# Panel Data models

Prepared & presented by Prof. Guechari Yasmina

#### 1. Introduction to Panel Data

#### • Definition:

- Panel data consists of observations on multiple entities (individuals, firms, countries) over time.
- It combines elements of both cross-sectional and time-series data.

#### • Example Structure:

- A dataset that tracks **GDP growth** of multiple countries (5) over years (20years).
- Follows the same individuals' income and spending habits for five years.

#### 2. Key Characteristics of Panel Data

- Observations are collected for **the same units** over multiple time periods.
  - ✓ Allows tracking changes over time within each entity.
  - ✓ Two types:
- Balanced Panel: Data available for all entities across all time periods.
- **Unbalanced Panel:** Some entities have missing observations in certain periods.

# 3. Types of Data in Econometrics

Туре	Description	Example
Cross-Sectional Data	Data collected at a single point in time	Income levels of 1,000 individuals in 2024
Time-Series Data	Data collected over time for one entity	Inflation rate of a country from 2000 to 2023
Panel Data	Data collected over time for multiple entities	Income levels of 1,000 individuals from 2010-2024

#### 4. Examples of Panel Data in Economic Research

- > Labor Economics: Wage of individuals over time.
- ➤ Macroeconomics: Economic growth across countries for several decades.
- ➤ Corporate Finance: Financial performance of firms across different years.

### 5. Panel data analysis

- There are two main models
  - Fixed Effects Model (FEM)
  - Random Effects Model (REM)
- Estimate the model using software like Eviews

- What is Fixed Effects Model (FEM)?
- FEM is a way to analyze data where we observe the **same individuals**, **companies**, **or countries over time**.
- The goal is to measure the effect of some variables (like education, experience, investment, etc.) on an outcome (like productivity, salary, GDP, profit, etc.) while accounting for things that don't change over time for each individual or entity.

• Fixed Effects Model controls for all characteristics that do not change over time (for each individual, country, company...) — even if we don't observe or measure them. But we handle this by giving each entity its own "starting point" (intercept) in the model.

- Mathematical Representation
- $Y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta X_{it} + \mu_{it}$  where:
- $\alpha_i$  = individual-specific intercept, capturing unobserved characteristics.
- Key Feature: FEM allows each entity to have a unique intercept.
- Each cross-section effect (intercept) shows how much higher or lower the entity's base outcome is, compared to the average intercept, after controlling for the independent variables.

- Assumptions:
- 1. Unobserved characteristics don't change over time

**Example:** A person's natural talent, or a country's location — these don't change every year.

2. These unobserved characteristics are related to the variables we're studying

**Example:** A very talented person (unobserved) may also choose to get more education (observed), so their talent affects education and productivity. We need a model that can **handle that link** — that's why FEM is used.

- Why FEM is Useful:
- It helps us **focus only on changes over time** (like how education and experience affects productivity) by removing the **effect of fixed traits** (like personality, family background, or culture) that stay the same over the years.

- Example: Suppose we follow 5 individuals over 10 years, and we collect data on:
- Their years of education
- Their experience,
- Their productivity score (from job evaluations),
- But we cannot measure their personality, family background, or cultural values.
- These unmeasured traits may affect productivity, but they don't change over time.

- We suspect:
- People with strong personalities or from supportive families tend to be more productive **regardless** of their education/experience.
- And these traits also affect their access to better education or job experience.
- So, to avoid bias, we use a Fixed Effects Model to control for these unchanging personal traits by giving each person their own intercept.

- The FEM Equation (simplified):
- $Productivity_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta Educ_{it} + \gamma Exper_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$
- $\alpha_i$  = the fixed effect (the unique intercept for each person controls for personality, family background, culture)
- $\beta$  ,  $\gamma$  = how much education and experience affect productivity
- *i* = the individual
- *t* = the year
- Assume after estimation, we've got this result:
- $Prod_{it} = 12.2 + 1.8Educ_{it} + 0.6Exper_{it}$

- Interpretation
- Intercept (12.2): is the estimated productivity (Prod<sub>it</sub>) when both education (Educ<sub>it</sub>) and experience (Exper<sub>it</sub>) are zero.
- In fixed effects models, we don't focus too much on this number because we care more about how things change over time for the same person in the sample.
- Coefficient on Education (1.8): Holding experience constant, a one-unit increase
  in education is associated with an increase of 1.8 units in productivity for the
  same individual in sample over time.
- Coefficient on Experience (0.6): Holding education constant, a one-unit increase in experience is associated with an increase of 0.6 units in productivity for the same individual in the sample over time.

• Interpreting Individual Fixed Effects: These are the individual-specific effects (the  $\alpha_i$  in our model) — i.e., the impact of unmeasured, time-invariant traits like personality or family background.

Individual	Effect	Interpretation
Individual 1	+2.50	Has unobserved traits that increase productivity by 2.5 points above average.
Individual 2	-1.00	Has traits that reduce productivity by 1 point below average, all else equal.
Individual 5	-1.60	Likely has unfavorable unmeasured traits (e.g., lack of motivation), reducing productivity by 1.6 points.

• In a **Fixed Effects Model**, the intercept for each entity (here: individual) is calculated as:

Entity – specific intercept = average intercept + entity effect Example: individual1 intercept=12.2+2.5=14.7

Individual 3 intercept = 12.2— 1.6 = 10.6

The interpretation: Holding all else constant, Individual 1 tends to have a value of the dependent variable that is 2.5 units higher than the sample average intercept of 12.5, resulting in an entity-specific intercept of 14.7, this indicate that individual 1 has productivity equal to 14.5 point when educ and exper both are zero.

#### Definition & Assumptions

- REM assumes that individual-specific effects ( $\alpha$ i) are **randomly distributed** and uncorrelated with explanatory variables. This allows us to estimate **time-invariant variables** (such as gender, region.....), unlike FEM.
- Mathematical Representation
- $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{it}$
- where:
- $\alpha_i$  is a random variable  $\varepsilon_{it}$  is the error term.

- In the Random Effects Model (REM):
  - The individual-specific effect  $\alpha_i$  is treated as:
  - > a random variable, not a fixed number.
  - $\triangleright$  It is assumed to be **uncorrelated** with the independent variables  $X_{it}$ . Because of this assumption, REM allows you to **include and estimate the effect of time-invariant variables** (like gender, region, culture, etc.).

- Example: You collect data on 100 manufacturing firms over 5 years (panel data); and you investigate What factors affect firm productivity over time?
- **Dependent variable (Y):** Productivity (measured as output per worker)
- . Independent variables (X):
  - Capital investment (changes over time)
  - Training hours (changes over time)
  - Firm size (number of employees, changes over time)
  - Industry type (e.g., food, textile, electronic)

- $Productivity = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cap_{it} + \beta_2 train_{it} + \beta_3 size_{it} + \beta_4 indust_{it} + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{it}$
- $\alpha_i$ : firm-specific random effect (not observed)
- $\varepsilon_{it}$ : regular error term

Since Industry Type is a categorical variable, EViews cannot read it directly. You must create dummy variables:

- •Food\_dummy = 1 if Industry = Food, 0 otherwise
- •Textile\_dummy = 1 if Industry = Textile, 0 otherwise
- •Electronics\_dummy = 1 if Industry = Electronics, 0 otherwise
- How to create them:
- •Go to Quick → Generate Series

Variable	Coefficient (β)	Std. Error	p-value
Intercept (β0)	10.5	1.2	0.000
Capital (β1)	0.8	0.2	0.001
Training (β2)	1.1	0.3	0.000
Firm Size (β3	6) 0.05	0.01	0.000

Industry Type ( $\beta 4$ ) Food = base category, Textile = -0.6, Electronics = 1.2 —

- Intercept (10.5): If a firm has 0 capital investment, 0 training, 0 employees, and is in the food industry, then its expected productivity is 10.5 units.
- Capital Investment (0.8): For every 1 unit increase in capital investment, a firm's productivity increases by 0.8 units, holding other factors constant.
- ✓ This means that firms investing more in machinery or tech tend to become more productive.
- Training Hours (1.1): For every 1 extra hour of employee training, productivity increases by 1.1 units.
- ✓ Training employees leads to a strong boost in output

- Firm Size (0.05): Each additional employee is associated with a 0.05 unit increase in productivity.
- ✓ Larger firms are slightly more productive, possibly due to economies of scale.
- Industry Type: Textile industry firms produce 0.6 units less than food industry firms, holding everything else constant.
- ✓ Electronics industry firms produce 1.2 units more than food industry firms.
- ✓ Different industries have different productivity levels, likely due to differences in technology or processes.

- After finishing the estimation and interpretation, we are going to estimate the random effects for the cross-section in Eviews
- View → Fixed/Random Effects → Random Effects → Cross-section effects
- EViews will display the **estimated random effects**  $\alpha_i$  for **each cross-section unit** (e.g., each firm).
- If Firm A has  $\alpha$ =1.2, this means its productivity is, on average, **1.2 units** higher than the average firm due to unobserved firm characteristics (e.g., better management, culture, tech).
- If Firm B has  $\alpha$ =-0.5, it's **0.5 units lower** than average possibly due to unobserved inefficiencies.
- So these  $\alpha_i$  values reflect the "individual effects" captured by the model.

#### 8. Choosing between FEM & REM

- The Hausman test helps determine whether to use FEM or REM:
  - H0 (Null Hypothesis): No correlation between individual effects and explanatory variables → Use REM.
  - H1 (Alternative Hypothesis): Correlation exists → Use FEM.
- **Null hypothesis**: Random Effects is appropriate.
- If p-value  $< 0.05 \rightarrow$  Reject RE  $\rightarrow$  Use Fixed Effects.
- If p-value > 0.05 → Fail to reject RE → Random Effects is OK.

#### 8. Choosing between FEM & REM

Correlated Random Effects - Hausman Test

Equation: Untitled Test cross-section random effects

Test Summary	Chi-Sq. Statistic	Chi-Sq. d.f.	Prob.
Cross-section random	6.849448	3	0.0769

Based on the table above, the p-value is greater than 5%, so we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This means that the Random Effects Model is appropriate for estimating the underlying relationship.

#### 9. Model Diagnostic

- Check for
- Serial correlation
- ii. Heteroskedasticity
- iii. Cross-sectional dependence (large panel)
- iv. Stationarity (use panel unit root test)

#### **Test 1: Serial Correlation Test**

- In panel data, especially with time series, **autocorrelation** can bias standard errors.
- Common test:
  - Wooldridge test for autocorrelation in panel data. This test is not available in Eviews.
- In EViews: you can check serial correlation After estimation panel data model, follow this steps
- Step 1: Click Proc  $\rightarrow$  Make Residual Series  $\rightarrow$  call it, for example, resid1.
- This saves the residuals from the first model.

- Now you need to create a lag of the residuals:
- Go to Quick -> Generate Series, and enter this code:
- resid1\_lag = resid1(-1)
- Quick → Estimate Equation → Type:
- resid1 c resid1\_lag
- Look at the coefficient on resid1\_lag.

Dependent Variable: RESID01 Method: Panel Least Squares Date: 04/28/25 Time: 18:31 Sample (adjusted): 2021 2024
Periods included: 4
Cross-sections included: 5
Total panel (balanced) observations: 20

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
RESID01_LAG	0.199196 0.663242	0.244302 0.245473	0.815368 2.701898	0.4255 0.0146
R-squared Adjusted R-squared S.E. of regression Sum squared resid Log likelihood F-statistic Prob(F-statistic)	0.288545 0.249019 1.075954 20.83819 -28.78932 7.300252 0.014593	Mean depend S.D. depende Akaike info c Schwarz crite Hannan-Quir Durbin-Watse	ent var riterion erion en criter.	0.084574 1.241593 3.078932 3.178505 3.098370 1.275467

- If the coefficient of lag resid is **significantly different from zero**, it suggests **serial correlation**.
- You can also check the **F-statistic** and its **p-value**:
  - Null Hypothesis  $(H_0)$ : No serial correlation (coefficient = 0).
  - Alternative Hypothesis (H₁): Serial correlation exists (coefficient ≠ 0).
- If p-value  $< 0.05 \rightarrow$  Reject  $H_0 \rightarrow$  Serial correlation detected.

Based on the results in the table, If the coefficient of lag resid is significantly different from zero, and the p-value of f-stat is less than 5% so, we reject the null hypothesis which means there is a serial correlation

#### **Test 2: Cross-sectional Dependence Test in Panel Data**

- In **panel data**, we often assume that the units (like countries, firms,...) are **independent of each other**.

  But in reality, **they can influence one another**.
- Example: If oil prices rise, it might affect the productivity of many countries or firms at the same time.
- If companies are part of the same supply chain, what happens to one might affect others.
- This shared influence leads to cross-sectional dependence (correlation) in the error terms.

- How to test it?
- 1. Pesaran's CD test
- Most commonly used.
- Works well even when T is small (short time periods).
- Null hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>): No cross-sectional dependence.
- Alternative (H<sub>1</sub>): There is cross-sectional dependence.
- 🚱 2. Breusch-Pagan LM test
- Better when T is large and N is small.

Residual Cross-Section Dependence Test Null hypothesis: No cross-section dependence (correlation) in residuals Equation: Untitled Periods included: 4

Cross-sections included: 5 Total panel observations: 20

Note: non-zero cross-section means detected in data

Cross-section means were removed during computation of correlations

Test	Statistic	d.f.	Prob.
Breusch-Pagan LM	27.21593	10	0.0024
Pesaran scaled LM	3.849599		0.0001
Pesaran CD	1.168892		0.2424

Based on the results of PersanCD test in the table above, p-value > 5%, so we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Fail to reject  $H_0 \rightarrow No$  significant cross-sectional dependence. Model is OK.

#### Test 3: Heteroskedasticity Test

- In panel data, heteroskedasticity can occur within cross-sections, or across cross-sections, or even both. Common Tests for Heteroskedasticity in Panel Data (EViews-compatible):after FE regression):
- Click Proc → Make Residual Series → name it: resid1
- Now generate a new series: residuals squared:
- Quick → Generate Series → Type:
- Entering thid code: resid1\_sq = resid1^2
- Quick → Estimate Equation → Type: resid1\_sq c
- Under Panel Options → Select: Effects specification → Cross-section Fixed Effects.

- Look at the **F-statistic** for cross-section fixed effects.
- Null Hypothesis (H<sub>o</sub>): Homoskedasticity (no variance difference across entities).
- Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>): Heteroskedasticity (variance differs across entities).
- If p-value  $< 0.05 \rightarrow$  Reject  $H_0 \rightarrow$  Evidence of heteroskedasticity across entities.

Dependent Variable: RESID01\_SQ Method: Panel Least Squares Date: 04/28/25\_Time: 19:47

Cross-sections included: 5

Total panel (balanced) observations: 25

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
С	1.342835	0.503300	2.668061	0.0148
	Effects Spe	ecification		
Cross-section fixed (dun	nmy variables	)		
R-squared Adjusted R-squared S.E. of regression Sum squared resid Log likelihood F-statistic Prob(F-statistic)	0.337836 0.205403 2.516499 126.6554 -55.75589 2.551000 0.070952	Mean depende S.D. depende Akaike info cr Schwarz crite Hannan-Quin Durbin-Watso	ent var iterion rion n criter.	1.342835 2.823082 4.860471 5.104246 4.928084 1.518488

Based on the result in the table, p-value is greater than the 5% so we fail to reject the null hypothesis this means that there is no evidence of heteroskedasticity

- Test 4: Unit Root/Stationarity Tests (in panel data)
- To check if variables are stationary. Here's a full, clear guide on how to perform a panel unit root test in EViews, step by step.

#### 1.In the **Import Wizard**:

- 1. Select the **ID series** (cross-section ID) e.g., country
- 2. Select the date or time series e.g., year
- 3. Choose Panel structured workfile in the last step
- 4. Click Finish
- Now your panel is ready to test.
- Suppose you want to test GDP.
- In the Workfile window, double-click GDP.

- With GDP open, go to:
   View > Unit Root Test > Panel Unit Root Test
- Choose the test you want:
- step 4: Interpret the Output
- Look at the p-value of the test statistic.
- If p-value < 0.05 → Reject the null = Stationary
- If p-value ≥ 0.05 → Cannot reject null = Non-stationary

Statistic	Prob.
PP-Fisher Chi-square	0.0234

#### **PP-Fisher Test:**

- •Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>): Unit root exists (non-stationary).
- •**Result**: p-value = **0.0234** (< 0.05)
- •→ Reject the null: GDP is stionary according to PP-Fisher test.

**Test Name** 

Levin-Lin-Chu (LLC)

Im-Pesaran-Shin (IPS)

**ADF-Fisher** 

**PP-Fisher** 

Hadri

**Null Hypothesis** 

All panels have unit root

Some panels have unit root

Unit root in all panels

Unit root in all panels

**Stationarity** (inverse logic)

Use When:

Balanced panel, longer time

Unbalanced panels allowed

Works with fewer obs

Robust to serial correlation

Small samples