

Related materials:

- Wooldridge 5e, Ch. 1.3: The Structure of Economic Data
- Wooldridge 5e, Ch. 13.1: Pooling Independent Cross Sections across Time (ignore subsection on Chow Test).
- Wooldridge 5e, Ch. 13.3: Two-period Panel Data Analysis (stop once you finish the paragraph on heterogeneity bias at the end of p. 460).
- Wooldridge 5e, Ch. 14.1: Fixed Effects Estimation (ignore the last two subsections on “Fixed Effects or First Differencing” and “Fixed Effects with Unbalanced Panels”).
- Handout #17 on Two year and multi-year panel data

1 The basics of panel data

We’ve now covered three types of data: cross section, pooled cross section, and panel (also called longitudinal). In a panel data set we track the unit of observation over time; this could be a state, city, individual, firm, etc.. To help you visualize these types of data we’ll consider some sample data sets below.

Table 1. Example of cross sectional data

indiv (i)	year	wage	edu	exper	female
1	1990	3.10	11	2	1
2	1990	3.24	12	22	1
.
100	1990	5.30	12	7	0

Cross sectional data is a snapshot of a bunch of (randomly selected) individuals at one point in time. Table 1 provides an example of a cross sectional data set, because we only observe each house once and all of the observations are from the year 1990. Since we use i to index people, firms, cities, etc., the notation for cross sectional data:

$$wage_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 edu_i + \beta_2 exper_i + \beta_3 female_i + u_i$$

Table 2. Example of pooled cross sectional data

house (i)	year (t)	hprice	bdrms	bthrms	sqrft
1	2000	85,500	3	2.0	1600
2	2000	67,300	3	2.5	1400
.
100	2000	134,000	4	2.5	2000
101	2010	243,000	4	3.0	2600
102	2010	65,000	2	1.0	1250

In contrast, **pooled cross sectional data** is multiple snapshots of multiple bunches of (randomly selected) individuals (or states or firms or whatever) at many points in time. Table 2 is an example of a pooled cross-sectional data set because we only observe each house once (102 houses) but some of the observations are from the year 2000 while others are from the year 2010. We can use the same notation here as in cross section, indexing each person, firm, city, etc. by i . Suppose we have two cross sectional datasets from two different years; *pooling* the data means to treat them as one larger sample and control for the fact that some observations are from a different year, which is done with the addition of the $y2010_i$ dummy variable:

$$hprice_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 bdrms_i + \beta_2 bthrms_i + \beta_3 sqrft_i + \delta y2010_i + u_i$$

Table 3. Example of panel data (aka, longitudinal data)

obs.	i	t	murder rate	pop density	police
1	1	2000	9.3	2.24	440
2	1	2001	11.6	2.38	471
3	2	2000	7.6	1.61	75
4	2	2001	10.3	1.73	75
.
199	100	2000	11.1	11.1	520
200	100	2001	17.2	17.2	493

Finally, there is **panel data** which is more like a movie than a snapshot because it tracks particular people, firms, cities, etc. over time. Table 3 provides an example of a panel data set because we observe each city i in the data set at two points in time (the year 2000 and 2001). In summary, the data set has 100 cities but 200 observations. This particular panel data set is sometimes referenced as a ‘balanced panel data set’ because we observe every single city in both the year 2000 and 2001. However, if we observed some of the cities in the year 1999 but not all of them, then we would call it an ‘unbalanced panel data set’ (this distinction often isn’t very important). With a panel data (balanced or unbalanced) we start indexing observations by t as well as i to distinguish between our observations of city i at various points in time:

$$murders_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 pop_{it} + \beta_2 unemp_{it} + \beta_3 police_{it} + \alpha_i + \delta_t + u_{it}$$

where the α_i represents city fixed effects and the δ_t represents year fixed effects. In a nutshell, α_i can be thought of as shorthand for a set of dummy (indicator/binary) city variables each multiplied by their respective regression coefficients (that is, a dummy variable for each city multiplied by its regression coefficient; of course, we must exclude one base city to avoid perfect collinearity). Similarly, δ_t can be thought of as shorthand for a set of dummy year variables each multiplied by their respective regression coefficients (that is, a dummy variable for each year multiplied by its regression coefficient; of course, we must exclude one base year to avoid perfect collinearity). We’ll consider this in more detail next.

Fixed Effects Regression

I suspect many of you may be confused about what this α_i term has to do with a dummy variable. It certainly looks strange, given that it's not attached to any variable! Let's consider a subset of our example panel data from Table 3, where the unit of observation is a city-year, and suppose we have data for 3 cities for 3 years—so 9 total observations in our dataset.

obs	i	t	murder rate	pop density	City1	City2	City3	Yr00	Yr01	Yr02
1	1	2000	9.3	2.24	1	0	0	1	0	0
2	1	2001	11.6	2.38	1	0	0	0	1	0
3	1	2002	11.8	2.42	1	0	0	0	0	1
4	2	2000	7.6	1.61	0	1	0	1	0	0
5	2	2001	10.3	1.73	0	1	0	0	1	0
6	2	2002	11.9	1.81	0	1	0	0	0	1
7	3	2000	11.1	6.00	0	0	1	1	0	0
8	3	2001	17.2	6.33	0	0	1	0	1	0
9	3	2002	20.3	6.42	0	0	1	0	0	1

Since we have multiple observations for each city, we can run the following regression:

$$murder_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{it} + \alpha_2 City2 + \alpha_3 City3 + \delta_2 Yr2001 + \delta_3 Yr2002 + u_{it}$$

In this regression specification $City2$ and $City3$ are each dummy variables for cities 2 and 3 in the data set; notice I exclude an dummy variable for city 1 to avoid perfect collinearity (aka, the dummy variable trap). Likewise, $Yr2001$ and $Yr2002$ are dummy variables for the year 2001 and the year 2002, where I have excluded a dummy variable for the year 2000.

How do we interpret β_1 , α_2 or δ_2 here? To answer this question it is instructive to start with a different parameter, the intercept, β_0 , which give us the average murder rate given zero values for all of the explanatory variables model. Note that if $City2 = 0$ and $City3 = 0$ then by process of elimination β_0 must be related to the murder rate in $City1$ (the city/category excluded from the regression). But that's not all, β_0 is also related to the murder rate in the base year 2000 because $Yr2001 = 0$ and $Yr2002 = 0$. Given this example, we have the following interpretations.

- δ_t estimates the common change/difference (to all cities) in the murder rate in year t relative to the year 2000, *controlling for population density and city-specific time-invariant characteristics (the city fixed effects)*. We call δ_t a year fixed effect because the change is common to all cities in year t ; in other words, the 'effect' of year t is 'fixed' across all cities. This is similar to the post period dummy variable in the difference-in-differences regression specification. Just like the post period dummy variable controls for factors changing over time that are common to both treatment and control groups, the year fixed effects (i.e. year dummy variables) control for factors changing each year that are common to all cities for a given year.
- Similarly, α_i estimates the common change/difference (to all years) in the murder rate in city i relative to city 1, *controlling for population density and year-specific characteristics/shocks common to all cities (the year fixed effects)*. We call α_i a city fixed effect precisely because the difference is common to all years in city i ; in other words, the 'effect' of city i is 'fixed' across all years. This is similar to the treatment group dummy variable in the difference-in-differences regression specification. Just like the treatment group dummy variable controls for baseline differences between the control and treatment groups, the city fixed effects (i.e. city dummy variables) control for baseline differences between cities.
- β_1 is the estimated effect of population density on crime, *controlling for city-specific time-invariant characteristics and year-specific shocks (the city and year fixed effects)*.

To see the interpretation of α_i more clearly, suppose we're *only* looking at observations from city 3 (i.e. $City2 = 0$ and $City3 = 1$):

$$murders_{3t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{3t} + \alpha_2 \cdot 0 + \alpha_3 \cdot 1 + \delta_2 Yr2001 + \delta_3 Yr2002 + u_{3t}$$

This simplifies to the following:

$$murders_{3t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{3t} + \alpha_3 + \delta_2 Yr2001 + \delta_3 Yr2002 + u_{3t}$$

This is where the α_i term comes from in a fixed effect regression! For any given cross sectional unit (i), which in this example is a city, the other terms with city dummies drop out and we only have the term with a dummy for that city, $\alpha_i City_i$ left. For fixed effect regressions, we simply save time by writing an α_i instead of writing out each dummy variable. You can imagine that if we had 85 cities instead of 3, writing out each dummy variable would get super tedious.

Now suppose we *only* look at observations from the year 2002 (i.e. $Yr2001 = 0$ and $Yr2002 = 1$):

$$murder_{i2} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{i2} + \alpha_2 City2 + \alpha_3 City3 + \delta_2 \cdot 0 + \delta_3 \cdot 1 + u_{it}$$

$$murder_{i2} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{i2} + \alpha_2 City2 + \alpha_3 City3 + \delta_3 + u_{it}$$

We can also write the time dummy variables in shorthand as δ_t .

Taking the above discussion into consideration, we often write regression equations with spatial (e.g. city) and time (e.g. year) fixed effects as:

$$murder_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{it} + \alpha_i + \delta_t + u_{it}$$

To be consistent with the notation in Wooldridge we can also write:

$$murder_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 popden_{it} + a_i + d_t + u_{it}$$

Remarks:

- It's worth pointing out that the spatial units might be cities, counties, states, countries or even units like individuals, households, etc. so we could have city fixed effects, county fixed effects, state fixed effects, individual fixed effects or household fixed effects. It all depends on our unit of analysis. Likewise the time units might be days, months, years, etc. so we could have day fixed effects, month fixed effects, and year fixed effects. It all depends on the periods for which we observe our unit of analysis.
- While we can often include multiple sets of fixed effects in one regression specification (again, we can think of this as adding different sets of dummy variables), we sometimes can run into trouble. For example, suppose we have observations on murder rates and unemployment rates for all U.S. counties for every year between 2000 and 2010. If we run a regression with county fixed effects and year fixed effects, then we cannot also include state fixed effects. Why? Because the county fixed effects control for all characteristics of a county i that do not change over time. Well, guess what ... the state to which a county belongs does not change over time. Said differently, the state to which a county belongs is a characteristic of a county i that does not change over time. That means, once we know the values of the county dummy variables, then we would know the values of the state dummy variables. Another way to think about this is that there is perfect linear dependence between the county dummy variables and state dummy variables so we cannot include both. In summary, we cannot include both county fixed effects and state fixed effects in the same regression model.
- Because it's more conventional in the academic literature these days, I prefer reserving Greek for parameters (like regression coefficients which we typically estimate) and using the English alphabet to denote the outcome and explanatory variables. But it really doesn't matter.

Panel Regressions in STATA:

There are a few ways to implement a regression that includes fixed effects. In the following, I use a dataset about murder rates and unemployment rates across US states (and Washington, DC) in the years 1987, 1990, and 1993. We'll estimate the same model three different ways in State (and I'll point out a fourth way to estimate the model).

$$1. \text{ mrdrte}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{unem}_{it} + \underbrace{\alpha_2 \text{State2} + \dots + \alpha_{51} \text{State51}}_{\text{Dummy for all but one state}} + \underbrace{\delta_2 \text{Yr2} + \delta_3 \text{Yr3}}_{\text{Dummy for all but one year}}$$

In STATA (note that when we write `state_2 - state_51` STATA includes all variables appearing between `state_2` and `state_51` in the 'variable list'; be careful about ordering of your variable list when using this code). Also, note that there are 51 "states" because we've added in Washington, DC.

```
reg mdrte unem state_2 - state_51 year_2 year_3
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 153		
Model	11622.5233	53	219.292892	F(53, 99)	=	17.75
Residual	1222.81484	99	12.351665	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.9048
				Adj R-squared	=	0.8538
				Root MSE	=	3.5145
Total	12845.3381	152	84.5088034			

mrdrte	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
unem	.2019432	.2947557	0.69	0.495	-.3829162	.7868025
state_2	2.182073	2.886745	0.76	0.452	-3.545855	7.910001
state_3	.7759888	2.897709	0.27	0.789	-4.973695	6.525672

-----Deleted some fixed effect results to save space-----

state_51	-5.036179	2.927538	-1.72	0.089	-10.84505	.7726923
year_2	1.577016	.7433858	2.12	0.036	.1019775	3.052055
year_3	1.681938	.6959821	2.42	0.017	.3009584	3.062917
_cons	6.077295	3.300348	1.84	0.069	-.4713127	12.6259

Remark: It's worth pointing out that the estimation above often requires you to first to create a dummy variable for each year and state. Why? Because we'll often have one variable called `year` that assumes values like 1987, 1990 or 1993. Likewise, we'll often have one variable called `state` that assumes values like Pennsylvania, Ohio, California, etc. (these are also called categorical variables, because they define categories). One way to quickly generate dummy variables for a regression involving dummy variables is to use the following line of code immediately before running your regression:

```
xi i.year i.state
```

This code will automatically generate a set of dummy variables for years and a set of dummy variables for states. Stata automatically doesn't generate a dummy variable for a base group to avoid the issue of perfect linear dependence in a regression analysis. Further, in most versions of Stata you can use similar syntax within the regression code itself. For example, we could estimate the regression above without first generating all the dummy variables just by using the following line of code:

```
reg mdrte unem i.state i.year
```

You can find an example of this code on the second page of Handout 17.

$$2. \text{ mrdrte}_{it} = \beta_1 \text{unem}_{it} + \underbrace{\alpha_1 \text{State1} + \dots + \alpha_{50} \text{State50}}_{\text{Dummy for each state}} + \underbrace{\delta_2 \text{Yr2} + \delta_3 \text{Yr3}}_{\text{Dummy for all but one year}} + u_{it}$$

Note that the 'noconstant' option tells STATA to not estimate an intercept; the idea is that if you don't exclude a state dummy variable then you can't also estimate an intercept:

```
reg mdrdte unem state_1 - state_51 year_2 year_3, noconstant
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 153		
Model	21588.0857	54	399.779365	F(54, 99)	=	32.37
Residual	1222.81484	99	12.351665	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.9464
-----				Adj R-squared	=	0.9172
Total	22810.9006	153	149.090853	Root MSE	=	3.5145

mrdrte	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
unem	.2019432	.2947557	0.69	0.495	-.3829162	.7868025
state_1	6.077295	3.300348	1.84	0.069	-.4713127	12.6259
state_2	8.259368	3.061705	2.70	0.008	2.184281	14.33445
state_3	6.853283	2.997107	2.29	0.024	.906374	12.80019

-----Deleted some fixed effect results to save space-----						
state_51	1.041116	2.871721	0.36	0.718	-4.657002	6.739234
year_2	1.577016	.7433858	2.12	0.036	.1019775	3.052055
year_3	1.681938	.6959821	2.42	0.017	.3009584	3.062917

$$3. \text{ mrdrte}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{unem}_{it} + \underbrace{\delta_2 \text{Yr2} + \delta_3 \text{Yr3}}_{\text{Dummy for all but one year}} + \underbrace{\alpha_i}_{\text{State "fixed effect"}} + u_{it}$$

```
xtset state
xtreg mdrdte unem year_2 year_3, fe
```

Fixed-effects (within) regression	Number of obs	=	153
Group variable: id	Number of groups	=	51
R-sq: within = 0.0676	Obs per group: min	=	3
between = 0.1015	avg	=	3.0
overall = 0.0314	max	=	3
corr(u_i, Xb) = 0.0951	F(3,99)	=	2.39
	Prob > F	=	0.0731

mrdrte	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
unem	.2019432	.2947557	0.69	0.495	-.3829162	.7868025
year_2	1.577016	.7433858	2.12	0.036	.1019775	3.052055
year_3	1.681938	.6959821	2.42	0.017	.3009584	3.062917
_cons	5.778023	1.911012	3.02	0.003	1.986161	9.569885

sigma_u	8.6877605					
sigma_e	3.5144936					
rho	.85936665	(fraction of variance due to u_i)				

F test that all u_i=0: F(50, 99) = 17.33 Prob > F = 0.0000