

Panel Data

Jerome Dumortier

17 August 2023

Required R Packages

- [plm](#)
- [lmtest](#)

Documentation

- [Panel data econometrics in R](#)

Note regarding Notation

- Use of the package [stargazer](#) due to the large number of variables.

Pooled data: Combination of multiple cross-sectional data over time

- Two or more different observational units over time
- Grades in an economics class based on students' concentration combined from multiple semesters
- American Community Survey (ACS)

Panel data: Repeated measurement on the same individuals i over time t .

- Individual units can be people, states, firms, counties, countries, etc.
- National Longitudinal Survey (NLSY79)
- Necessary adjustments of standard error due to correlation across time.

For NLSY79: Accessing data \Rightarrow investigator \Rightarrow Begin searching as guest \Rightarrow Pick income as an example

Introduction II

Some assumptions about linear panel models:

- Regular time intervals
- Errors are correlated
- Parameters may vary across individuals or time
- Intercept: Individual specific effects model (fixed or random)

Note that the General Social Survey (GSS) is not a panel data set because different respondents are questioned every year.

Examples and Advantages

Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID)

- Data on approximately 5,000 families on various socioeconomic and demographic variables

Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP)

- Interviews about economic condition of respondents

Advantages

- Takes into account heterogeneity among observational units, e.g., firms, states, counties, etc.
- Better understanding on the dynamics of change for observational units over time.
- Combines cross-sectional data with time series data leading to more complete behavioral models

Terminology and Types

Balanced versus unbalance panel:

- A balanced panel has the same number of time-series observations for each subject or observational unit, whereas an unbalanced panel does not.

Short versus long panel:

- A short panel has a larger number of subjects or observational units than there are time periods. A long panel has a greater number of time periods than observational units.

Types of regression models:

- Pooled Ordinary Least Square model
- Fixed effects model
- Random effects model

Panel Data

Jerome
Dumortier

Simple Panel
Data Methods

Fixed Effects
Model

Random
Effects Model

Simple Panel Data Methods

fertil1: Variables

Data from the General Social Survey for the years 1974 to 1984

- *year*: 72 to 84, even
- *educ*: years of schooling
- *meduc* and *feduc*: mother's and father's education
- *kids*: number children ever born
- *east*, *northcentral*, and *west*: 1 if lived in at 16
- *farm*: 1 if on farm at 16
- *otherrural*: 1 if other rural at 16
- *town*: 1 if lived in town at 16
- *smallcity*: 1 if in small city at 16

Source: Jeffrey Wooldridge, Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach

fertil1: Interpretation

Evolution of fertility rates over time after controlling of other observable factors:

- Base year: 1972
- Negative coefficients indicate a drop in fertility in the early 1980's
- Coefficient of $y82$ (-0.41) indicates that women had on average 0.41 less children, i.e., 100 women had 41 kids less than 1972
- This drop is independent from education since we are controlling for education.
- More educated women have fewer children
- Assumes that the effect of each explanatory variable remains constant.

Interact year dummy with key explanatory variables to see if the effect of that variable has changed over time:

$$\ln(wage) = \beta_0 + \gamma_0 \cdot y85 + \beta_1 \cdot educ + \gamma_1 \cdot y85 \cdot educ + \beta_2 \cdot exper + \beta_3 \cdot exper^2 \\ + \beta_4 \cdot union + \beta_5 \cdot female + \gamma_5 \cdot y85 \cdot female$$

Interpretation:

- β_0 is the 1978 intercept
- $\beta_0 + \gamma_0$ is the 1985 intercept
- β_1 is the return to education in 1978
- $\beta_1 + \gamma_1$ is the return to education in 1985
- γ_1 measures how the return to education has changed over the seven year period

cps7885: Estimation

```
cps7885$y85 = ifelse(cps7885$year==85,1,0)
bhat = lm(log(wage)~y85+educ+y85:educ+exper+
           I(exper^2)+union+female+y85:female,
           data=cps7885)
```


Interpretation

- 1978 return to education: 7.47%
- 1985 return to education: $7.47\% + 1.85\% = 9.32\%$
- 1978 gender gap: 31.67%
- 1985 gender gap: $31.67\% - 8.51\% = 23.16\%$

Data set about home values near the location of an garbage incinerator

- Run 1981 data
- Run 1978 data

Difference-in-difference estimator: $-\$30,688 - (-\$18,824) = -\$11,864$

$$\hat{\delta}_1 = (price_{81,near} - price_{81,far}) - (price_{78,near} - price_{78,far})$$

where $\hat{\delta}_1$ represents the difference over time in average differences in housing prices in the two locations.

Data kiel: Setup II

To determine statistical significance:

$$price = \beta_0 + \gamma_0 \cdot y81 + \beta_1 \cdot nearinc + \gamma_1 \cdot y81 \cdot nearinc$$

Interpretation

- β_0 : Average home value which is not near the garbage incinerator
- $\gamma_0 \cdot y81$: Average change in housing values for all homes
- $\beta_1 \cdot nearinc$: Location effect that is not due to the incinerator
- γ_1 : Decline in housing values due to incinerator

Homes have lost 9.3% in values when including additional independent variables and using the natural logarithm of price.

Data kiel: Naive Implementation in R

```
kiel81      = subset(kiel, year==1981)
bhat81      = lm(rprice~nearinc, data=kiel81)
kiel78      = subset(kiel, year==1978)
bhat78      = lm(rprice~nearinc, data=kiel78)
```

Data kiel: Naive Results

[illegible]

Data kiel: Implementation in R

```
bhat1 = lm(rprice~y81+nearinc+y81:nearinc,data=kiel)
bhat2 = lm(rprice~y81+nearinc+y81:nearinc+age+agesq,data=kiel)
bhat3 = lm(rprice~y81+nearinc+y81:nearinc+age+agesq+cbd+rooms+
            area+land+baths,data=kiel)
```

Dependent variable:			
	rprice		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
y81	18,790.290*** (4,050.065)	21,321.040*** (3,443.631)	14,115.710*** (2,802.303)
nearinc	-18,824.370*** (4,875.322)	9,397.936* (4,812.222)	3,618.020 (4,644.530)
rooms			3,310.163** (1,665.357)
area			17.920*** (2.310)
land			0.136*** (0.031)
y81:nearinc	-11,863.900 (7,456.646)	-21,920.270*** (6,359.745)	-14,269.820*** (4,999.499)
Constant	82,517.230*** (2,726.910)	89,116.540*** (2,406.051)	13,055.760 (11,272.270)
Observations	321	321	321
R2	0.174	0.414	0.658
Adjusted R2	0.166	0.405	0.647
Residual Std. Error	30,242.900 (df = 317)	25,543.290 (df = 315)	19,667.290 (df = 310)
F Statistic	22.251*** (df = 3; 317)	44.591*** (df = 5; 315)	59.742*** (df = 10; 310)
Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01			

Grunfeld Data

The data set is used in many textbooks and comes also with the package [plm](#). Data on 10 companies over the period 1935 to 1954:

- *inv*: Investment
- *value*: Value of the firm
- *capital*: Capital stock

Companies of interest for this class: GM (firm 1), U.S. Steel (firm 2), GE (firm 3), Westinghouse (firm 8)

Pooled OLS Model

Pooling all cross-sectional and time series observations into a single data set and running an OLS regression.

$$inv_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot value_i + \beta_2 \cdot capital_i$$

General formulation of the pooled model

$$y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Issues with pooled OLS model:

- Ignores heterogeneity among the observations and time.

With heterogeneity: Biased and inconsistent estimates due to correlation between independent variables and error term.

Data Preparation and Pooled OLS Model

Use of firms 1, 2, 3, and 8:

```
grunfeld = subset(grunfeld,grunfeld$firm %in% c(1,2,3,8))
```

To use the functions from `plm`, define data as a panel data set:

```
grunfeld = pdata.frame(grunfeld,index=c("firm","year"))
```

Running a simple OLS model on the data:

- Using the regular `lm()` function
- Using the `plm()` function and specifying the model as **pooling**
- Name the outputs `grunfeld.ols` and `grunfeld.pooling`

Pooled OLS Model

```
grunfeld.ols      = lm(inv~value+capital,data=grunfeld)
grunfeld.pooling  = plm(inv~value+capital,data=grunfeld,
                        model="pooling")
```


Panel Data

Jerome
Dumortier

Simple Panel
Data Methods

Fixed Effects
Model

Random
Effects Model

Fixed Effects Model

Theoretical Concepts I

Fixed effects model or Least-Squares Dummy Variable (LSDV) regression

- Constant slope coefficients but varying intercept over i

Regression equation:

$$inv_{it} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_1 \cdot value_{it} + \beta_2 \cdot capital_{it}$$

with $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and $t = 1, 2, \dots, 20$. This model can also be written as

$$inv_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \cdot D_{1i} + \alpha_2 \cdot D_{2i} + \alpha_3 \cdot D_{3i} + \beta_1 \cdot value_{it} + \beta_2 \cdot capital_{it}$$

Individual specific effects:

$$y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i \cdot x_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

α_i can be fixed or random

Theoretical Concepts II

Fixed effects model

- Intercept β_{0i} is firm specific.
- For an individual, this could be education and/or ability, possibly correlated with independent variables
- Intercept is time-invariant.
- Slope coefficients do not vary across individuals (firms) or time

Implementation in R

```
grunfeld.fixed = plm(inv~value+capital,data=grunfeld,  
                    model="within")
```

```
stargazer(grunfeld.fixed,no.space=TRUE,
          single.row=TRUE,type="text")
```

```
##
## =====
##                Dependent variable:
##                -----
##                inv
## -----
## value          0.108*** (0.018)
## capital        0.345*** (0.027)
## -----
## Observations      80
## R2                0.806
## Adjusted R2       0.792
## F Statistic     153.291*** (df = 2; 74)
## =====
## Note:           *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
```

Firm-Specific Intercepts and Hypothesis Test

In order to get the firm specific intercepts:

```
fixef(grunfeld.fixed)
```

```
##          1          2          3          8  
## -85.515   94.988 -246.228  -59.386
```

Testing whether a fixed effects or OLS is appropriate (H_0 : OLS better):

```
pFtest(grunfeld.fixed,grunfeld.ols)
```

```
##  
## F test for individual effects  
##  
## data:  inv ~ value + capital  
## F = 67.215, df1 = 3, df2 = 74, p-value < 2.2e-16  
## alternative hypothesis: significant effects
```

If the p-value is below 0.05 then the fixed effects model is a better choice.

Implementation in R using `lm()`

Implementation of a fixed effects model with the command `lm()`

```
bhat = lm(inv~value+capital+factor(firm),data=grunfeld)
```

Panel Data

Jerome
Dumortier

Simple Panel
Data Methods

Fixed Effects
Model

Random
Effects Model

Random Effects Model

Theoretical Concepts

The general fixed effects model can be expressed as

$$y_{it} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1,it} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{2,it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

Instead of treating β_{0i} as fixed, the random model assumes

$$\beta_{0i} = \beta_0 + v_i$$

where v_i is random error term with a mean of zero and variance σ_v^2 . According to Gujarati: *What we are essentially saying is that the four firms included in our sample are a drawing from a much larger universe of such companies and that they have a common mean value for the intercept β_0 and the individual differences in the intercept values of each company are reflected in the error term v_i .*

Implementation in R

```
grunfeld.random = plm(inv~value+capital,data=grunfeld,model="random")
stargazer(grunfeld.random,no.space=TRUE,single.row=TRUE,type="text")
```

```
##
## =====
##                Dependent variable:
##                -----
##                        inv
## -----
## value                0.108*** (0.017)
## capital              0.345*** (0.027)
## Constant             -73.085 (81.172)
## -----
## Observations                80
## R2                        0.803
## Adjusted R2                0.798
## F Statistic                314.851***
## =====
## Note:          *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
```

Breusch-Pagan Lagrange Multiplier (LM) Test

For random effects models: Null hypothesis of no panel effect, i.e., OLS is better. If p-value is below 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis and thus, a random effects model is more appropriate than the OLS.

```
plmtest(grunfeld.pooling,type=c("bp"))
```

```
##  
##  Lagrange Multiplier Test - (Breusch-Pagan)  
##  
## data:  inv ~ value + capital  
## chisq = 378.44, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16  
## alternative hypothesis: significant effects
```

Hausman Test: Fixed or Random Model

The Hausman Test tests the null hypothesis that the preferred model is a random effects model. It basically tests whether the unique errors are correlated with the regressors.

```
phptest(grunfeld.random,grunfeld.fixed)
```

```
##
```

```
##  Hausman Test
```

```
##
```

```
## data:  inv ~ value + capital
```

```
## chisq = 0.14882, df = 2, p-value = 0.9283
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: one model is inconsistent
```

Testing for Heteroscedasticity

```
bptest(inv~value+capital+factor(firm),data=grunfeld)
```

```
##
```

```
## studentized Breusch-Pagan test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: inv ~ value + capital + factor(firm)
```

```
## BP = 25.375, df = 5, p-value = 0.0001179
```

If the p-value is below 0.05, then we have heteroscedasticity.

Heteroscedasticity Consistent Coefficients and Standard Errors

```
coeftest(grunfeld.fixed,vcovHC)
```

```
##
```

```
## t test of coefficients:
```

```
##
```

```
##          Estimate Std. Error t value  Pr(>|t|)
```

```
## value    0.108400   0.014293  7.5839 7.902e-11 ***
```

```
## capital  0.345058   0.031152 11.0765 < 2.2e-16 ***
```

```
## ---
```

```
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```