Supplement

to the paper

Medium-term Fluctuations and the "Great Ratios" of Economic Growth

by Christian Groth* and Jakob B. Madsen**

* Department of Economics and EPRU, University of Copenhagen, Denmark Chr.Groth@econ.ku.dk

> ** Department of Economics, Monash University, Australia Jakob.Madsen@econ.ku.dk.

> > February 14, 2015

1. Introduction

This supplementary material gives an account of some details in the proof of (ii) of Proposition 1, omitted from the last paragraph of Appendix A of the paper. In addition, as a supplement to Appendix B of the paper, the mathematics behind the applied normalisation of the CES production function is explained. Finally, a list of data sources for Section 2 of the paper is provided.

2. The Jacobian Matrix

For convenience, we repeat here the entries of the Jacobian matrix of the three-dimensional dynamic system of the model, evaluated in steady state:

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} j_{11} & j_{12} & j_{13} \\ j_{21} & j_{22} & j_{23} \\ j_{31} & j_{32} & j_{33} \end{pmatrix} =$$

~ ...

$$\frac{\hat{c}(q^*,\tilde{w}^*)\left[\theta m'(q^*)q^*+\rho-n-(1-\theta)\gamma\right]}{h(q^*,\tilde{w}^*)} \quad \frac{\varepsilon(k^*)^2\hat{c}(q^*,\tilde{w}^*)+\theta q^*\sigma(k^*)^2\varphi'(\overline{v})\overline{v}}{\varepsilon(k^*)^2k^*h(q^*,\tilde{w}^*)} \quad \frac{-\theta q^*\frac{w^*}{k^*}\sigma(k^*)\varphi'(\overline{v})}{\varepsilon(k^*)k^*h(q^*,\tilde{w}^*)}}{0} \\ 0 \quad \qquad -\frac{\sigma(k^*)}{\varepsilon(k^*)}\varphi'(\overline{v})\overline{v}} \quad \frac{\frac{\omega^*}{k^*}\varphi'(\overline{v})}{k^*} \\ m'(q^*)x^* \quad \qquad 0 \quad \qquad 0 \end{aligned}$$

where $h(q^*, \tilde{w}^*) \equiv \hat{c}(q^*, \tilde{w}^*) + \theta m'(q^*)q^{*2} > 0$. In particular, we observe that $j_{21} = 0, j_{23} \neq 0$ and $j_{31} \neq 0$.

Let
$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) = (q, \tilde{w}, x)$$
 and $\mathbf{x}^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, x_3^*) = (q^*, \tilde{w}^*, x^*)$. The

eigenvalues of J are denoted μ_1 , μ_2 and μ_3 . We know from Appendix A of the paper that one eigenvalue, say μ_3 , is real and positive, and that the other two eigenvalues have negative real part, that is, $\mu_1 = a_1 + ib$ and $\mu_2 = a_2 - ib$, where $a_1 < 0$ and $a_2 < 0$. In case μ_1 and μ_2 are real, b = 0. Otherwise, μ_1 and μ_2 are complex, i.e., $b \neq 0$ and $a_1 = a_2 = a$.

3. The general convergent solution

There always exist two linearly independent vectors, $\mathbf{v}^1 = (v_1^1, v_2^1, v_3^1) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\mathbf{v}^2 = (v_1^2, v_2^2, v_3^2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, such that the *stable* linear subspace, M^s , is spanned by these, i.e. M^s $= Sp(v^1, v^2)$ (see, e.g., Braun, 1975).

In case μ_1 and μ_2 are real and distinct, any convergent solution is, in the neighbourhood of x^* , approximately of the form

$$\mathbf{x}_{t} = c_{1} \mathbf{s} e^{\mu_{1} t} + c_{2} \mathbf{u} e^{\mu_{2} t} + \mathbf{x}^{*}, \qquad (3.1)$$

where c_1 and c_2 denote constants that depend on initial conditions, whereas $s = (s_1, s_2, s_3)$ and $u = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ are eigenvectors corresponding to μ_1 and μ_2 , respectively; so, s and u are linearly independent and $M^s = Sp(s, u)$. Alternatively, we may have $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu < 0$, and then any convergent solution is of the form

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{t} = [c_{1}\boldsymbol{s} + c_{2}(\boldsymbol{u} + t\boldsymbol{s})]\boldsymbol{e}^{\boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{t}} + \boldsymbol{x}^{*}, \qquad (3.2)$$

where s is an eigenvector corresponding to μ , and u is a linearly independent eigenvector also corresponding to μ , if such an eigenvector exists; otherwise, u is a generalized eigenvector satisfying

$$J\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{s}, \ \boldsymbol{u} \neq \boldsymbol{0}. \tag{3.3}$$

Finally, when μ_1 and μ_2 are complex, any convergent solution is of the form

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{t} = \left[c_{1}(\boldsymbol{s}\cos bt - \boldsymbol{u}\sin bt) + c_{2}(\boldsymbol{u}\cos bt + \boldsymbol{s}\sin bt)\right]e^{at} + \boldsymbol{x}^{*}, \qquad (3.4)$$

where *s* and *u* are the real part and the imaginary part, respectively, of an eigenvector *w* corresponding to the eigenvalue $\mu_1 = a + ib$, that is, w = s + iu.

So, in all three cases *s* and *u* are linearly independent and $M^s = Sp(s, u)$.

4. Existence and uniqueness with given initial conditions

For t = 0 we have $\mathbf{x}_0 = c_1 \mathbf{s} + c_2 \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{x}^*$ in all three cases above. By coordinates,

$$x_{10} = c_1 s_1 + c_2 u_1 + x_1^*,$$

$$x_{20} = c_1 s_2 + c_2 u_2 + x_2^*,$$

$$x_{30} = c_1 s_3 + c_2 u_3 + x_3^*.$$

In our economic model \tilde{w} and x are predetermined, whereas q is a jump variable. Hence, we should consider x_{20} and x_{30} as given and x_{10} as endogenous. Consequently, we rewrite the system as

$$s_{1}c_{1} + u_{1}c_{2} - x_{10} = -x_{1}^{*},$$

$$s_{2}c_{1} + u_{2}c_{2} = x_{20} - x_{2}^{*},$$

$$s_{3}c_{1} + u_{3}c_{2} = x_{30} - x_{3}^{*}.$$

(4.1)

This system has a unique solution for (c_1, c_2, x_{10}) , if and only if the vector $z \equiv (-1, 0, 0)$ does not belong to Sp(s, u). This condition is equivalent to the stable linear subspace M^s not being parallel to the x_1 axis (i.e., the q axis in Figure A1 in Appendix A of the paper). We now show that this condition is satisfied.

Lemma 1. Let the elements j_{21} , j_{23} and j_{31} in the 3×3 matrix J satisfy $j_{21} = 0$, $j_{23} \neq 0$ and $j_{31} \neq 0$. Let the two linearly independent vectors $s \in R^3$ and $u \in R^3$ be as defined in Section 3 above. Then the vector $z \equiv (-1,0,0)$ does not belong to Sp(s,u).

Proof. We prove this by showing that the opposite leads to a contradiction. Suppose $z \equiv (-1,0,0)$ belongs to Sp(s, u). Then there exist constants α_1 and α_2 , so that

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{s} + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{z} = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4.2}$$

Multiplying from the left by **J** gives

$$\alpha_1 J \boldsymbol{s} + \alpha_2 J \boldsymbol{u} = J \boldsymbol{z} = - \begin{pmatrix} j_{11} \\ j_{21} \\ j_{31} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad (4.3)$$

There are three cases to consider.

Case 1: μ_1 and μ_2 real, and $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$, both negative. In this case, *s* and *u* are eigenvectors corresponding to μ_1 and μ_2 , respectively. Hence, (4.3) gives

$$\alpha_{1}\mu_{1}s + \alpha_{2}\mu_{2}u = -\begin{pmatrix} j_{11} \\ j_{21} \\ j_{31} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(4.4)

If $\alpha_1 = 0$, then (4.2) implies $\alpha_2 \neq 0$ and therefore $u_2 = u_3 = 0$, so that $j_{31} = 0$, in view of (4.4). But this contradicts the presupposition that $j_{31} \neq 0$. Suppose $\alpha_1 \neq 0$. Since $j_{21} = 0$, (4.4) implies $\alpha_1 \mu_1 s_2 + \alpha_2 \mu_2 u_2 = 0$, which, by (4.2), yields $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)\alpha_1 s_2 = 0$, implying $s_2 = 0$. But *s* is an eigenvector corresponding to μ_1 , so that, in particular,

$$j_{22}s_2 + j_{23}s_3 = \mu_1 s_2, \tag{4.5}$$

in view of $j_{21} = 0$. Hence, from $s_2 = 0$ and $j_{23} \neq 0$ follows $s_3 = 0$, and in view of (4.2) this gives $\alpha_2 u_3 = 0$, implying, by (4.4), $j_{31} = 0$, which again contradicts the presupposition that $j_{31} \neq 0$.

Case 2: μ_1 and μ_2 real, and $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu < 0$. Then, at least *s* is an eigenvector corresponding to μ . If there exists a linearly independent eigenvector also corresponding to μ , *u* may be taken to be that vector, and then, from (4.4) with $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu$, we get $j_{31} = \alpha_1 \mu s_3 + \alpha_2 \mu u_3 = \mu(\alpha_1 s_3 + \alpha_2 u_3) = 0$, in view of (4.2); but this contradicts the presupposition that $j_{31} \neq 0$. Otherwise, *u* is a generalized eigenvector satisfying (3.3), which together with (4.3) implies

$$\alpha_1 \mu \mathbf{s} + \alpha_2 (\mu \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{s}) = \mu (\alpha_1 \mathbf{s} + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}) + \alpha_2 \mathbf{s} = - \begin{pmatrix} j_{11} \\ j_{21} \\ j_{31} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(4.6)

By (4.2), this gives, in particular,

$$\alpha_2 s_2 = j_{21} = 0, \tag{4.7}$$

in view of the presupposition that $j_{21} = 0$, and

$$\alpha_2 s_3 = j_{31}. \tag{4.8}$$

If $\alpha_2 = 0$, then, by (4.8), $j_{31} = 0$, which is a contradiction. On the other hand, if $\alpha_2 \neq 0$, (4.7) gives $s_2 = 0$. Since *s* is an eigenvector and $j_{21} = 0$, (4.5) still holds, so that we now have $s_3 = 0$, in view of $j_{23} \neq 0$. Then, by (4.8), $j_{31} = 0$, which is a contradiction.

Case 3: μ_1 and μ_2 complex, i.e., $\mu_1 = a + ib$ and $\mu_2 = a - ib$, where $b \neq 0$ and a < 0. In this case, *s* and *u* are the real part and the imaginary part, respectively, of an

eigenvector w corresponding to the eigenvalue μ_1 , that is, w = s + iu. Let \overline{w} denote the complex conjugate of w, i.e., $\overline{w} = s - iu$. Then $w + \overline{w} = 2s$ and $w - \overline{w} = i2u$. Since \overline{w} is an eigenvector corresponding to μ_2 , we get

$$Js = \frac{1}{2}J(w + \bar{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(Jw + J\bar{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 w + \mu_2 \bar{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(2as - 2bu) = as - bu,$$
(4.9)

$$iJu = \frac{1}{2}J(w - \overline{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(Jw - J\overline{w}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 w - \mu_2 \overline{w}) = \frac{1}{2}i(2au + 2bs) = i(au + bs).$$
(4.10)

Hence, (4.3) yields $\alpha_1(as - bu) + \alpha_2(au + bs) = Jz$, which can be written $a(\alpha_1s + \alpha_2u) + \alpha_2(au + bs) = Jz$

 $b(\alpha_2 s - \alpha_1 u) = Jz$. In view of (4.2) and the definition of z, this implies, in particular,

$$b(\alpha_2 s_2 - \alpha_1 u_2) = j_{21} = 0, \qquad (4.11)$$

by assumption, and

$$b(\alpha_2 s_3 - \alpha_1 u_3) = j_{31}. \tag{4.12}$$

In view of $j_{21} = 0$ the second element of **Js** is

$$j_{22}s_2 + j_{23}s_3 = as_2 - bu_2, (4.13)$$

by (4.9), and the second element of Ju is

$$j_{22}u_2 + j_{23}u_3 = bs_2 + au_2, (4.14)$$

by (4.10). If $\alpha_1 = 0$, then (4.2) implies $\alpha_2 \neq 0$ and thereby $u_2 = u_3 = 0$, so that, by (4.11),

 $s_2 = 0$. Then (4.13) gives $s_3 = 0$, in view of $j_{23} \neq 0$. This implies, by (4.12), $j_{31} = 0$, which

contradicts the presupposition that $j_{31} \neq 0$. Now, suppose $\alpha_1 \neq 0$. From (4.2) follows $s_2 =$

 $-\alpha_2 u_2 / \alpha_1$, which substituted into (4.11) gives $\alpha_2 (-\alpha_2 u_2 / \alpha_1) - \alpha_1 u_2 = 0$ or

 $-(\alpha_2^2 + \alpha_1^2)u_2 = 0$, implying $u_2 = 0$ and thereby $s_2 = 0$. Then, (4.14) gives $u_3 = 0$, implying,

by (4.2), $s_3 = 0$. From (4.12) then follows $j_{31} = 0$, contradicting the presupposition that $j_{31} \neq 0$. Q.E.D.

5. Normalization of the CES function¹

The "normalisation" of the CES production function described in Appendix C of the paper is based on the following facts. Expressed in the classical way, as in Arrow et al. (1961), the CES production function reads:

$$y = f(k) = B(\alpha k^{\psi} + 1 - \alpha)^{1/\psi}, \qquad \psi \ (\equiv 1 - \sigma^{-1}) < 1, \ 0 < \alpha < 1, \ B > 0.$$
(5.1)

Suppose that to begin with we have not specified the parameters ψ , α , and *B*. Instead, for alternative values of $\psi \in (-\infty, 1)$ we want to adjust the (not dimensionless) parameters α and

¹ This section essentially builds on La Grandville (1989) and Klump and Saam (2008).

B so that at some baseline point $\overline{k} > 0$, the output elasticity with respect to capital, $\varepsilon(k)$, and output per unit of effective labour, *y*, are and remain equal to some pre-specified values, $\overline{\varepsilon} \in (0,1)$ and $\overline{y} > 0$, respectively.

For any k > 0,

$$\varepsilon(k) = \frac{kf'(k)}{f(k)} = \frac{\alpha}{(1-\alpha)k^{-\psi} + \alpha},$$
(5.2)

where the second equality comes from (5.1). Requiring $\varepsilon(\overline{k}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$, we find α as a function of ψ , \overline{k} and $\overline{\varepsilon}$:

$$\alpha = \frac{\overline{\varepsilon}}{(1 - \overline{\varepsilon})\overline{k}^{\psi} + \overline{\varepsilon}} \equiv \alpha(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}).$$
(5.3)

Substituting this value of α into (5.1), we find the required value of B to be

$$B = \overline{y}(1 - \overline{\varepsilon} + \overline{\varepsilon}\overline{k}^{-\psi})^{1/\psi} \equiv B(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}, \overline{y}).$$
(5.4)

We end up with a CES function in "family" form, also called "normalised" form:

$$y = B(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}, \overline{y}) \Big[\alpha(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}) k^{\psi} + 1 - \alpha(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}) \Big]^{1/\psi} .$$
(5.5)

So (5.3) and (5.4) are necessary conditions for α and B to be such that $\varepsilon(\overline{k}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$ and $f(\overline{k}) = \overline{y}$.

On the other hand, when α and B in (5.1) equal $\alpha(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon})$ and $B(\psi, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}, \overline{y})$, respectively, then it is easily verified that (5.2) implies $\varepsilon(\overline{k}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$ and (5.1) implies $f(\overline{k}) = \overline{y}$. We conclude that (5.3) and (5.4) are not only necessary but also sufficient conditions for α and B to be such that $\varepsilon(\overline{k}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$ and $f(\overline{k}) = \overline{y}$. Thereby the formula (5.5) identifies the family of CES production functions that are distinguished by the elasticity of substitution but at the point $k = \overline{k}$ have output elasticity with respect to capital equal to $\overline{\varepsilon}$ and output per unit of effective labour equal to \overline{y} .

This claim includes even the Cobb-Douglas case $\psi = 0$ (i.e., $\sigma = 1$). To see this, note that when $\psi = 0$, (5.1) above should be interpreted as $f(k) = Bk^{\alpha}$. In this case $\varepsilon(k)$ $= \alpha$ for all k > 0. Hence, to require $\varepsilon(\overline{k}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$ immediately means that α must equal $\overline{\varepsilon}$. This is also what inserting $\psi = 0$ into the formula (5.3) gives, since $\alpha(0, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}) = \overline{\varepsilon}$. The additional requirement $f(\overline{k}) = \overline{y}$ is seen to imply $B = B(0, \overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}, \overline{y}) = \overline{yk}^{-\overline{\varepsilon}}$ (in (5.4), apply L'Hôpital's rule for "0/0"). So we end up with the Cobb-Douglas function $y = \overline{yk}^{-\overline{\varepsilon}}k^{\overline{\varepsilon}}$, which indeed satisfies both requirements since it has $\varepsilon(k) = \overline{\varepsilon}$ for all k > 0 (hence also for $k = \overline{k}$) and $y = \overline{y}$ for $k = \overline{k}$.

One may interpret the original Arrow et al. (1961) form as having an implicit baseline point at $\overline{k} = 1$ in the sense that α in the formula (5.1) equals the output elasticity with respect to capital at k = 1 while *B* equals output per unit of effective labour at k = 1. Indeed, from (5.2) follows that $\varepsilon(1) = \alpha$ and from (5.1) follows that f(1) = B. Moreover, a convenient way of rewriting the normalized CES function is as

$$\frac{y}{\overline{y}} = \left(\overline{\varepsilon} \left(\frac{k}{\overline{k}}\right)^{\psi} + 1 - \overline{\varepsilon}\right)^{1/\psi}, \qquad \psi < 1, \ 0 < \overline{\varepsilon} < 1, \overline{y} > 0, \ \overline{k} > 0.$$

Here the capital input and output are measured in a dimensionless way as index numbers, k/\overline{k} and y/\overline{y} , respectively.

As Appendix C of the paper describes, in the context of our complete model we let the role as baseline constellation $(\overline{k}, \overline{\varepsilon}, \overline{y})$ be taken by the steady-state triple $(k^*, k^* f'(k^*) / f(k^*), f(k^*))$ obtained, given the baseline values of the background parameters, the baseline value of the investment flexibility, β , and the requirement that $f(k^*) / k^*$ is consistent with an investment-GDP ratio of 0.19.

6. Data sources

Data are compiled for the following 13 OECD countries: Canada, the US, Australia, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the UK.

Investment and capital stock of equipment and non-residential structures. Madsen, J.B, V. Mishra and R. Smyth (2012), "Is the Output-Capital Ratio Constant in the Very Long Run?" *The Manchester School*, 80 (2): 210-236. Updated using OECD, *National Accounts*, Volume 2, Paris: OECD.

Economy-wide real GDP. Madsen *et al.* (2012), *op cit*. Updated using OECD, *National Accounts*, Volume 2, Paris: OECD.

Labour's income share in manufacturing. Is computed as total labour cost divided by nominal value-added income. Data are available for all countries from the following sources after 1960: OECD, *National Accounts*, Vol. II, and OECD's Database for Industrial Analysis. <u>Canada</u>. F. H. Leacy (ed.), 1983, *Historical Statistics of Canada*, Statistics Canada: Ottawa. <u>USA</u>. T. Liesner, *One Hundred Years of Economic Statistics*, The Economist: Oxford, corporate non-agricultural private sector, Table US. 6. Japan. K. Ohkawa, M. Shinchara and L. Meissner, 1979, *Patterns of Japanese Economic Development: A Quantitative Appraisal*, Yale University Press: New Haven. <u>Australia</u>. Glenn Withers, Tony Endres and Len Perry,

1985, "Australian Historical Statistics: Labour Statistics," Australian National University, Source Papers in Economic History, No 7. 1950-1971, Department of Labour, 1974, "Labour's share of the national product: The post-war experience," Discussion paper, Melbourne. Belgium. P. Scholliers and V. Zamagni (eds.), 1995, Labour's Reward, London: Edward Elgar. Cahiers Economiques, De Broxelles, 1959 V.1 (3) and Cahiers Économiques de Bruxelles, 1959. Denmark. P Milhøj, Lønudviklingen I Danmark 1914-1950, København: Ejnar Munksgaard. Hansen, S. A., 1972. Økonomisk vækst i Danmark Bind II : 1914-1970, 2nd Ed., Universitetsforlaget, Copenhagen. Finland. (1871) R. Hjerppe, 1989, The Finnish Economy, 1860-1985, Bank of Finland, Government Printing Centre: Helsinki. France. Toutain, Jean-Claude, 1987. Le Produit Interieur Brut De La France De 1789 A 1982, Cahiers de l'I. S. M. E. A. Serie Historie Ouantitative de l'Economie Francaise, No. 15. Germany: Walther G Hoffmann, 1965, Das Wachstum der Deutschen Wirtschaft seit der mitte des 19. jahrhunderts, Springer-verlag: Berlin. The Netherlands. 1870-1913. J P Smits, E Horlings and J L van Zanden, 2000, Dutch GNP and its Components, 1800-1913, Groningen, http://www.eco.rug.nl/ggdc/PUB/dutchgnp.pdf. 1913-1950. Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2001. Tweehonderd jaar statistiek in tijdreeksen, 1800-1999, Voorburg. Norway. (1948) Statistisk Sentralbyraa, 1968, Nasjonalregnskap, Oslo. Spain. L Prados de la Escosura, 2003, El Progresso Economico De Espana 1850-2000, Madrid: Fundacion BBVA. Sweden. O Krantz and C A Nilsson, 1975, Swedish National Product 1861-1970, Gleerup: C. W. K. UK. C H Feinstein, 1976, Statistical Tables of National Income, Expenditure and Output of the U.K 1855-1965, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tobin's *q*. The log of consumer-price-deflated stock prices is regressed on a time trend and a constant and Tobin's *q* is presented by the residuals from these regressions except for the US before 2004 where Tobin's *q* for the US is from S Wright, 2004, "Measures of Stock Market Value and Returns for the U.S. Nonfinancial Corporate Sector", 1900-2002, *Review of Income and Wealth*, 50, 561-584. For other data see Madsen, J. B. and E. P. Davis (2006), "Equity Prices, Productivity Growth and the New Economy", *The Economic Journal*, 116 (513), 791-811. The data are updated from Datastream.

Unemployment. Madsen, J. B., V. Mishra, and R. Smyth (2008), "Are Labor Force Participation Rates Non-stationary? Evidence from 130 Years for OECD Countries." *Australian Economic Papers*, 47 (2), 166-189. Updated using OECD, *Main Economic Indicators*, Paris: OECD.

References

Arrow, K.J., H.B. Chenery, B.S. Minhas and R.M. Solow, 1961, Capital-labor substitution and economic efficiency, *Review of Economic Studies*, 43, 225-250.

Braun, Martin, 1975, Differential Equations and Their Applications, Berlin: Springer Verlag.

Klump, R., and M. Saam, 2008, Calibration of normalised CES production functions in dynamic models, *Economics Letters*, 99, 256-259.

La Grandville, Olivier, 1989, "In Quest of the Slutsky Diamond", *American Economic Review*, 79 (3), 468-81.
