alone, and the first row of Table AII describes the added variation explained by the race/ethnicity variables compared to a regression that already contained all other regressors. This evidence suggests that racial/ethnic and education variables (specifically percentage non-white and high school graduates) are the most valuable for predicting variation in unemployment across tracts.

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