The Pareto Distribution
Background
Power Function

Consider an arbitrary power function, \( x \mapsto k x^\alpha \), where \( k \) is a constant and the exponent \( \alpha \) governs the relationship. The logarithmic transformation of this power function is linear in \( \log(x) \). That is, if \( y = k x^\alpha \), then \( \log(y) = \log(k) + \alpha \log(x) \). Another way to say this is that the elasticity of \( y \) with respect to \( x \) is constant: \( \frac{d \log(y)}{d \log(x)} = \alpha \). To communicate the property that the elasticity does not depend on the size of \( x \), the power relationship is called scale invariant.
Two Power Functions (square vs square root)
A power law is a theoretical or empirical relationship governed by a power function. Examples include the following.

- In geometry, the area of a regular polygon is proportional to the square of the length of a side.

- In physics, the gravitational attraction of two objects is inversely proportional to the square of their distance.

- In ecology, Taylor’s Law states that the variance of
population density is a power-function of mean population density.

- In economics, Gabaix (1999) finds the population of cities follows a power law (with an inequality parameter close to 1; see below).

- In economics, Luttmer (2007) finds the distribution of employment in US firms follows a power law (with inequality parameter close to 1).

- In economics and business, the Pareto Principle (or 80-20 rule) says that 80% of income accrues to the top 20% of income recipients.
Pareto’s Principle

In 1897, Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923) proposed that the number of people \(N_x\) with incomes higher than \(x\) can be modeled as a power law:

\[N_x = A / x^\alpha = A x^{-\alpha}\]

Let the total population be \(N_0\), and let the minimum income be \(x_0\). Then \(N_0 = A x_0^{-\alpha}\), and we can write this in proportionate terms:

\[N_x / N_0 = (x / x_0)^{-\alpha}\]

Normalize \(x_0 = 1\). For ease in discussion, we will
then call $x$ relative income. Using this notation, Pareto’s principle is that $n = x^{-\alpha}$ for $x \geq 1$, where $n = N_x / N_0$ is the proportion of relatively rich in the population (i.e., those with relative income greater than $x$). Assuming $\alpha > 1$, we can find (by integration) that the area under this curve is $1/(\alpha - 1)$, that the proportion of that area that lies before any point $x_0$ is $1 - x_0^{1-\alpha}$, and that the proportion of that area that lies past any point $x_0$ is correspondingly $x_0^{1-\alpha}$. 
Pareto’s Principle: Graphical Illustration

\[ p = \frac{(1 - \bar{x}^{1-\alpha})/(\alpha-1)}{\bar{x}^{1-\alpha}/(\alpha-1)} \]
Digression on Integration Details

From the basic principles of integration, we know that the antiderivative of $x^{-\alpha}$ is $x^{1-\alpha}/(1-\alpha)$.

\[
\text{Integrate}[x^{-\alpha}, x]
\]

\[
\frac{x^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha}
\]

Therefore the definite integral over the interval $[1 .. x_0]$ is $(1 - x_0^{1-\alpha})/(1 - \alpha)$. 
Correspondingly, the total area under the curve is $rac{1}{(\alpha - 1)}$. 

Simplify:

$$\frac{1 - x^0^{1-\alpha}}{\alpha - 1} = \text{Integrate} [x^{-\alpha}, \{x, 1, x^0\}], \text{Assumptions} \rightarrow \alpha > 1 && x^0 > 1$$

True
\[
\int x^{-\alpha}, \{x, 1, \infty\} \sim
\]

\[
\text{Simplify} \sim (\text{Assumptions} \rightarrow \alpha > 1)
\]

\[
\frac{1}{-1 + \alpha}
\]
Suppose we are interested in the fraction of total income received by the top 20% of income recipients.

Under the Pareto principle that $n = x^{-\alpha}$, we have seen that the share of total income received by those with relative incomes above $x$ can then be written as $s = x^{1-\alpha}$.

We can also invert the Pareto principle to yield $x = n^{-1/\alpha}$.

Combining these two observations, for a given
proportion \( n \) of top income earners, we can find the associated top-share of income as
\[
\begin{align*}
  s &= \left( n^{-1/\alpha} \right)^{1-\alpha} = n^{1-1/\alpha}.
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Eliminate}\left[ n = x^{-\alpha} && s = x^{1-\alpha}, \ x \right] & // \text{Quiet} \\
\text{Solve}[\%, \ \alpha] & // \text{PowerExpand} // \text{Simplify}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
  s^{1-\alpha} &= \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\left\{ \left\{ \alpha \rightarrow \frac{\text{Log}[n]}{\text{Log}[n] - \text{Log}[s]} \right\} \right\}
\]

For example, for Pareto’s 80-20 rule to hold, we must have \( \alpha \approx 1.16 \).
\[
\frac{\text{Log}[n]}{\text{Log}[n] - \text{Log}[s]} \quad \text{/. \{s \rightarrow 0.80, n \rightarrow 0.20\}}
\]

1.16096
Deducing the Income Share of the Richest

Given $\alpha$ we can compute the total income share of the proportion $p$ of the richest income recipients.

For example, if $\alpha = 2$ then the richest 1% of income recipients receive 10% of total income.

\[
p^{1-1/\alpha} / \{ p \to 0.01, \alpha \to 2 \}
\]

\[
0.1
\]
It naturally follows that the rest of the population (i.e., the poorest 99% of income recipients) receive the rest of income (i.e., 90% of total income).
Income Share of the Richest: Illustrated
Income Share of the Poorest (Lorenz Curve)

It is somewhat more common to rotate this plot 180° to display the income share of the poorest. The result is usually called a Lorenz curve. (Note however, Lorenz (1905) plotted the cumulative population share against the cumulative wealth share. I.e., our Lorenz curve is the inverse of his—a reflection through the 45° line.)
Income Share of the Poorest ($\alpha=2$)
It is common to report $\eta = 1/\alpha$ as the measure of Pareto inequality. Since we generally think $\alpha \in (1, 2)$, we should find $\eta \in (0.5, 1)$. Jones (2015) claims that in the contemporary US, $\eta \approx 0.6$ for the distribution of income. This should correspond to a top 1% share of around 16%.

\[
p^{1-1/\alpha} \rightarrow \{ p \rightarrow 0.01, \alpha \rightarrow 10/6 \}
\]

0.158489
Power-Law Distributions
Continuous Power-Law Probability Distribution

Define a continuous power-law distribution with shape parameter $\alpha > 0$ and size parameter $x_0 > 0$ to be a distribution with probability distribution function $p[x] = k x^{-(1+\alpha)}$ for $x > x_0$. The antiderivative is

$$-\frac{k x^{-\alpha}}{\alpha}$$

We can therefore compute the (improper) integral
over \( [x_0 \ldots \infty] \) to be

\[
\frac{k x_0^{-\alpha}}{\alpha}
\]

The constant \( k \) must be chosen to satisfy normalization (unitarity), since the total area under the PDF must equal 1. This means that \( k \) must be

\[
x_0^{\alpha \alpha}
\]

Plugging in our solution for the constant of integration back into our PDF, we fully characterize of our power-law distribution in terms of two parameters: the shape parameter (\( \alpha \)) and the size parameter (\( x_0 \)).
This distribution is usually known as the Pareto distribution, and we will soon relate it to the Pareto principle. (It is sometimes known as the Bradford distribution, after Bradford (1934), but this term also refers to a related truncated distribution.)
The Pareto Distribution

The social sciences have found that the Pareto distribution embodies a useful power law. The Pareto Distribution is most often presented in terms of its survival function, which gives the probability of seeing larger values than $x$. (This is often known as the complementary CDF, since it is $1$-CDF. It is sometimes called the reliability function or the tail function.) The survival function of a Pareto distribution for $x \in [x_0, \infty]$ is
This value of this survival function is initially 1 and declines to 0 as $x$ increases. It defines a continuous probability distribution on $[x_0 \ .. \ \infty]$. We are only interested in $x > x_0$, and we are usually interested in $\alpha > 1$ (which is required for finite mean value). We call $x_0 > 0$ the location parameter; we call $\alpha > 0$ the shape parameter (or slope parameter, or Pareto index); and we say the distribution is Pareto[$x_0, \alpha$].
Survival: Intuition

Consider a population of households and suppose sampling household incomes is like sampling from a Pareto[10000,2]. What proportion of people earn more than $100000 (i.e., ten times the minimum)? From the form of the survival function \((x/x_0)^{-2}\), it should be obvious that the answer is \(10^{-2}\): only 1 in 100 households earn more than $100000.

Elaborating, we see that for \(\alpha = 2\) and any \(x_0\), we find
that 1% of the population has income greater than $10 \times x_0$. This is one way in which the Pareto distribution (along with other power law distributions) is scale free.

\[
\text{Simplify}
\begin{align*}
\text{SurvivalFunction}
&\text{ParetoDistribution}[x_0, 2], 10 \times x_0], \\
&\text{Assumptions} \rightarrow x_0 > 0
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{100}
\]

What is more, this scale-free relationship holds as well for subgroups: only 1% of the top 1% will have incomes that are another ten times higher.
Simplify[
  SurvivalFunction[
    ParetoDistribution[x0, 2], 10*10*x0],
  Assumptions \[x0 > 0]\]

\[
\frac{1}{10000}
\]
Survival and the Pareto Index

To simplify comparisons, let us work with a normalized Pareto distribution: \( S[x] = x^{-\alpha} \) for \( x \geq 1 \). That is, we normalize \( x_0 = 1 \). This lets us work with a single parameter: \( \alpha \), the shape parameter of the Pareto distribution.
Pareto Survival Functions

Survival Rate

Size

$\alpha = 1$

$\alpha = 1.5$

$\alpha = 2$
Contrast with the Exponential Distribution
The Exponential Distribution

Let us briefly compare the Pareto distribution to the exponential distribution, which may initially seem similar. The survival function of the exponential distribution is $S[x] = e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$, where $\lambda > 0$ is the shape parameter of the distribution. (Correspondingly the CDF is $F[x] = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$ and the PDF is $f[x] = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$.)
Survival Rate

Survival Function \((\text{Exponential}[1.5])\)
Contrast with the Exponential Distribution

Because the survival rate in the tail is higher for the Pareto distribution than for the exponential, we say that the Pareto distribution has a fat tail. We can begin to see the difference by plotting the survival functions.
Pareto ($\alpha=1.5$)

Exponential ($\lambda=1$)
Further Contrast with the Exponential Distribution

Recall that the survival function of the exponential distribution is \( S[x] = e^{-\lambda x} \). At first sight the Pareto distribution may seem to have much in common with the exponential distribution. However, the survival rate of the Pareto distribution declines much more slowly. Here is a way to consider that contrast: for \( x_1, x_2 > x_0 \) and associated \( N_1, N_2 \), the Pareto distribution implies
\[ \log \left( \frac{N_1}{N_2} \right) = -\alpha \log \left( \frac{x_1}{x_2} \right) \]

whereas for the exponential distribution

\[ \log \left( \frac{N_1}{N_2} \right) = -\lambda (x_1 - x_2) \]

Under a Pareto distribution, relative survival depends only on the ratio \( \frac{x_1}{x_2} \), so the same relationship holds anywhere tail of the income distribution, no matter how far out. If the top 20% of people receive 80% of income, then the top 4% (20% of 20%) receive 64% (80% of 80%) of income, and so on.
Most popular probability distributions have well defined means, variances, and higher-order moments. For example, the exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$ has a mean of $1/\lambda$ and a variance of $1/\lambda^2$. For such distributions, outcomes far from the mean are very rare. Other distributions have “fat” tails: outcomes far from the mean are less rare. For example, the Pareto distribution has infinite variance if $\alpha \leq 2$.

A probability distribution is said to be fat-tailed if
eventually (i.e., as $x$ gets big) the PDF is proportional to a power function of the form $x \mapsto x^{-(1+\alpha)}$ where $\alpha > 0$.

Equivalently, the survival function $P[X > x]$ is eventually proportional to a power function of the form $x \mapsto x^{-\alpha}$ where $\alpha > 0$. Contrast this with the survival function for an exponential distribution: $\text{e}^{-\lambda x}$. No matter how small we make $\lambda > 0$, we will find $\text{e}^{-\lambda x} / x^{-\alpha}$ is eventually tiny. Any power law distribution eventually has a much bigger tail than any exponential distribution.
Assuming \( \lambda > 0 \) && \( \alpha > 0 \),

\[
\text{Limit}[\text{Exp}[-\lambda x]/x^{-\alpha}, x \rightarrow \infty]
\]

0
Algebraic Details (Fat Tail)

We can show more formally that survival function declines more rapidly for the exponential than for the Pareto distribution.

\[
\lim_{x \to \infty} e^{-\lambda x + \alpha \ln x} = \text{Exp}[\lim_{x \to \infty} -\lambda x + \alpha \ln x] \text{ by continuity, and we can write the latter as } \\
\text{Exp}[\lim_{x \to \infty} (-\lambda x / \ln x + \alpha ) \ln x]. \text{ Recall that } \\
\infty = \lim_{x \to \infty} (x / \ln x), \text{ or apply L’Hospital’s rule to show it. So we have }
\]
\[
\text{Limit} \left[ (-\lambda x + \alpha) \log(x), x \to \infty \right] = -\infty
\]

and correspondingly

\[
\text{Exp} \left[ \text{Limit} \left[ (-\lambda x + \alpha) \log(x), x \to \infty \right] \right] = 0
\]
Intimate Relation of Pareto to Exponential

There is an intimate relationship between the Pareto and exponential distributions. Recall that the survival function of the exponential distribution is $e^{-\lambda x}$.

Let $Y$ be exponentially distributed, with survival function $P[Y > y] = (e^y)^{-\alpha}$. (For convenience we have changed the name of the shape parameter.) Define a new random variable by $X = x_0 e^Y$. Then compute the survival probability...
\[ P[X > x] = P[x0 \leq x] = P[e^Y > x/x0] = P[Y > \log(x/x0)] = (x/x0)^{-\alpha} \]

Comparing to the resulting survival function for the Pareto distribution, we see that \( X \) has a Pareto distribution.

Simplify[
   SurvivalFunction[ExponentialDistribution[\[ \alpha \] ]][
       Log[x / x0],
       x \geq x0 > 0
   ]
]

\[ \left( \frac{x0}{x} \right)^{\alpha} \]
Some Pareto Details
Recall the that the Pareto survival function is \((x/x_0)^{-\alpha}\) for \(x \geq x_0\). (The minimum value \(x_0\) is called the location parameter; \(\alpha\) is called the shape parameter.) The survival function returns the probability of seeing an outcome bigger than \(x\). Since the cumulative distribution function (CDF) gives the probability of seeing a values less than or equal to \(x\), it must be \(1 - (x/x_0)^{-\alpha}\).
Simplify[
  CDF[ParetoDistribution[x0, \(\alpha\)], x],
  Assumptions \(\rightarrow x \geq x0 > 0\)]

\[1 - \left(\frac{x0}{x}\right)^\alpha\]
CDF vs Survival Function of Pareto Distributions

Recall the that the Pareto survival function for values greater than the minimum is \((x/x_0)^{-\alpha}\). Normalize \(x_0 = 1\) for presentational simplicity, so that we have \(n = x^{-\alpha}\).
Pareto Distribution ($\alpha=1.5$)

CDF

Tail Function

Size
The probability distribution function (PDF) gives the likelihood of an outcome occurring near any particular possible value.

\[
\text{PDF} \left[ \text{ParetoDistribution}[x_0, \alpha], x \right],
\]

Assumptions \( x > x_0 > 0 \)

\[ x^{-1-\alpha} x_0^\alpha \alpha \]

We may say the PDF gives us the marginal rate
at which the cumulative probability (given by the CDF) is increasing. That is, the PDF is the derivative of the CDF.

Simplify[
  PDF[ParetoDistribution[x0, α], x] ==
  D[CDF[ParetoDistribution[x0, α], x], x],
  Assumptions → x > x0 > 0
]

True
CDF and PDF of Pareto Distributions: Illustration

Pareto Distribution ($\alpha=1.5$)

- CDF
- PDF
Log-Linear Survival

Recall that the survival function of the normalized Pareto can be characterized by $n = x^{-\alpha}$. Take the logarithm of both sides:

$$\log(n) = -\alpha \log(x)$$

Note that we have a linear relationship in logs. We can therefore say that the size elasticity of the
survival rate is the constant \( \alpha \). (We will return to this.)

Similarly, since the CDF is \( 1 - x^{-\alpha} \), the PDF is \( \alpha x^{-(\alpha+1)} \), which a log transformation again linearizes.

\[
\text{Simplify}
\begin{align*}
\log[\alpha x^{-(\alpha+1)}], \\
\text{Assumptions} \rightarrow \alpha > 0 \& \& x > 0 \end{align*}
\text{// PowerExpand}
\]

\[(-1-\alpha) \log[x] + \log[\alpha]\]
PDF of Pareto Distributions: Loglinearity
Average Size

The PDF of the Pareto\([x_0, \alpha]\) distribution is 
\[
\left(\frac{\alpha}{x_0}\right) \left(\frac{x}{x_0}\right)^{-(\alpha + 1)}.
\]

Use this PDF to compute the average size of a draw from the Pareto distribution as 
\[
\int_{x_0}^{\infty} x p(x) \, dx = \int_{x_0}^{\infty} \alpha \left(\frac{x}{x_0}\right)^{-\alpha} \, dx.
\]
This integral only exists for \(\alpha > 1\), in which case it is 

\[
\frac{x_0 \alpha}{-1 + \alpha}.
\]
We can also compute this result using WL’s builtin functions (although this provides less conceptual insight).

\[
\text{Simplify[}
\text{Mean@ParetoDistribution}[x_0, \alpha],
x_0 > 0 \&\& \alpha > 1\]
\]

\[
\frac{x_0 \alpha}{-1 + \alpha}
\]
Proportion of Total Income

Suppose income follows a Pareto\( [x_0, \alpha] \) distribution where we let \( p(x) = \alpha x_0^\alpha x^{-(1+\alpha)} \) is the PDF. Then the weighted sum of all incomes less than or equal to any given cutoff \( t \geq x_0 \) is

\[
\int_{x_0}^{t} x \ p \ [x] \ \mathrm{d}x = \frac{x_0^\alpha}{1 + \alpha} - \frac{t^{1-\alpha} x_0^\alpha}{1 + \alpha}
\]

Dividing by the mean (i.e., the probability weighted sum of all incomes, which we computed above) produces an expression for the proportion of total
income constituted by incomes of \( t \) or less:
\[
1 - (t/x0)^{1-\alpha}.
\]

Note that this expression only makes sense for \( \alpha > 1 \) (the case in which the mean exists). Also note that the value of the result \( 1 - (t/x0)^{1-\alpha} \) depends only on the value of the ratio \( t/x_0 \).
Lorenz Curve and Gini Coefficient
A Lorenz curve for $x$ (e.g., income or wealth) plots the cumulative share of $x$ vs the cumulative share of the population possessing it. We have just found that the cumulative share of income for incomes up to $t$ can be written as $1 - (t/x0)^{1-\alpha}$.

Additionally, we have see that the CDF at income $t$ (which gives the proportion of the population earning no more than $t$) is $1 - (t/x0)^{-\alpha}$.

So for any alpha, we can make a parametric plot of...
the Lorenz curve. Defining $m = x_0 / t$ we can write:

\[
\text{With} \{\{\alpha = 1.5\}\}, \\
\text{ParametricPlot}\left[\{1 - m^\alpha, 1 - m^{\alpha - 1}\}, \{m, 0, 1\}, \\
\text{PlotRange} \to \{\{0, 1\}, \{0, 1\}\}, \\
\text{AspectRatio} \to 1, \text{ImageSize} \to \text{Small}\right]
\]
ClearAll[nexti]
Module[{prev, this}, prev = 0;
    nexti[] := (this = prev + 1;
       prev = this)]
nexti[]
nexti[]

1


2


nexti[]

3
Another Approach

Of course, from the parametric formulation we can solve for the income share as a function of the population share.
With[{\(\alpha = 1.5\)},
    Plot[1 - (1 - p)^(1 - 1/\(\alpha\)), \{p, 0, 1\},
    PlotRange -> {{0, 1}, {0, 1}},
    AspectRatio -> 1, ImageSize -> Small]]
We can transform the above parametric representation of the Lorenz curve to express the cumulative share of income as a function of the cumulative share of the population earning it. Recall that the CDF at income $t$ gives the share of the population (say, $s(t)$) earning less than $t$. Since this CDF is strictly increasing, we can produce the inverse function $t(s)$,
\textbf{cdfPareto} /. \{x \to t\}

\textbf{ts} = \text{Solve}[s == \%, t] // \text{Flatten} (* inverse of CDF *)

1 - \left(\frac{x0}{t}\right)^\alpha

\text{Solve::ifun: Inverse functions are being used by} \text{Solve}, \text{so some solutions may not be found; use} \text{Reduce for complete solution information.} \Rightarrow

\{t \to (1 - s)^{-1/\alpha} x0\}

which we can then substitute into our expression of the cumulative share of income as a function of the income level to get the cumulative share of income as a function of the cumulative share of the population.
lorenzPareto = Simplify[cumShare / . ts,
  Assumptions -> x0 > 0 && \( \alpha > 1 \)]
Manipulate[
  Plot[
    \[ s^{\alpha}, \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha} s, s, 1 - (1 - s) \frac{(\alpha - 1)}{\alpha} \],
    \{s, 0, 1\}, AspectRatio -> 1],
  \{\{\alpha, 2\}, 1.01, 5\}]
cumShare
Approximation

Let $s_y$ be the cumulative share of income and $s_p$ be the cumulative share of the population. We have found

$$s_y = 1 - (1 - s_p)^\delta$$

$$\log(1 - s_y) = \delta \log(1 - s_p)$$

$$s_y \approx \delta s_p$$
Discrete Approximation of the Lorenz Curve

We can equivalently parameterize the LC by $\delta = 1 - 1 / \alpha$:

\[
\delta = 1 - 1 / \alpha
\]

\[
\text{lorenzPareto} = 1 - (1 - s)^\delta
\]

Assuming $0 < s < 1$,

\[
\text{Solve}[1 - (1 - s)^{d_1} = s^{d_2}, \{d_1, d_2\}]
\]
\[ 1 - \frac{1}{\alpha} \]

\[
\text{cumShare} = 1 - (1 - s)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}
\]

Solve::ifun: Inverse functions are being used by Solve, so some solutions may not be found; use Reduce for complete solution information. >>

Solve::svars: Equations may not give solutions for all "solve" variables. >>

\[
\{ \{ d2 \rightarrow \frac{\log[1 - (1 - s)^{d1}]}{\log[s]} \} \}
\]

Suppose we have \( N \) equal-sized bins of income recipients. Let \( p_i = 1/N \) be the \( i \)-th incremental proportion of the population, so that the income share
earned by the \( i \)-th bin is

\[
\text{Clear}\left[i, n, \delta\right] \\
\text{ishare}[i_] := \left(1 - \frac{i - 1}{n}\right)\delta - \left(1 - \frac{i}{n}\right)\delta
\]

So for example the income shares for 100 bins with \( \alpha = 2 \) will be

\[
\begin{align*}
n &= 100 \\
nvals &= \text{Range}[n] \\
cumsharePop &= nvals / n \\
ishares &= \text{Map[ishare, Range[n]]} / \{\delta \rightarrow 1 - 1 / \alpha\} / \{\alpha \rightarrow 2.\} \\
\text{ListPlot}[\text{Transpose}[\{nvals / n, ishares\}], \\
\text{PlotLabel} \rightarrow "\text{rising incremental income}\"
\end{align*}
\]
cumshareInc = Accumulate[ishares]
cumshareInc = (lorenzPareto /. {s -> cumsharePop} /. 
{δ -> 1 - 1/α} /. {α -> 2.})
ListPlot[Transpose[{cumsharePop, cumshareInc}]]
estB = Total[(n + 1 - nvals) * ishares] / 
(n * Total[ishares])
estG = 1 - 2 * estB
actualG = \[\frac{1}{2 * \alpha - 1}\] / . {α -> 2.}

100
\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 
15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 
27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 
39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 
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rising incremental income

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0.8, 0.826795, 0.858579, 0.9, 1.} == cumShare
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Relation to Exponential: Lorenz Curve

In order to build a Lorenz curve, we will need the inverse of the CDF. This is possible because our CDFs are strictly increasing.
{Plot[CDF[ExponentialDistribution[2]][x],
   {x, 0, 2}],
 Plot[PDF[ExponentialDistribution[2]][x],
   {x, 0, 2}],
 Plot[x*PDF[ExponentialDistribution[2]][x],
    {x, 0, 2}]}
Clear[\(x0\), \(x\), \(\alpha\)]

cdfExp = Simplify[
    CDF[ExponentialDistribution[\(\alpha\)]](\(x\)), \(x \geq 0\)]

Simplify[Solve[\(s = \text{cdfExp}\), \(x\), Reals],
\(1 > s \geq 0 \&\& \alpha > 1\)] (* invert the CDF *)
pdfExp = Simplify[
  PDF[ExponentialDistribution[\[Alpha]]][x], x \[GreaterEqual] 0]
meanExp = Assuming[\[X0] > 0 && \[Alpha] > 1,
  Integrate[x*pdfExp, \{x, 0, +Infinity\}]]

Assuming[\[X0] > 0 && \[Alpha] > 1,
  Integrate[x*pdfExp, \{x, 0, t\}] / meanExp]

% /. \{t \[Rule] -Log[1 - s] / \[Alpha]\}
Plot[\{\%, s^3\}, \{s, 0, 1\},
  (* plot s^3 just for comparison *)
  AspectRatio \[Rule] 1,
  PlotStyle \[Rule] \{Red, Gray\}]

1 - e^{-\[Lambda] x}
\[
\{ \{ x \rightarrow -\frac{\log(1-s)}{\alpha} \} \} \\
\exp^{-x^\alpha} \alpha \\
\frac{1}{\alpha} \\
1 - \exp^{-t^\alpha} (1 + t^\alpha) \\
1 - (1 - s) (1 - \log(1 - s))
\]
Yunker’s Lorenz Curve

Yunker expresses the Lorenz curve as
\texttt{yshareYunker}[pshare_, g_] := pshare^g

\texttt{Plot[yshareYunker[\textit{s}, 3.0], \{\textit{s}, 0, 1\}]} 

\texttt{yunkerB} = \texttt{Assuming[}g > 1, 
\hspace{5mm} \texttt{Integrate[yshareYunker[\textit{s}, g], \{\textit{s}, 0, 1\}]} \texttt{]} 

\texttt{yunkerGini} = (1/2 - yunkerB) / (1/2) \hspace{5mm} /\hspace{5mm} \texttt{Simplify} 
\hspace{5mm} (1 + \texttt{yunkerGini}) / (1 - \texttt{yunkerGini}) \hspace{5mm} /\hspace{5mm} \texttt{Simplify} 
\hspace{5mm} (* \textit{compute incremental income share} *) 

\texttt{Clear[n]} 

\texttt{Simplify[yshareYunker[(1 + \textit{i}) / n] -} 
\hspace{5mm} \texttt{yshareYunker[i / n], 0 < \textit{i} < n]}

\[
\frac{1}{1 + g}
\]

\[
\frac{-1 + g}{1 + g}
\]
\( g \)

\[-\left( \frac{i}{n} \right)^g + \left( \frac{1+i}{n} \right)^g\]
Gini Coefficient

The Gini Coefficient is twice the area between the 45 degree line and the Lorenz curve. We can calculate that area as
Assuming $\alpha > 1$,

$$\text{Integrate}\left[ s - 1 + (1 - s)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}, \{s, 0, 1\} \right]$$

$\text{gini} = 2 \times % // \text{Simplify}$

$$\frac{1}{-2 + 4 \alpha}$$

$$\frac{1}{-1 + 2 \alpha}$$
Solve \([ g = \text{gini}, \alpha] \)

\[
\{ \alpha \rightarrow \frac{1 + g}{2g} \}
\]
Solve[$\delta = 1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}$, $\alpha$] // Flatten

\text{gini} /. \% // Simplify

\text{Solve}[g = \%, \delta]

\left\{ \alpha \rightarrow \frac{1}{1 - \delta} \right\}

\frac{1 - \delta}{1 + \delta}

\left\{ \left\{ \delta \rightarrow \frac{1 - g}{1 + g} \right\} \right\}
Pareto Distribution and Lorenz Curve

\[ L[F_, k_] := 1 - (1 - F)^{1 - 1/k}; \]

\text{options03 = \{PlotRange \to \{\{0, 1\}, \{0, 1\}\}, AspectRatio \to 1, ImageSize \to 250\};}

\text{Manipulate[Plot[\{F, L[F, k], 1 - F\}, \{F, 0, 1\}, Evaluate[options03]], \{\{k, 3, "Pareto index"\}, 1, 10\}]}

80-20 Rule: Pareto (1906) noticed that about 80% of the land in Italy was owned by about 20% of the
population.

However his British tax return data showed something closer to 70-30.

There will always be some such proportion: look for where the Lorenz curve crosses the unit simplex.
80-20 Rule

We have seen with $\alpha = 2$ that 1% of the population has a size at least 10 times the minimum, and 1% of that 1% has a size 10 times that.

More generally, if $\alpha > 1$ (so that the expected value is finite), is some fraction $0 \leq f \leq 1/2$ such that $f$ of those sampled receive $(1 - f)$ of all income, and similarly for every real (not necessarily integer) $n > 0$, $100pn\%$ of all people receive $100(1 - p)n\%$ of all income.
Assuming \( \alpha > 1 \),

Solve \[1 - s = 1 - (1 - s)^{1 - 1/\alpha}, \ s \]

Assuming \( 1 > \delta > 0 \),

Solve \[s = (1 - s)^{\delta}, \ s \]

Assuming \( \delta > 0 \),

Solve \[s + s^{1/\delta} = 1, \ s \]

Solve::nsmet: This system cannot be solved with the methods available to Solve.
\[ \text{Solve} \left[ 1 - s = 1 - (1 - s)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}, s \right] \]

\text{Solve::nsmet: This system cannot be solved with the methods available to Solve.}

\[ \text{Solve} \left[ s = (1 - s)^{\delta}, s \right] \]

\text{Solve::nsmet: This system cannot be solved with the methods available to Solve.}

\[ \text{Solve} \left[ s + s^{\frac{1}{\delta}} = 1, s \right] \]
\begin{align*}
\text{Solve} \left[ 1 - s &= 1 - (1 - s)^{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}, \ \alpha \right] \\
\text{Solve::ifun: Inverse functions are being used by Solve, so some solutions may not be found; use Reduce for complete solution information.} \Rightarrow \\
\left\{ \alpha \rightarrow \frac{\text{Log}[1 - s]}{\text{Log}[1 - s] - \text{Log}[s]} \right\} \\
\text{Solve} \left[ s + s^{\frac{1}{\delta}} = 1, \ \delta \right] \\
\text{Solve::ifun: Inverse functions are being used by Solve, so some solutions may not be found; use Reduce for complete solution information.} \Rightarrow \\
\left\{ \delta \rightarrow \frac{\text{Log}[s]}{\text{Log}[1 - s]} \right\}
\end{align*}
Plot\[\text{Log}[s]/\text{Log}[1-s], \{s, 0.5, 1\}\]
Data Creation and Analysis
Sampling from Power Law (Pareto) Distributions

We can generate a sample from a Pareto distribution by sampling from a uniform distribution on \((0,1]\). We transform each point \(U\) from the uniform according to
\[
X = x_0 \cdot U^{1/\alpha}.
\]
Then looking at the survival function we have
\[
P[X > x] = P[x_0 / U^{1/\alpha} > x] = P[U^{1/\alpha} < x_0 / x] = P[U < (x_0 / x)^\alpha] = (x_0 / x)^\alpha
\]

Technical note: note that we must rule out drawing a
0 from our uniform distribution. Most software draws from the interval \([0, 1)\). In this case, just use \(1 - U\) for your sample.
Clear[sizedata, incomes]
alpha = 2; xmin = 10000; npts = 2000;
sizedata = 
    xmin / (1 - RandomReal[1, npts])^(1 / alpha);
noise = RandomVariate[
    NormalDistribution[0, 100], npts];
sizedata = Sort[sizedata + noise];
Clear[noise]
proportionlarger = 
    Reverse[Range[npts]] / npts // N;
survivaldata = 
    Transpose[{{sizedata, proportionlarger}}] // N;
ListPlot[survivaldata]
llplot = ListPlot[Log[survivaldata]]
Pareto Distribution (Empirical Tail Function)

Large values occur with low frequency. Due to sample-size limitations, the empirical survival function will generally be zero for many values. Here we compare the theoretical distribution with an empirical distribution.
Clear[\text{x0}, \alpha, \text{x}];

data = 
  RandomVariate[ParetoDistribution[1, 2], 50];

(* \text{x0}=1; \alpha=2 *)

maxx = Max[data];

\(D = \text{EmpiricalDistribution}[\text{data}];\)

dataPlotSFP = Plot[SurvivalFunction[\(D\), \text{x}],
  \{\text{x}, 0, \text{maxx}\}, \text{PlotStyle} \rightarrow \{\text{Thin}, \text{Red}\}];

theoryPlotSFP = Plot[
  SurvivalFunction[ParetoDistribution[1, 2], \text{x}],
  \{\text{x}, 0, \text{maxx}\}, \text{PlotStyle} \rightarrow \{\text{Thick}, \text{Blue}\}];

Show[theoryPlotSFP, dataPlotSFP]
Simplest Approach to Estimation

An obvious estimator for $x_0$ is the minimum observation (which is also the maximum likelihood estimator). Recall that the mean of the distribution is $x_0 \alpha / (\alpha - 1)$, we can then estimate $\alpha$ using
Clear[{mean, x0, \(\alpha\)]
minsize = Min[sizedata]
{meansize = Mean[sizedata],
  theoreticalmean = xmin*alpha / (alpha - 1)}
Solve[{mean == x0*alpha / (alpha - 1), \(\alpha\) /. 
  {mean -> meansize, x0 -> minsize}]

9776.72

{20242.6, 20000}

{{\(\alpha\) \rightarrow 1.93415}}

Not bad.
Method of Moments

We might improve a little on this by estimating $x_0$ with using the expected value for the minimum observation given the sample size.
(See http://www.math.umt.edu/gideon/pareto.pdf) Let us adjust the minimum to account for sample size. (We have a large sample, so it does not make much difference.)
\[ eq1 = \text{Mean}[\text{sizedata}] = k \cdot \alpha / (\alpha - 1) \]
\[ eq2 = \text{Min}[\text{sizedata}] = k \cdot n \cdot \alpha / (n \cdot \alpha - 1) / . \{n \rightarrow \text{Length}[\text{sizedata}]\} \]
\[ \text{Solve[eq1 && eq2, \{k, \alpha\}] \]

\[ 20242.6 = \frac{k \cdot \alpha}{-1 + \alpha} \]

\[ 9776.72 = \frac{2000 \cdot k \cdot \alpha}{-1 + 2000 \cdot \alpha} \]

\text{Solve::ratnz: Solve was unable to solve the system with inexact coefficients. The answer was obtained by solving a corresponding exact system and numericizing the result.} \]

\[ \{\{k \rightarrow 9774.2, \alpha \rightarrow 1.93368\}\} \]
Maximum Likelihood

The “likelihood” of seeing this data for given values of $x_0$ and $\alpha$ is given by the joint density function. Assuming independent draws, this is the product of the PDF values for each observation:

$$L(x_0, \alpha; x) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \alpha \frac{x_0^\alpha}{x_i^{\alpha+1}} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\alpha x_0^{\alpha+1}}{x_i^{\alpha+1}}$$

We can make this likelihood as big as we wish by increasing $x_0$, but we are constrained by the smallest value actually observed. The maximum likelihood
estimate of $x_0$ is therefore the minimum realized value. In order to find the maximum likelihood estimate of $\alpha$, we will work with the logarithm of the likelihood:

$$llf(x_0, \alpha; x) = n \log[\alpha / x_0] - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha + 1) \log[x_i / x_0]$$

The slope of this (with respect to $\alpha$) is

$$\frac{n}{\alpha} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log[x_i / x_0]$$

so the slope is 0 when

$$\alpha = n / \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log[x_i / x_0]$$
\[\text{Length}[\text{sizedata}] / \text{Total}[\text{Log}[\text{sizedata} / \text{Min}[\text{sizedata}]])\]

1.92451
Fitting a Pareto Distribution to the Data

Recall that the survival function told us that the proportion surviving is linear in $\log(x_0/x)$. So we can look for a simple linear fit. The coefficient on $x$ is our estimate of the Pareto index.
alpha

fit = Fit[Log[survivaldata], {1, x}, x]
(* linear fit to logged data *)

coefs = CoefficientList[fit, x]

Show[
{llplot, Plot[fit, {x, Log[First[sizedata]],
Log[Last[sizedata]]}, PlotStyle -> {Red}]}]

Exp[-coefs[[1]]/coefs[[2]]]
(* implied value of x0 *)

2

18.7679 – 2.03951 x
A nonlinear model fit of the survival function produces similar results.
\textbf{nlm01} = NonlinearModelFit[\textbf{survivaldata},
SurvivalFunction[ParetoDistribution[
 \textit{x0hat}, \textit{alphahat}], \$x\$], \{\textit{x0hat}, \textit{alphahat}\}, \$x\$]

FittedModel \[ \begin{cases} 
\frac{9.66847 \times 10^7}{\textit{x} \geq 19} & \textit{x} \geq 9949.45 \\
1 & \text{True} 
\end{cases} \]
Gabaix and Ibragimov (2011) note that in small samples OLS estimates of $\alpha$ are downward biased and the conventional standard error are too small.
Sampling from Power Law (Pareto) Distributions

We are often forced to work with binned data. Let’s create some.
npts = 10^6;
alpha = 2;
x0 = 1;
x = x0 / (1 - RandomReal[1, npts])^(1/alpha);
(* we'll need x again for next figure *)
xmax = 10 * x0;
bins = Table[i, {i, x0, xmax, xmax/100}];
relfreq = BinCounts[x, {bins}] / npts;
{ListPlot[Transpose[{bins[[2 ;;]], relfreq}],
  PlotRange → {{0, xmax}, Automatic}],
  ListLogLogPlot[
    Transpose[{bins[[2 ;;]], relfreq}]]}
Power Law Frequency Distribution

In our last slide, we cheated a bit by showing only the bins for relatively small sizes, which occur with the greatest frequency. As size increases, relative frequency falls, and statistical noise becomes more prominent, even if we substantially increase bin size.
\( \text{xmax} = 200 \times x0; \)
\( \text{bins} = \text{Table}[i, \{i, x0, \text{xmax}, \text{xmax}/100\}]; \)
\( \text{relfreq} = \text{BinCounts}[x, \{\text{bins}\}]/\text{npts}; \)
\( \text{mypoints} = \text{Transpose}[\{\text{Rest}[\text{bins}], \text{relfreq}\}]; \)
\( \text{ListLinePlot}[\text{mypoints}, \) \\
( \quad \text{PlotRange} \to \{\{100 \times x0, \text{Automatic}\}, \{0, 10^{-5}\}\}] \)
\{\{x\}\} / \cdot \{\{x\} \rightarrow \{x, y\}, x \rightarrow 1\}

\{\{x, y\}\}
Power Law: Log Scale

We might hope to address this by moving to a log scale. This proves informative but is only partially successful. Why? Our bins are still linear. Notice the empty bins for large sizes.
ListLogLogPlot[mypoints]
Logarithmic Binning

It works better to let our bin size grow as we consider larger size realizations: we can use logarithmic binning.
logxmax = Log[xmax];
logbins = Table[i, {i, 0, logxmax, logxmax/100}];
relfreq = BinCounts[Log[x], {logbins}] / npts;
data = Transpose[{Rest[logbins], Log[relfreq]}];
ListLinePlot[data]
Clear[x]
Nonlinear Curve Fitting
Some Census Data

Data from
Census Data

\[ \text{h01ar} = \text{SemanticImport[} "D:/data/census/2018-tableH01AR.csv"\text{]} \]

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<td>Value 5</td>
<td>Value 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<td>2009</td>
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<td>22860</td>
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<td>69154</td>
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<td>23489</td>
<td>45262</td>
<td>71770</td>
<td>115758</td>
<td>204892</td>
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<td>2006</td>
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<td>23850</td>
<td>44967</td>
<td>71425</td>
<td>115508</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>114384</td>
<td>23570</td>
<td>44244</td>
<td>70864</td>
<td>112705</td>
<td>204014</td>
</tr>
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<td>199682</td>
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<td>70950</td>
<td>112127</td>
<td>200192</td>
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<td>24361</td>
<td>45162</td>
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<td>113195</td>
<td>204021</td>
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<td>72630</td>
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<td>204698</td>
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<td>1998</td>
<td>103874</td>
<td>23727</td>
<td>44768</td>
<td>71163</td>
<td>110418</td>
<td>194628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Showing 1–20 of 51
(* 2016 *)

\[ \text{pctls} = \{20, 40, 60, 80, 95\} / 100; \]
\[ \text{cuts} = \{24002, 45600, 74869, 121018, 225251\}; \]
\[ \text{survivals} = 1 - \text{pctls} \]

ListPlot[\{\text{cuts}, \text{survivals}\}^T]
ListLogLogPlot[\{\text{cuts}, \text{survivals}\}^T]

\[ \left\{ \frac{4}{5}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{20} \right\} \]
Census Data

\[
\text{incomes2010} = \{11904, 20000, 49445, 100065, 138923, 180810\};
\]

\[
\text{cdf2010} = \{10, 20, 50, 80, 90, 95\} / 100.;
\]

\[
\text{tail2010} = 1 - \text{cdf2010};
\]

\[
\text{incomecdf2010} = \text{Transpose}[\{\text{incomes2010, cdf2010}\}];
\]

\[
\text{incometail2010} = \text{Transpose}[\{\text{incomes2010, tail2010}\}];
\]

\[
\text{Labeled}[\text{GraphicsRow}[\{
\]

\[ g\text{cdf2010} = \text{ListPlot}[\text{incomecdf2010}, \text{AxesLabel} \rightarrow \{"income", "cdf"}, \text{AxesOrigin} \rightarrow \{0, 0\}, \text{PlotStyle} \rightarrow \text{PointSize}[0.02], \text{Ticks} \rightarrow \{\{15000, "$15k"}, \{50000, "$50k"}, \{100000, "$100k"}, \{150000, "$150k"}\}, \text{Automatic}\}, \text{ImageSize} \rightarrow 400], \]
\[ g\text{tail2010} = \text{ListPlot}[\text{incometail2010}, \text{AxesLabel} \rightarrow \{"income", "tail"}, \text{AxesOrigin} \rightarrow \{0, 0\}, \text{PlotStyle} \rightarrow \text{PointSize}[0.02], \text{Ticks} \rightarrow \{\{15000, "$15k"}, \{50000, "$50k"}, \{100000, "$100k"}, \{150000, "$150k"}\}, \text{Automatic}\}, \text{ImageSize} \rightarrow 400] \]
2010 Census Data
Loglinear Survival Fit

Clear\[x\]

\texttt{fit2010 = Fit[Log[Transpose[{incomes2010, tail2010}]], \{1, \$x\}, \$x];}

(* linear fit to logged data *)

\texttt{coefs2010 = CoefficientList[fit2010, \$x];}

\texttt{ahat2010 = -coefs2010[[2]];}

\texttt{x0hat2010 = Exp[coefs2010[[1]] / ahat2010 ];}

(* implied value of \texttt{x0} *)

\texttt{tail2010fit = Piecewise[}
\[
\left\{ \left( \frac{x \hat{0} 2010}{x} \right)^{\hat{a} 2010}, x > x \hat{0} 2010 \right\}, \\
\{1, \text{True}\}\right\}
\]

cdf2010fit = 1 - tail2010fit;

GraphicsRow[
  Show[{
    g`tail2010, 
    Plot[tail2010fit, {x, First[incomes2010], 
    Last[incomes2010]}, PlotStyle -> {Red}]}, 
  , 
  Show[{
    g`cdf2010, 
    Plot[cdf2010fit, {x, First[incomes2010], 
    Last[incomes2010]}, PlotStyle -> {Red}]}, 
  }
]

\[
\begin{align*}
17914.6 \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)^{1.01727} & \quad x > 15169.9 \\
1 & \quad \text{True}
\end{align*}
\]
A problem with this log-linear survival fit is that it estimates minimum income at a value above the minimum observed value. But the same thing happens with a nonlinear estimation.
Nonlinear Least Squares: Fit CDF to 2010 Data
incomedf2010 =
  {{11904, 0.1}, {20000, 0.2}, {49445, 0.5},
   {100065, 0.8}, {138923, 0.9}, {180810, 0.95}}
nlm01 = NonlinearModelFit[incomedf2010,
   CDF[ParetoDistribution[khat, ahat], $x],
   {khat, ahat}, $x];
nlm01["BestFitParameters"]
gpareto2010 = Show[
   ListPlot[incomedf2010, AxesOrigin -> {0, 0}],
   Plot[nlm01[$x], {$x, 0, 200000},
    PlotStyle -> {Red}]]
\{ \text{khat} \to 16104.6, \text{ahat} \to 0.858956 \}
Some Earlier (2004) Income Data

For purposes of comparison, we use data from Maclachlan (2006).

```plaintext
incomes2004 = {15000, 25000, 35000, 50000, 75000, 100000};
cdf2004 = {0.154, 0.283, 0.402, 0.55, 0.733, 0.843};
tail2004 = 1 - cdf2004;
data2004fm = Transpose[{incomes2004, cdf2004}];
g`data2004fm = ListPlot[data2004fm,
  PlotStyle -> PointSize[0.01], AxesOrigin -> {0, 0},
  AxesLabel -> {"income", "cdf"}, Ticks ->
  {{{15000, "$15k"}, {50000, "$50k"}, {100000, "$100k"}}}
```
"$100k"}, Automatic}, ImageSize -> 400]

Clear[x]

fit2004 = 
  Fit[Log[Transpose[{incomes2004, tail2004}]],
    {1, x}, x] (* linear fit to logged data *)

coeefs2004 = CoefficientList[fit2004, x]

ahat2004 = -coefs2004[[2]]

x0hat2004 = Exp[coefs2004[[1]] / ahat2004 ]

(* implied value of x0 *)

cdf2004fit = 1 - (x0hat2004 / x) ^ ahat2004

temp = Plot[cdf2004fit, {x, First[incomes2004],
    Last[incomes2004]}, PlotStyle -> {Red}];

Show[{{g`data2004fm, temp}}]
\{ (15000, 0.154), (25000, 0.283), (35000, 0.402),
(50000, 0.55), (75000, 0.733), (100000, 0.843) \}

8.43993 - 0.872352 x
\{8.43993, -0.872352\}

0.872352

15913.4

1 - 4628.25 \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)^{0.872352}
Fit to Pareto Distribution

Let’s fit these data points to a Pareto distribution, using NonlinearModelFit. (Mathematica 9 gives a perfect match to the same estimation on Maclachlan (2006), who used Mathematica 5.)
data2004fm =  
{15000, 0.154}, {25000, 0.283}, {35000, 0.402},  
{50000, 0.55}, {75000, 0.733}, {100000, 0.843}

nlm01 = NonlinearModelFit[data2004fm,  
    CDF[ParetoDistribution[khat, ahat], $x$],  
    {khat, ahat}, $x$];

nlm01["BestFitParameters"]

g`pareto = Show[{g`data2004fm, Plot[nlm01[$x],  
    {$x, 0, 100000}, PlotStyle -> {Red}]}

True

{khat \rightarrow 12989.3, ahat \rightarrow 0.658768}