

A Course in Applied Econometrics

Lecture 6: Nonlinear Panel Data Models

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- How do we account for unobserved \mathbf{c}_i ? Maybe we can insert meaningful values for \mathbf{c} . For example, if $\mu_{\mathbf{c}} = E(\mathbf{c}_i)$, then we can compute the *partial effect at the average (PEA)*,

$$PEA_j(\mathbf{x}_t) = \theta_j(\mathbf{x}_t, \mu_{\mathbf{c}}). \quad (3)$$

Of course, we need to estimate the function m_t and $\mu_{\mathbf{c}}$. We might be able to insert different quantiles, or a certain number of standard deviations from the mean.

- Alternatively, we can average the partial effects across the distribution of \mathbf{c}_i :

$$APE(\mathbf{x}_t) = E_{\mathbf{c}_i}[\theta_j(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}_i)]. \quad (4)$$

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1. Basic Issues and Quantities of Interest

- Let $\{(\mathbf{x}_{it}, y_{it}) : t = 1, \dots, T\}$ be a random draw from the cross section. Typically interested in

$$D(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i) \quad (1)$$

or some feature of this distribution, such as $E(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i)$, or a conditional median.

- In the case of a mean, how do we summarize the partial effects? If x_{ij} is continuous, then

$$\theta_j(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}) \equiv \frac{\partial m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c})}{\partial x_{tj}}, \quad (2)$$

or discrete changes.

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- The difference between (3) and (4) can be nontrivial. In some leading cases, (4) is identified while (3) is not.
- (4) is closely related to the notion of the average structural function (ASF) (Blundell and Powell (2003)). The ASF is defined as

$$ASF(\mathbf{x}_t) = E_{\mathbf{c}_i}[m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}_i)]. \quad (5)$$

- Passing the derivative through the expectation in (5) gives the APE.

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- How do APEs relate to parameters? Suppose

$$m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, c) = G(\mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + c), \quad (6)$$

where, say, $G(\cdot)$ is strictly increasing and continuously differentiable.

Then

$$\theta_j(\mathbf{x}_t, c) = \beta_j g(\mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + c), \quad (7)$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is the derivative of $G(\cdot)$. Then estimating β_j means we can sign of the partial effect, and the relative effects of any two continuous variables. Even if $G(\cdot)$ is specified, the magnitude of effects cannot be estimated without making assumptions about the distribution of c_i .

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- Altonji and Matzkin (2005) define the *local average response (LAR)* as opposed to the APE or PAE. The LAR at \mathbf{x}_t for a continuous variable x_{tj} is

$$LAR_j(\mathbf{x}_t) = \int \frac{\partial m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c})}{\partial x_{tj}} dH_t(\mathbf{c}|\mathbf{x}_t), \quad (8)$$

where $H_t(\mathbf{c}|\mathbf{x}_t)$ denotes the cdf of $D(\mathbf{c}_i|\mathbf{x}_{it} = \mathbf{x}_t)$. “Local” because it averages out the heterogeneity for the slice of the population described by the vector \mathbf{x}_t . The APE is a “global average response.”

- Definitions of partial effects do not depend on whether \mathbf{x}_t is correlated with \mathbf{c} . Of course, whether and how we estimate them certainly does.

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2. Exogeneity Assumptions

- As in linear case, cannot get by with just specifying a model for $D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i)$.
- The most useful definition of strict exogeneity for nonlinear panel data models is

$$D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT}, \mathbf{c}_i) = D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i). \quad (9)$$

Chamberlain (1984) labeled (9) *strict exogeneity conditional on the unobserved effects \mathbf{c}_i* . Conditional mean version:

$$E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT}, \mathbf{c}_i) = E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i). \quad (10)$$

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- The sequential exogeneity assumption is

$$D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i) = D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i). \quad (11)$$

Unfortunately, it is much more difficult to allow sequential exogeneity in nonlinear models.

- Neither (9) nor (10) allows for contemporaneous endogeneity of one or more elements of \mathbf{x}_{it} , where, say, x_{ij} is correlated with unobserved, time-varying unobservables that affect y_{it} . (Later in control function estimation.)

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3. Conditional Independence

- In linear models, serial dependence of idiosyncratic shocks is easily dealt with, either by robust inference or GLS extensions of FE and FD. With strictly exogenous covariates, never results in biased estimation, even if it is ignored or improperly model. The situation is different with nonlinear models estimated by MLE.
- The conditional independence assumption is

$$D(y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iT} | \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{c}_i) = \prod_{t=1}^T D(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i) \quad (12)$$

(where we also impose strict exogeneity).

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- In a parametric context, the CI assumption therefore reduces our task to specifying a model for $D(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i)$, and then determining how to treat the unobserved heterogeneity, \mathbf{c}_i .
- In random effects and correlated random effects frameworks, CI plays a critical role in being able to estimate the “structural” parameters and the parameters in distribution the of \mathbf{c}_i (and therefore, PAEs). In a broad class of models, CI plays no role in estimating APES.

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4. Assumptions about the Unobserved Heterogeneity

Random Effects

$$D(\mathbf{c}_i | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT}) = D(\mathbf{c}_i). \quad (13)$$

Under (13), the APES are nonparametrically identified from

$$r_t(\mathbf{x}_t) \equiv E(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it} = \mathbf{x}_t). \quad (14)$$

- In some leading cases (RE probit and RE Tobit), if we want PEs for different values of \mathbf{c} , we must assume more: strict exogeneity, conditional independence, and (13) with a parametric distribution for $D(\mathbf{c}_i)$.

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Correlated Random Effects

A CRE framework allows dependence between \mathbf{c}_i and \mathbf{x}_i , but restricted in some way. In a parametric setting, we specify a distribution for $D(\mathbf{c}_i | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT})$, as in Chamberlain (1980,1982), and much work since. Can allow $D(\mathbf{c}_i | \mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT})$ to depend in a “nonexchangeable” manner. (Chamberlain’s CRE probit and Tobit models.) Distributional assumptions that lead to simple estimation – homoskedastic normal with a linear conditional mean — are restrictive.

- Possible to drop parametric assumptions with

$$D(c_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i | \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i), \quad (15)$$

without restricting $D(c_i | \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$.

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- As T gets larger, can allow \mathbf{c}_i to be correlated with features of the covariates other than just the time average. Altonji and Matzkin (2005) allow for $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$ in equation (15) to be replaced by other functions of $\{\mathbf{x}_{it} : t = 1, \dots, T\}$, such as sample variances and covariance. Non-exchangeable functions, such as unit-specific trends, can be used, too. Generally, assume

$$D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i|\mathbf{w}_i). \quad (16)$$

Practically, we need to specify \mathbf{w}_i and then establish that there is enough variation in $\{\mathbf{x}_{it} : t = 1, \dots, T\}$ separate from \mathbf{w}_i .

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Fixed Effects

The label “fixed effects” is used in different ways by different researchers. One view: $\mathbf{c}_i, i = 1, \dots, N$ are parameters to be estimated. Usually leads to an “incidental parameters problem” (which attenuates with large T).

- A second meaning of “fixed effects” is that $D(\mathbf{c}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$ is unrestricted and we look for objective functions that do not depend on \mathbf{c}_i but still identify the population parameters. Leads to “conditional maximum likelihood” if we can find a “sufficient statistic” such that

$$D(y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iT}|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{s}_i) = D(y_{i1}, \dots, y_{iT}|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{s}_i). \quad (17)$$

- The CI assumption is usually maintained.

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5. Nonparametric Identification of Average Partial Effects

- Identification of PAEs can fail even under a strong set of parametric assumptions. In the probit model

$$P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}, c) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}\beta + c), \quad (18)$$

the PE for a continuous variable x_j is $\beta_j\phi(\mathbf{x}\beta + c)$. The PAE at $\mu_c = E(c) = 0$ is $\beta_j\phi(\mathbf{x}\beta)$. Suppose $c|\mathbf{x} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_c^2)$. Then

$$P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}\beta/(1 + \sigma_c^2)^{1/2}), \quad (19)$$

so only the scaled parameter vector $\beta_c \equiv \beta/(1 + \sigma_c^2)^{1/2}$ is identified; β and $\beta_j\phi(\mathbf{x}\beta)$ are not identified.

- The APE is identified from $P(y = 1|\mathbf{x})$, and is given by $\beta_{cj}\phi(\mathbf{x}\beta_c)$.

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- Panel data example due to Hahn (2001): x_{it} is a binary indicator and

$$P(y_{it} = 1|\mathbf{x}_i, c_i) = \Phi(\beta x_{it} + c_i), t = 1, 2. \quad (20)$$

β is not known to be identified in this model, even under conditional independence and the random effects assumption $D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i)$. But the APE is $\tau \equiv E[\Phi(\beta + c_i)] - E[\Phi(c_i)]$ and is identified by a difference of means for the treated and untreated groups, for either time period.

- As shown in Wooldridge (2005a), identification of the APE holds if we replace Φ with an unknown function G and allow $D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i|\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$.

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- We can establish identification of APEs in panel data applications very under strict exogeneity along with $D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i|\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$. These two assumptions identify the APEs. Write the average structural function at time t as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ASF}_t(\mathbf{x}_t) &= E_{\mathbf{c}_i}[m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}_i)] \\ &= E_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i}\{E[m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}_i)|\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i]\} \equiv E_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i}[r_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)], \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Given a consistent estimator of $\hat{r}_t(\cdot, \cdot)$, the ASF can be estimated as

$$\widehat{\text{ASF}}_t(\mathbf{x}_t) \equiv N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{r}_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i). \quad (22)$$

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- Equation (21) holds without strict exogeneity $D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = D(c_i|\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$. But these assumptions allow us to estimate estimate $r_t(\cdot, \cdot)$:

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_i) &= E[E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{c}_i)|\mathbf{x}_i] = E[m_t(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i)|\mathbf{x}_i] \\ &= \int m_t(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}) dF(\mathbf{c}|\mathbf{x}_i) \\ &= \int m_t(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}) dF(\mathbf{c}|\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) = r_t(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i), \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

where $F(\mathbf{c}|\mathbf{x}_i)$ denotes the cdf of $D(\mathbf{c}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$. Because $E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_i)$ depends only on $(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$, we must have

$$E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) = r_t(\mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i), \quad (24)$$

and $r_t(\cdot, \cdot)$ is identified with sufficient time variation in \mathbf{x}_{it} .

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6. Dynamic Models

- Nonlinear models with only sequentially exogenous variables are difficult to deal with. More is known about models with lagged dependent variables and otherwise strictly exogenous variables:

$$D(\mathbf{y}_{it}|\mathbf{z}_{it}, \mathbf{y}_{i,t-1}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{i1}, \mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{c}_i), t = 1, \dots, T, \quad (25)$$

which we assume also is $D(\mathbf{y}_{it}|\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{y}_{i,t-1}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{i1}, \mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{c}_i)$. Suppose this distribution depends only on $(\mathbf{z}_{it}, \mathbf{y}_{i,t-1}, \mathbf{c}_i)$ with density

$f_t(\mathbf{y}_t|\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \mathbf{c}; \theta)$. The joint density of $(\mathbf{y}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{iT})$ given $(\mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{c}_i)$ is

$$\prod_{t=1}^T f_t(\mathbf{y}_t|\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \mathbf{c}; \theta). \quad (26)$$

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- Approaches to the “initial conditions” problem: (i) Treat the \mathbf{c}_i as parameters to estimate (incidental parameters problem). (ii) Try to estimate the parameters without specifying conditional or unconditional distributions for c_i (available in some special cases). Generally, cannot estimate partial effects.). (iii) Approximate $D(\mathbf{y}_{i0}|\mathbf{c}_i, z_i)$ and then model $D(\mathbf{c}_i|\mathbf{z}_i)$. Leads to $D(\mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{y}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{iT}|\mathbf{z}_i)$ and MLE conditional on \mathbf{z}_i . (iv) Model $D(\mathbf{c}_i|\mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i)$. Leads to $D(\mathbf{y}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{iT}|\mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i)$ and MLE conditional on $(\mathbf{y}_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i)$. Wooldridge (2005b) shows this can be computationally simple for popular models.
- If $m_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c}, \theta)$ is the mean function $E(y_t|\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{c})$, the APEs are easy to obtain.

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7. Applications to Specific Models

Binary and Fractional Response

- Unobserved effects (UE) probit model:

$$P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{it}, c_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta} + c_i), \quad t = 1, \dots, T. \quad (27)$$

Assume strict exogeneity (as always, conditional on c_i) and use Chamberlain-Mundlak device under conditional normality:

$$c_i = \psi + \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \xi + a_i, \quad a_i | \mathbf{x}_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_a^2). \quad (28)$$

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- If we still assume conditional serial independence then all parameters are identified and MLE (RE probit) can be used.

$\hat{\mu}_c = \hat{\psi} + (N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \hat{\xi}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_c^2 \equiv \hat{\xi}' (N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i' \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \hat{\xi} + \hat{\sigma}_a^2$. c_i is not generally normally distributed unless $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \xi$ is. But can evaluate PEs at, say, $\hat{\mu}_c \pm k\hat{\sigma}_c$.

- The APEs are identified from the ASF, which is consistently estimated as

$$\widehat{\text{ASF}}(\mathbf{x}_t) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_a + \hat{\psi}_a + \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \hat{\xi}_a) \quad (29)$$

where, for example, $\hat{\beta}_a = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}/(1 + \hat{\sigma}_a^2)^{1/2}$.

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- APEs are identified without the conditional serial independence assumption. Use the marginal probabilities to estimate scaled coefficients:

$$P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta}_a + \psi_a + \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \xi_a). \quad (30)$$

- Can used pooled probit or minimum distance or “generalized estimating equations.”
- Because the Bernoulli log-likelihood is in the linear exponential family (LEF), exactly the same methods can be applied if $0 \leq y_{it} \leq 1$ – that is, y_{it} is a “fractional” response – but where the model is for the conditional mean: $E(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, c_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta} + c_i)$. Full MLE difficult.

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- A more radical suggestion, but in the spirit of Altonji and Matzkin (2005), is to just use a flexible model for $E(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$ directly, say,

$$E(y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) = \Phi[\theta_t + \mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \boldsymbol{\gamma} + (\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i \otimes \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \boldsymbol{\delta} + (\mathbf{x}_{it} \otimes \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \boldsymbol{\eta}].$$

Just average out over $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$ to get APEs.

- If we have a binary response, start with

$$P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{it}, c_i) = \Lambda(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta} + c_i), \quad (31)$$

and assume CI, we can estimate $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ without restricting $D(c_i | \mathbf{x}_i)$.

- Because we have not restricted $D(c_i | \mathbf{x}_i)$ in any way, it appears that we cannot estimate average partial effects.

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LFP	(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)
Model	Linear	Probit		RE Probit		RE Probit		FE Logit
Est. Method	FE	Pooled MLE		Pooled MLE		MLE		MLE
	Coef.	Coef.	APE	Coef.	APE	Coef.	APE	Coef.
kids	-.0389	-.199	-.0660	-.117	-.0389	-.317	-.0403	-.644
	(.0092)	(.015)	(.0048)	(.027)	(.0085)	(.062)	(.0104)	(.125)
lhinc	-.0089	-.211	-.0701	-.029	-.0095	-.078	-.0099	-.184
	(.0046)	(.024)	(.0079)	(.014)	(.0048)	(.041)	(.0055)	(.083)
<i>kids</i>	—	—	—	-.086	—	-.210	—	—
	—	—	—	(.031)	—	(.071)	—	—
<i>lhinc</i>	—	—	—	-.250	—	-.646	—	—
	—	—	—	(.035)	—	(.079)	—	—

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- What would CMLE logit estimate in the model

$$P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{it}, \mathbf{c}_i) = \Lambda(a_i + \mathbf{x}_{it}\mathbf{b}_i), \quad (32)$$

where $\beta \equiv E(\mathbf{b}_i)$?

- There are methods that allow estimation, up to scale, of the coefficients without even specifying the distribution of u_{it} in

$$y_{it} = 1[\mathbf{x}_{it}\beta + c_i + u_{it} \geq 0]. \quad (33)$$

under strict exogeneity.conditional on c_i . Arellano and Honoré (2001).

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- Simple dynamic model:

$$P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{z}_{it}, y_{i,t-1}, c_i) = \Phi(\mathbf{z}_{it}\delta + \rho y_{i,t-1} + c_i). \quad (34)$$

A simple analysis is available if we specify

$$c_i | \mathbf{z}_i, y_{i0} \sim Normal(\psi + \xi_0 y_{i0} + \mathbf{z}_i \xi, \sigma_a^2) \quad (35)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(y_{it} = 1 | \mathbf{z}_i, y_{i,t-1}, \dots, y_{i0}, a_i) = \\ \Phi(\mathbf{z}_{it}\delta + \rho y_{i,t-1} + \psi + \xi_0 y_{i0} + \mathbf{z}_i \xi + a_i), \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

where $a_i \equiv c_i - \psi - \xi_0 y_{i0} - \mathbf{z}_i \xi$.

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- Because a_i is independent of (y_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i) , it turns out we can use standard random effects probit software, with explanatory variables $(1, \mathbf{z}_{it}, y_{i,t-1}, y_{i0}, \mathbf{z}_i)$ in time period t . Easily get the average partial effects, too:

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{ASF}(\mathbf{z}_t, y_{t-1}) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N & \Phi(\mathbf{z}_i \hat{\delta}_a + \hat{\rho}_a y_{t-1} \\ & + \hat{\psi}_a + \hat{\xi}_{a0} y_{i0} + \mathbf{z}_i \hat{\xi}_a), \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

Example in notes: dynamic labor force participation. The APE estimated from this method is about .259. If we ignore the heterogeneity, APE is .837.

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- For estimating parameters, Honoré and Kyriazidou (2000) extend an idea of Chamberlain. With four time periods, $t = 0, 1, 2$, and 3 , the conditioning that removes c_i requires $z_{i2} = z_{i3}$. HK show how to use a local version of this condition to consistently estimate the parameters. The estimator is also asymptotically normal, but converges more slowly than the usual \sqrt{N} -rate.
- The condition that $z_{i2} = z_{i3}$ have a distribution with support around zero rules out aggregate year dummies. By design, cannot estimate magnitudes of effects.

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Count and Other Multiplicative Models

- Several options are available for models with conditional means multiplicative in the heterogeneity, say,

$$E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, c_i) = c_i \exp(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (38)$$

where $c_i \geq 0$. Under strict exogeneity,

$$E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{iT}, c_i) = E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, c_i), \quad (39)$$

the “fixed effects” Poisson estimator is attractive: it does not restrict $D(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_i, c_i)$, $D(c_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$, or serial dependence. It is the conditional MLE derived under a Poisson and CI assumptions. Fully robust, even if y_{it} is not a count variable! Robust inference is easy.

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- Estimation under sequential exogeneity has been studied by Chamberlain (1992). Use moment conditions such as

$$E(y_{it}|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i1}, c_i) = c_i \exp(\mathbf{x}_{it}\boldsymbol{\beta}). \quad (40)$$

Under this assumption, it can be shown that

$$E\{[y_{it} - y_{i,t+1} \exp((\mathbf{x}_{it} - \mathbf{x}_{i,t+1})\boldsymbol{\beta})]|\mathbf{x}_{it}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i1}\} = 0, \quad (41)$$

and, because these moment conditions depend only on observed data and the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, GMM can be used to estimate $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, and fully robust inference is straightforward.

- Wooldridge (2005b) shows how a dynamic Poisson model with conditional Gamma heterogeneity can be easily estimated.

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