

Econometrics of Panel Data

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Meeting # 7

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Limited dependent variable I

- In previous meetings, we have dealt with models in which the range of dependent variable is unbounded.
- The common cases when the response (dependent) variable is restricted:
 - ▶ binary: $y \in \{0, 1\}$,
 - ▶ multinomial: $y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, k\}$,
 - ▶ integer: $y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$,
 - ▶ censored: $y \in \{y^* \text{ if } y > y^*\}$.

Binary dependent variable

- For binary outcome data the dependent variable y takes one of two values:

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } (1 - p) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

- The binary choice variable y is restricted and the binary outcome is Bernoulli distributed.
- The probability (p) is not observed (latent variable).
- Examples:
 - ▶ dummy variables indicating whether some loan application is accepted ($y = 1$) or not ($y = 0$),
 - ▶ dummy variables indicating whether individual decided to work ($y = 1$) or not ($y = 0$),
 - ▶ binary variable indicating whether individual takes the second or third job ($y = 1$) or not ($y = 0$),
 - ▶ dummy variable indicating whether the birthweight was low, i.e., below 2500 g, ($y = 1$) or not ($y = 0$).
- Models for binary dependent variable
 - ▶ linear probability model (LMP);
 - ▶ logistic regression (logit);
 - ▶ probit regression (ptobit).

Linear Probability Model (LMP) I

- Linear Probability Model (LMP) is the OLS regression of y on X that ignores the discreteness of the dependent variable. Moreover, the LMP does not constrain predicted probabilities to be between zero and one.
- In general, it is assumed that the (conditional to a set of covariates) probability is as follows:

$$\text{Prob}(y = 1|X) = F(X, \beta), \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Prob}(y = 0|X) = 1 - F(X, \beta). \quad (3)$$

- If the function $F(X, \beta)$ is assumed to linear, i.e., $F(X, \beta) = X'\beta$, then

$$y = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}(y|X, \beta)}_{\text{Prob}(y=1|X)} + \underbrace{(1 - \mathbb{E}(y|X, \beta))}_{\text{Prob}(y=0|X)} = F(X, \beta) = X'\beta + \varepsilon. \quad (4)$$

- Finally, the LMP can be estimated by OLS:

$$y = X'\beta + \varepsilon. \quad (5)$$

where ε is the error term.

Linear Probability Model (LMP) II

- Shortcomings of the LMP:

- ① The predicted values of the dependent variable are not constrained to be between zero and one.
- ② It is assumed that the probability is linearly related to some continuous explanatory variable.
- ③ The problem of the error heteroskedasticity. By construction, errors vary with the explanatory variables:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(\varepsilon|x) &= \text{Prob}(y = 1|X) (1 - X'\beta)^2 + \text{Prob}(y = 0|X) (-X'\beta)^2 \\ &= X'\beta (1 - X'\beta)^2 + (1 - X'\beta) (-X'\beta)^2 \\ &= X'\beta (1 - X'\beta) .\end{aligned}$$

As a consequence, the estimated variance-covariance matrix are biased (also standard errors, t statistics, \mathcal{F} statistic, etc.). To challenge this issue one might apply:

- ★ robust standard errors;
 - ★ feasible GLS estimation that accounts for heteroskedastic residuals.
- ④ By construction, error term is also not normally distributed.
 - ★ The statistical inference in small samples is not reliable.

- In the logit model, the conditional (to X) probability is described by the cumulative logistic distribution (conditional to some explanatory variables X):

$$p = \text{Prob}(y = 1|X) = \frac{\exp(X'\beta)}{1 + \exp(X'\beta)}. \quad (6)$$

- The predicted probabilities are always between zero and one.
- It can be shown that the logit (log of odds):

$$\ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = X'\beta. \quad (7)$$

Logit II

- The parameters of β are estimated using the maximum likelihood (ML) method. In general, the log likelihood for the logit model can be written as:

$$\ln \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^N [y_i \ln(F(X, \beta)) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - F(X, \beta))], \quad (8)$$

where \mathcal{L} is the likelihood function, the index i stands for observation and $F(X, \beta) = \exp(X'\beta)/(1 + \exp(X'\beta))$.

- The Log Likelihood, given by (7), is maximized using some optimization methods.
- The Likelihood test for the significance of parameters. The null hypothesis:

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k = 0, \quad (9)$$

and the test statistics (LR) bases on the log-likelihood difference between the considered model (\mathcal{L}) and the model with only intercept (\mathcal{L}_0):

$$\text{LR} = 2(\mathcal{L} - \mathcal{L}_0), \quad (10)$$

where LR is χ^2 distributed with k (number of explanatory variables) degrees of freedom.

- The logit model is nonlinear. The sign of the estimates informs only about the direction of the relationship between explanatory variable and probability.
- To interpret the logit estimates it is useful to introduce the odds ratio. The odds is an exponential function of fitted $F(\mathbf{X}, \beta)$. For instance, the odds ratio for x_1 variable can be described as:

$$\text{OR} = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1(x_1 + 1) + \dots + \beta_k x_k)}{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k)} = \exp(\beta_1), \quad (11)$$

so an 1-unit increase in x_1 multiplies the odds ratio by $\exp(\beta_1)$.

- In nonlinear models, more common approach is to use **marginal effects**. In the logit model, the marginal effect for the k -th explanatory variable can be written:

$$\text{MFX}(x_k) = \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_k} = \beta_k p(1 - p) = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k)}{[\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k)]^2} \beta_k. \quad (12)$$

- Some remarks about the marginal effects:
 - ▶ The marginal effects vary for different values of explanatory variables.
 - ★ The usual approach is to calculate the marginal effects for the average explanatory variables, i.e., $\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_k$.
 - ★ However, the marginal effects for the mean explanatory variables are not reasonable when we are interested in the effect of some dummy variable on the probability. In such cases, one should calculate the marginal effect when this indicator variable is set to 0.
 - ▶ Apart from the point estimates, it is essentially to analyze confidence intervals or standard errors for the estimated marginal effects are useful.

- In the probit model, the conditional (to X) probability is described by the cumulative standard normal distribution (conditional to some explanatory variables X):

$$p = \text{Prob}(y = 1|X) = \Phi(X'\beta), \quad (13)$$

where $\Phi(X'\beta)$ is the cumulative distribution function for the standard normal.

- Alternatively,

$$p = \text{Prob}(y = 1|X) = \int_{-\infty}^{X'\beta} (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp(-z^2/2) dz, \quad (14)$$

- The marginal effects for the k -th explanatory variable:

$$\text{MFX}(x_k) = \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_k} = \phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k) \beta_k, \quad (15)$$

where $\phi(\dots)$ denotes the density for the standard normal distribution.

- Count data is a special data when observations take only non-negative integer.
- The dependent variable is a count of the number of occurrences of an event, i.e., $y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.
- In many empirical applications, the sample of such dependent variable is concentrated on a few small discrete values, i.e., 0, 1, 2.
- Examples:
 - ▶ The number of children in a household.
 - ▶ The number of alcoholic drinks a college student takes in a week.
 - ▶ The number of patents.
 - ▶ The number of new products introduced in market.
 - ▶ The number of doctor visits.
- Models:
 - ▶ Poisson regression model.
 - ▶ Negative binomial model.

The Poisson regression model I

- The natural stochastic environment for counted variable is a Poisson point process for occurrence of the event of interest. The probability function for a Poisson distribution:

$$\text{Prob}(Y = y) = \frac{\exp(-\mu)\mu^y}{y!}, \quad y = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (16)$$

where μ denotes the intensity parameter.

- It can be shown that the Poisson distribution has the equidispersion property:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(y) &= \mu, \\ \text{Var}(y) &= \mu. \end{aligned}$$

- In the Poisson regression, the intensity parameter captures the relationship between the dependent variable and explanatory variables. Usually, the exponential mean parameterization is assumed:

$$\mu = \exp(\mathbf{x}'\beta) \quad (17)$$

- Estimation: the pseudo maximum likelihood (PML) or quasi maximum likelihood (QML) estimation.

The Poisson regression model II

- Interpretation: marginal effects:

$$\text{MFX}(x_j) = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y|X)}{\partial x_j} = \beta_j \exp(X'\beta). \quad (18)$$

- The Poisson regression bases on the very restrictive assumption that $\mathbb{E}(y) = \text{Var}(y)$.
 - ▶ Very often, the variance is far from the mean.
 - ▶ In many empirical application, a Poisson density underpredicts the zero count.
- There are several test statistics designed to verify the hypothesis that mean equals variance. General idea bases on the following relationship:

$$\text{Var}(y) = \mu + \alpha g(\mu), \quad (19)$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is some known function ($g(\mu) = \mu$ or $g(\mu) = \mu^2$).

- Having fitted values ($\hat{\mu} = \exp(X'\beta)$) from the Poisson model the following OLS regression can be run to test null ($\alpha = 0$):

$$\frac{(y - \hat{\mu})^2 - y}{\hat{\mu}} = \alpha \frac{g(\hat{\mu})}{\hat{\mu}} + u \quad (20)$$

where u is the error term.

The negative binomial regression I

- The negative binomial regression is an extension of the Poisson regression that accounts for overdispersion, i.e., extra variation that is not included in the standard Poisson process.
- In the negative binomial regression, the following moments can be assumed

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(y) &= \mu, \\ \text{Var}(y) &= \mu(1 + \alpha\mu).\end{aligned}$$

Where $\alpha > 0$. Note that if $\alpha = 0$ then it is standard Poisson regression. α is the overdispersion parameter.

- Estimation: PML or QML.
- Interpretation: marginal effects:

Censored data

- Usual causes of incompletely observed data are truncation and censoring.
 - ▶ truncated data \implies some observations on both dependent and explanatory variables are missing;
 - ▶ censored data \implies some observations on dependent variable are missing but information on explanatory variables are complete.
- Censoring can be perceived as a feature of data-gathering process. For instance, for confidentiality reasons the income of high-income workers may be top-coded (higher than 200k USD).
- Examples:
 - ▶ Ticket sales to some event. We want to explain (latent, unobservable) demand for tickets to some sport events. Sometimes all tickets are sold out and (unobservable) demand can be higher than the total number of available tickets but we observe only the number of tickets that were sold out.
- Model:
 - ▶ Tobit model.

Censoring Mechanism

- When data are censored we always observe the explanatory variables.
- Our dependent variable is **the latent variable** y^* for which we have incomplete observations (y).
- y^* may be censored from below/left. Then we observe:

$$y = \begin{cases} y^* & \text{if } y^* > L \\ L & \text{if } y^* \leq L \end{cases} .$$

- y^* may be censored from above/right. Then we observe:

$$y = \begin{cases} y^* & \text{if } y^* < U \\ U & \text{if } y^* \geq U \end{cases} .$$

- It is possible to consider more sophisticated censoring mechanisms.
- The OLS estimates in such cases are not consistent.

- In the censored regression, information on censoring is included.
- Consider the following example:

$$y^* = X'\beta + \varepsilon, \quad (21)$$

$$y = 0 \quad \text{if } y^* \leq 0, \quad (22)$$

$$y = y^* \quad \text{if } y^* > 0. \quad (23)$$

Then the conditional expected value of y :

$$\mathbb{E}(y|x) = \Phi\left(\frac{X'\beta}{\sigma}\right) (X'\beta + \sigma\lambda), \quad (24)$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the probability density function of normal distribution and λ stands for the Mills ratio, ($\lambda = \phi(X'\beta/\sigma)/\Phi(X'\beta/\sigma)$).

- Estimation: MLE.
- Interpretation: marginal effects:
 - ▶ For a latent variable (y^*), marginal effects are constant:

$$\text{MFX}(x_j) = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y^*|x)}{\partial x_j} = \beta_j. \quad (25)$$

but y^* is unobserved.

- ▶ For the observed variable y , the marginal effects become more sophisticated:

$$\text{MFX}(x_j) = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y|x)}{\partial x_j} = \beta_j \Phi\left(\frac{X'\beta}{\sigma}\right). \quad (26)$$

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The Pooled models

- We can use logit or probit binary response function:

$$\Pr(y_{it} = 1|x_{it}) = G(x'_{it}\beta), \quad (27)$$

where $G(\cdot)$ is a known function taking on values in the open unit interval.

- Note that in the (27) we assume that our model is dynamically complete. In other words, we don't assume that the scores (latent variable \implies probabilities) is serially correlated or contains the individual-specific component. For instance,

$$\Pr(y_{it} = 1|x_{it}) = \Pr(y_{it} = 1|x_{it}, x_{it-1}, x_{it-2}) \quad (28)$$

- Some useful procedures to test dynamic completeness:
 - ▶ Add the lagged dependent variable/ independent variables to considered model and test their significance.
 - ▶ Make a pooled probit/logit regression. Based on the pooled estimates make prediction and include lagged fitted values (scores) in basic model. Then, test its significance.
- To account for an unobserved heterogeneity it is useful to apply robust standard errors.

The Binary Outcomes Models & Panel Data

- The fixed effect logit model:

$$\Pr(y_{it} = 1) = \Pr(y_{it}^* > 0) = F(x_{it}'\beta), \quad (29)$$

where F is the logistic cumulative distribution function and

$$y_{it}^* = x_{it}'\beta + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (30)$$

where μ_i is the individual-specific intercept and ε_{it} denotes the idiosyncratic error.

- Natural way to estimate the parameters of the FE logit model is to include dummy variables and perform ML estimation but ...
- **Incidental parameters problem.** As $N \rightarrow \infty$ for the fixed T , the number of parameters capturing fixed effect increases with T . As a result, μ_i cannot be consistently estimated for a fixed T .
- The above problem can be overcome by using **conditional likelihood function**. It is assumed that the fixed effects and explanatory variables are not correlated with error term.

- Conditional likelihood function:

$$\mathcal{L}_C = \prod_{i=1}^N \Pr \left(y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iT} / \sum_{t=1}^T y_{it} \right). \quad (31)$$

- Let's illustrate for $T = 2$.

- ▶ For $T = 2$, the sum $\sum_{t=1}^T y_{it}$ can be 0, 1 or 2.
- ▶ But if the sum $\sum_{t=1}^T y_{it}$ is 0 (or 2) then both y_{i1} and y_{i2} are 0 (or 1). These cases are irrelevant for the $\ln \mathcal{L}_C$ because $\ln(1) = 0$.
- ▶ Two remaining cases (when sum equals 1). Let's start with the sum that equals unity:

$$\Pr(y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1) = \Pr(y_{i1} = 0, y_{i2} = 1) + \Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0) \quad (32)$$

- ▶ General probability:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_{i1} = 1) &= \exp(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta) / [1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta)] \\ \Pr(y_{i1} = 0) &= 1 - \exp(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta) / [1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta)] \\ &= 1 / [1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta)]. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Conditional probability in the second period:

$$\Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0) = \frac{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta)} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}$$

$$\Pr(y_{i1} = 0, y_{i2} = 1) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta)} \cdot \frac{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}$$

As a result:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1) &= \Pr(y_{i1} = 0, y_{i2} = 1) + \Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0) \\ &= \frac{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta) + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}{(1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta))(1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta))}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0 | y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1) &= \frac{\Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0)}{\Pr(y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1)} = \\ &= \frac{\frac{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta)}{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta) + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}}{\frac{\exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta) + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta)}{(1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i1}\beta))(1 + \exp(\mu_i + x'_{i2}\beta))}} = \frac{\exp(x'_{i1}\beta)}{\exp(x'_{i1}\beta) + \exp(x'_{i2}\beta)} \end{aligned}$$

Finally,

$$\Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0 | y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(x_{i2} - x_{i1})'\beta} \quad (33)$$

and analogously for the remaining case:

$$\Pr(y_{i1} = 1, y_{i2} = 0 | y_{i1} + y_{i2} = 1) = \frac{\exp(x_{i2} - x_{i1})'\beta}{1 + \exp(x_{i2} - x_{i1})'\beta}. \quad (34)$$

Using the conditional likelihood we eliminate the fixed effect (individual-specific intercept). Apart from that, all time invariant explanatory variables are also wiped out from the estimation.

Random Effects Binary Models I

- The random effects binary outcomes models assume that the individual effects are normally distributed, i.e. $\mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\mu^2)$.
- This yields:

$$\Pr(y_{it} = 1 | x_{it}, \beta, \mu_i) = \begin{cases} \Lambda(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta) & \text{for logit model,} \\ \Phi(\mu_i + x'_{it}\beta) & \text{for probit model,} \end{cases} \quad (35)$$

where $\Lambda(\cdot)$ and $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the logistic and standard normal cumulative distribution, respectively.

- The underlying parameters (β) and the variance of random unit-specific effects (σ_μ^2) can be estimated with the Maximum Likelihood estimation (MLE). The MLE of β and σ_μ^2 maximizes the log-likelihood, i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^N \ln f(y_i | X_i, \beta, \sigma_\mu^2)$, where

$$f(y_i | X_i, \beta, \sigma_\mu^2) = \int f(y_i | X_i, \beta) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_\mu^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-\mu_i}{2\sigma_\mu^2}\right) d\mu_i, \quad (36)$$

where $f(y_i | X_i, \beta)$ is the considered probability distribution function (logistic or standard normal).

Random Effects Binary Models II

- The MLE estimates are calculated numerically using quadrature method.
- We can test the presence of cross-sectional heterogeneity. The standard likelihood test are designed to verify the following null hypothesis:

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : \sigma_{\mu}^2 = 0. \quad (37)$$

- Unlike the FE logit the random effects logit/probit models use variables that are constant over time.
- In analogous fashion to the linear FE models, it is assumed that individual effects are independent of the explanatory variables.

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The RE & FE Poisson Models I

- The Poisson individual-specific effects model assume that the dependent variable is determined by the conditional probability function for a Poisson distribution:

$$\Pr(Y_{it} = y_{it} | x_{it}) = \mathcal{P}(y_{it}, x'_{it}\beta + \mu_i), \quad (38)$$

where \mathcal{P} is the Poisson distribution.

- The joint density for the i observation (unit):

$$f(y_i | X_i, \beta, \mu_i) = \prod_{i=1}^T \frac{\exp(-\mu_i \exp(x'_{it}\beta)) (-\mu_i \exp(x'_{it}\beta))^{y_{it}}}{y_{it}!}, \quad (39)$$

but the conditional mean is given as

$$\mathbb{E}(y_{it} | \mu_i, x_{it}) = \mu_i \exp(x'_{it}\beta). \quad (40)$$

- **The FE estimator is consistent for small T.** In the context of the count data, the FE approach doesn't suffer from the incidental parameters problems.

The RE & FE Poisson Models II

- ▶ The individual-specific effects can be eliminated by first differencing or demeaning.
- Denoting $\lambda_{it} = \exp(x'_{it}\beta)$ the Poisson log-likelihood can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}\ln \mathcal{L}(\beta, \mu) &= \ln \left[\prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{t=1}^T (\exp(-\mu_i \lambda_{it}) (-\mu_i \lambda_{it})^{y_{it}} / y_{it}!) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \left[-\mu_i \sum_{t=1}^T \lambda_{it} + \ln \mu_i \sum_{t=1}^T y_{it} + \sum_{t=1}^T y_{it} \ln \lambda_{it} - \sum_{t=1}^T y_{it}! \right],\end{aligned}$$

and differentiation with respect to individual effects leads to the concentrated likelihood function ($\ln \mathcal{L}^{\text{CNC}}(\beta)$):

$$\ln \mathcal{L}^{\text{CNC}}(\beta) \propto \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T \left[y_{it} \ln \lambda_{it} - y_{it} \ln \sum_k \lambda_{ik} \right]. \quad (41)$$

- The consistent estimates of β can be obtained by maximization of the concentrated likelihood function ($\ln \mathcal{L}^{\text{CNC}}(\beta)$).

- The RE estimator for count data assumes that random effects are gamma-distributed. This is due to the fact that we assume that random effects are multiplicative. Similar to linear models, it is assumed that
 - ▶ random effects are not correlated with the explanatory variables.
 - ▶ $\mathbb{E}(\mu_i) = 1$.
- Alternatively, the pooled Poisson model can be considered. However, if there is there is a systematic (constant over time) unobserved cross-sectional heterogeneity then the error term will be equicorrelated (as in the linear RE estimator).
 - ▶ To account for the serial correlation of error term in the pooled Poisson model panel-robust standard errors should be applied.

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The RE tobit model I

- A panel version of tobit model:

$$y_{it}^* = \mu_i + \mathbf{x}'_{it}\beta + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (42)$$

where μ_i is the individual-specific random component, y_{it}^* is the latent (unobserved) variable and ε_{it} stands for the idiosyncratic error term, i.e., $\varepsilon_{it} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$.

- If the FE model of (42) is considered then the ML estimation leads to inconsistent estimates of β when T is relatively small. This is due to the incidental parameters problem.
- Conventionally, in the RE tobit model it is assumed that random effects are normally distributed, i.e. $\mu_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\mu^2)$.
- The latent variable y_{it}^* is censored from left (below)/right (above). For instance,
 - ▶ [Left censoring at zero] we observe y_{it} when the latent variable is above its left-censoring value, i.e, $y_{it} = y_{it}^*$ if $y_{it}^* > 0$, and the left-censoring value if the latent variable is below this value, i.e., $y_{it} = 0$ if $y_{it}^* \leq 0$.

The RE tobit model II

- The MLE estimates of β , σ_μ^2 as well as σ_ε^2 can be calculated by maximization the log-likelihood, i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^N \ln f(y_i|X_i, \beta, \sigma_\mu^2, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$, where

$$f(y_i|X_i, \beta, \sigma_\mu^2, \sigma_\varepsilon^2) = \int f(y_i|X_i, \beta, \mu_i, \sigma_\varepsilon^2) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_\mu^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-\mu_i}{2\sigma_\mu^2}\right) d\mu_i, \quad (43)$$

where the above integral can be numerically computed using Gaussian quadrature.