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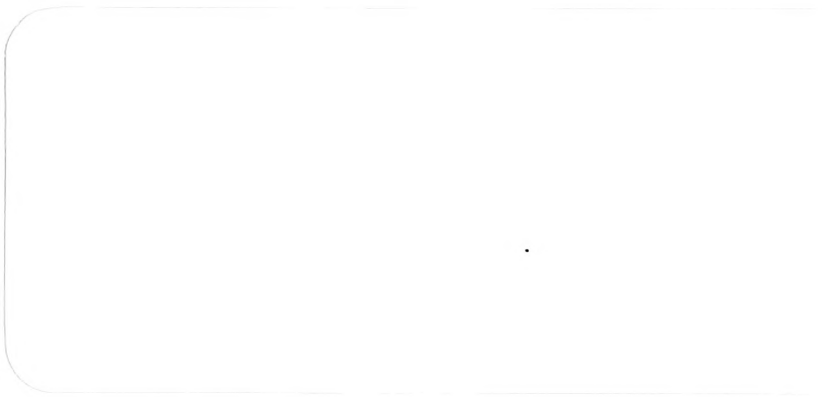
Faculty Working Papers

ON THE USE OF COBB-DOUGLAS SPLINES

Dale J. Poirier

#223

College of Commerce and Business Administration
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FACULTY WORKING PAPERS

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1. Introduction

Since the legendary work of Cobb and Douglas [1], Cobb-Douglas production functions and (to a somewhat lesser degree) Cobb-Douglas utility functions have been popular tools of economists. This popularity can be attributed both to the simplicity and to the wide-applicability of these functions. However, these functions are of course subject to rather severe restrictions. For example, in the production function context returns to scale are non-varying, hence, U-shaped average cost curves are ruled out. Also, homotheticity and unitary elasticities of substitution are required.

This study develops the idea of continuous piecewise Cobb-Douglas functions along the spline function lines discussed in Poirier [10] - [12]. This development will permit U-shaped average cost curves and "piecewise-homotheticity" at the expense of differentiability of the functions along lines parallel to the input axes. However, the unitary elasticities of substitution requirements will remain.

Implicit in this discussion is the belief expressed in Poirier [10] - [12] that for a wide range of problems in economics, the added generality of more complicated functional forms is often best achieved by using continuous piecewise functions. Briefly, the rationale is two-fold. First,

¹The author is an Assistant Professor of Economics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The contents of this study rely heavily on Poirier [10, Chapter 4]. Thanks are due Joseph Hotz, Steven Garber, William Greene, and Diane Christensen of the University of Wisconsin at Madison for their data handling and programming assistance which contributed greatly to section 5. Of course any errors are the sole responsibility of the author.

since within each "piece" such functions have simple and familiar forms, the analysis proceeds quite straightforwardly. Indeed all economists are familiar with Cobb-Douglas functions and their properties, and so this previous knowledge can be easily applied in analyzing piecewise Cobb-Douglas functions. Second, changes in the behavior of such functions as one passes from one piece to another are often of primary concern in economic analysis (e.g., the changes in expansion paths discussed in Section 3). Indeed the testability for the existence of such "structural changes" will be an important consideration throughout this discussion.

Organizationally, we will proceed as follows. Section 2 defines a Cobb-Douglas spline. For the sake of simplicity, but not at the expense of generality, a production function context with two inputs, labor and capital, will be used. Section 3 discusses the properties of Cobb-Douglas spline production functions, leaving to section 4 a discussion of the properties of Cobb-Douglas spline utility functions. Finally, section 5 contains an empirical application of a CDS production function.

2. Definition of a Cobb-Douglas Spline

Let the sets $\Delta_L = \{\bar{L}_1 < \bar{L}_2 < \dots < \bar{L}_{J-1}\}$ and $\Delta_K = \{\bar{K}_1 < \bar{K}_2 < \dots < \bar{K}_{J-1}\}$ be meshes defining intervals in the labor (L) and capital (K) dimensions. The elements in Δ_L and Δ_K are called knots and they define a rectangular grid in the positive quadrant that consists of IJ rectangles (see Figure 1). A Cobb-Douglas spline (CDS) is a function $Q(L,K)$ which can be defined as

$$(1) \quad Q(L,K) = \theta_{ij} L^{\alpha_i} K^{\beta_j}$$

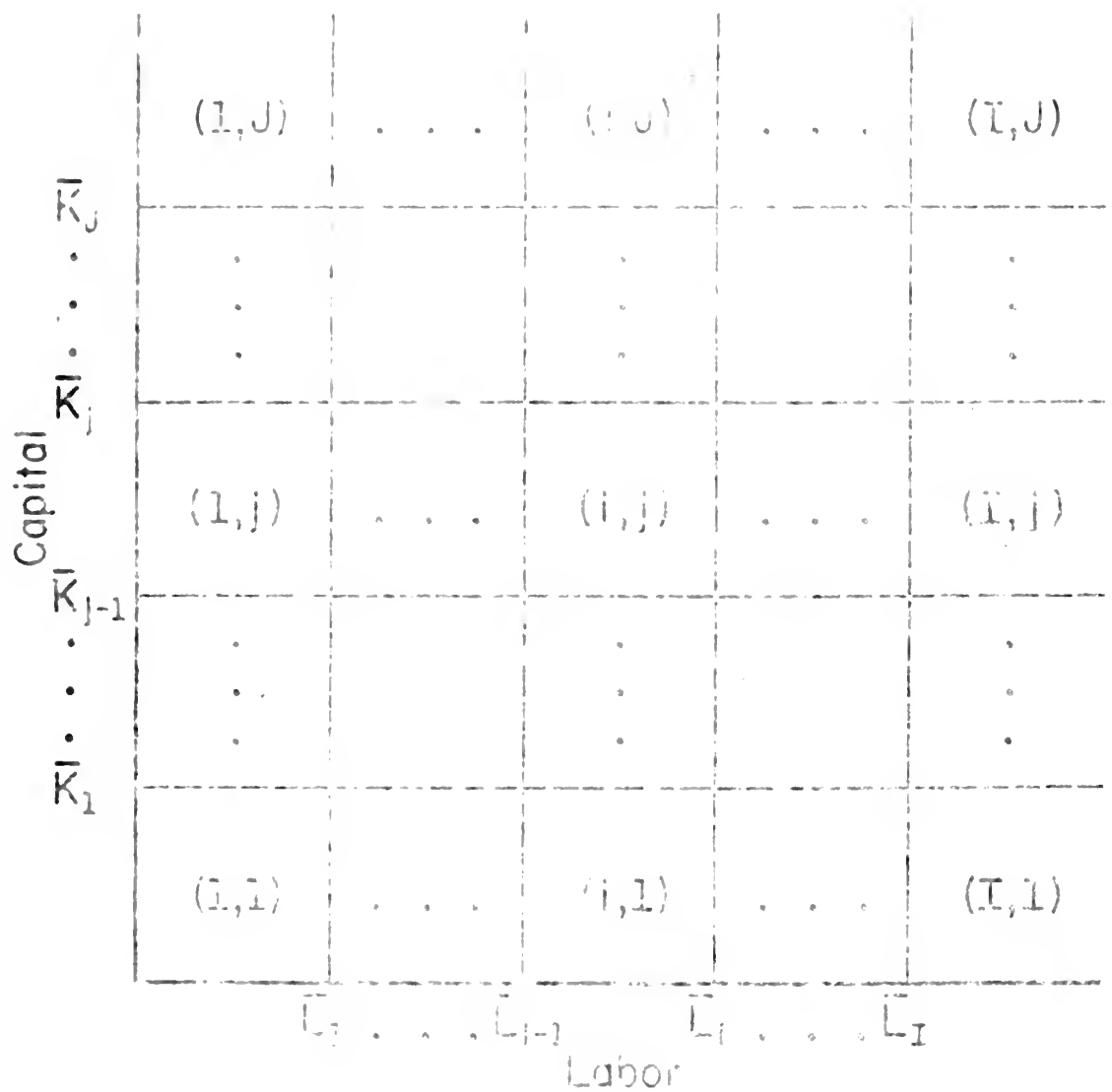


Figure 1: Labor - Capital Grid

where L and K are in rectangle $(1,1)$, the θ_{ij}^L 's, α_i 's, and δ_j 's are positive constants, and the \bar{L}_{ij} 's are chosen such to make $Q(L,K)$ continuous over the positive quadrant. Over L_{i-1} , for i 's, and the δ_j 's, this continuity requirement implies the continuity conditions

$$(2) \quad \ln \theta_{(i+1)j}^L = \ln \theta_{ij}^L + (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i+1}) \ln \bar{L}_i \quad i=1,2,\dots,i-1$$

for all j , and

$$(3) \quad \ln \theta_{i(j+1)}^L = \ln \theta_{ij}^L + (\delta_j - \delta_{j+1}) \ln \bar{K}_j \quad j=1,2,\dots,j-1$$

for all i . In this context the output elasticities of labor (the α_i 's) and capital (the δ_j 's) are step functions over the meshes Δ_L and Δ_K , respectively.

Often it is more convenient to work with a CDS in its logarithmic form

$$(4) \quad \ln Q = \ln \theta_{ij}^L + \alpha_i \ln L + \delta_j \ln K$$

for L and K in rectangle $(1,1)$. In formulation (4) $\ln Q$ is the sum of two linear splines (see Poirier [10, Chapter 2]), one in the $\ln L$ dimension, and one in the $\ln K$ dimension. In terms of Poirier [12], (4) is also a bilinear spline with no interaction terms.² Geometrically, (4) defines a piecewise-planar or "roof-like" surface.

Alternatively, continuity conditions (2) and (3) can be incorporated into representation (4) in the following manner. Define the variables

$$\bar{L}_i = \max \{(\ln L - \ln \bar{L}_i), 0\} \quad i=1,2,\dots,i-1$$

$$\bar{K}_j = \max \{(\ln K - \ln \bar{K}_j), 0\} \quad j=1,2,\dots,j-1$$

Then for all L and K ,

$$(5) \quad \ln Q = \ln \theta_{11}^L + \alpha_1 \ln L + \delta_1 \ln K + \sum_{i=2}^{I-1} \bar{\alpha}_i \bar{L}_i + \sum_{j=2}^{J-1} \bar{\delta}_j \bar{K}_j$$

²For similar comparisons in terms of grafted polynomials, see Fuller [1] and Gallant and Fuller [3].

where the parameters α_i ($i=1, \dots, n$) and β_j ($j=1, \dots, m$) represent changes in the output due to a one unit change in the respective inputs. Representation (6) is a form of the production problem in which these changes are of particular interest. For more details see Peltier [12].

In the following sections, whenever (6) is used in a production theory context, it will be called a CDS production function, and when it is used in a utility theory context, it will be called a CDS utility function.

3. CDS Production Functions

Of foremost importance in discussing the theoretical properties of the CDS production function are its isoquants. For a fixed output level Q_0 , the isoquant over rectangle (i,j) is

$$(6) \quad K = \left[\frac{Q_0 L^{-\alpha_i}}{\beta_{ij}} \right]^{1/\epsilon_j}$$

Throughout the labor-capital dimensions the isoquants are continuous, however, they have "corners" along the grid lines. This first result follows from the continuity of the production function, and the latter is a result of the non-differentiability of the production function along the grid lines. The isoquants are strictly convex iff

$$\beta_j \leq \beta_{j+1} \quad j=1, \dots, m-1$$

and

$$\beta_j \leq \beta_{j+1} \quad j=1, 2, \dots, n-$$

In other words, the isoquants are strictly convex iff each output elasticities is a decreasing step function of its respective input.

In terms of the isoquant $q_1(x_1, x_2)$ of rectangle (i, j) , the convexity conditions imply that

$$\alpha_i + \alpha_j \leq \alpha_m + \alpha_n \quad m=1,2,\dots,i; \quad n=1,2,\dots,j$$

and

$$\gamma_1 + \delta_1 \leq \gamma_m + \delta_n \quad m=1,2,\dots,i; \quad n=1,2,\dots,j$$

As shown in Figure 2, this means that $q_1(x_1, x_2)$ exhibits greater returns to scale over all rectangles below and to the left of rectangle (i, j) , and smaller returns to scale over all rectangles above and to the right of rectangle (i, j) . Comparisons to rectangles above and to the left of rectangle (i, j) , and below and to the right of rectangle (i, j) are inconclusive.

It is well known that Cobb-Douglas isoquants give rise to a straight line expansion path since the production function is homothetic. The Cobb-Douglas type production function has straight line expansion path segments over each individual rectangle, however, these paths exhibit unique behavior along the grid lines.

To see this suppose the convexity condition holds and consider the slope of isoquant q_1 in rectangle (i, j) but not along its border.

$$\frac{dx_2}{dx_1} = -\frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2} \frac{x_2}{x_1}$$

The ratio $\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}$ is a function of x_1 and x_2 and is not defined along the borders of rectangle (i, j) since $\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}$ is not well defined there as a result of the jump discontinuities in α_1 and α_2 .

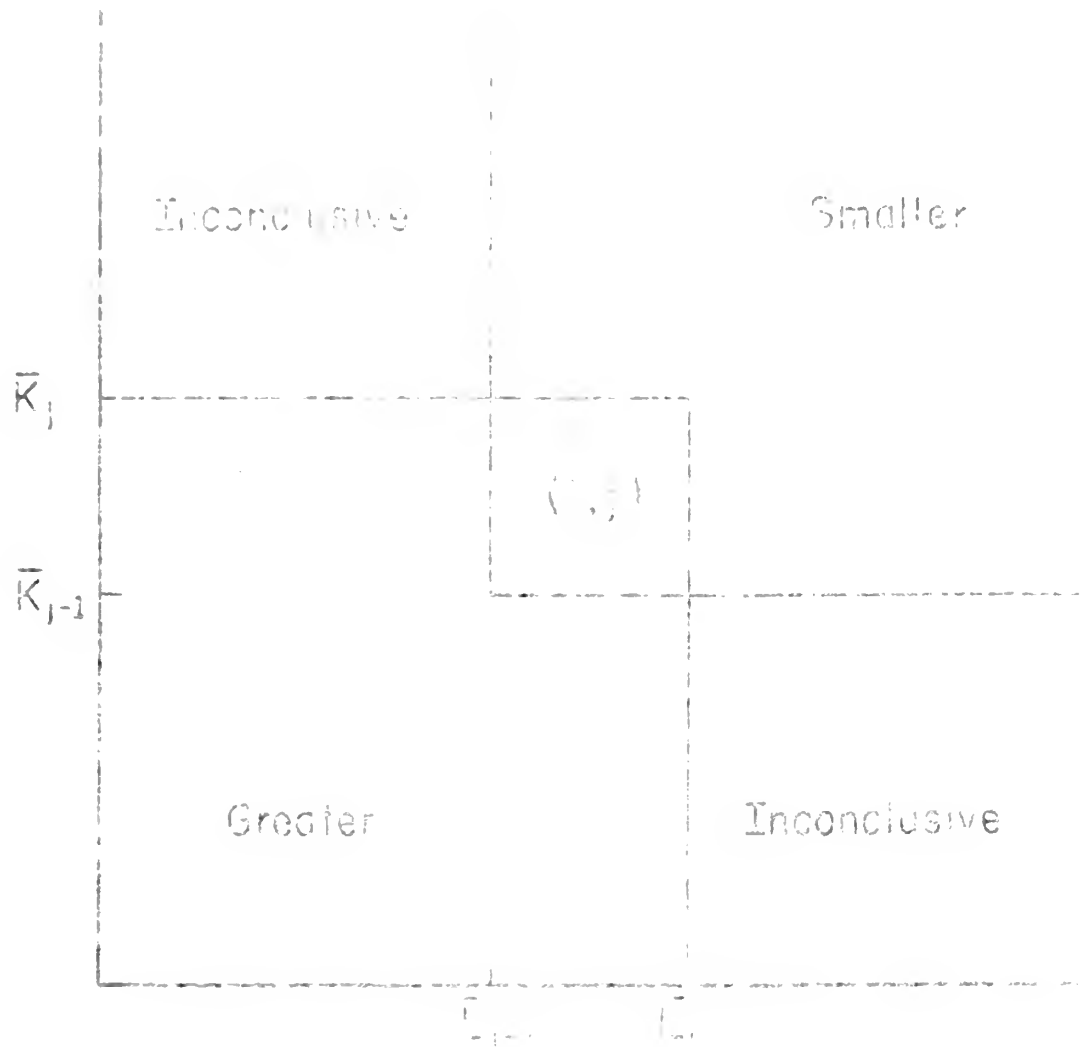


Figure 2: Return to Scale Comparisons.

Considering rectangles (i, j) and (i+1, j), the one-sided derivatives of an isoquant along $L = \bar{L}_1$ are

$$\frac{dK}{dL^+} = \lim_{L \rightarrow \bar{L}_1} \frac{dK}{dL} = \frac{1+\beta}{\beta} \frac{r}{L_1}$$

$$\frac{dK}{dL^-} = \lim_{L \rightarrow \bar{L}_1} \frac{dK}{dL} = \frac{1+\beta}{\beta} \frac{r}{L_2}$$

Letting w denote the price of labor and r the price of capital, then for all price ratios w/r such that

$$(7) \quad \left| \frac{dK}{dL^+} \right| < \left| \frac{w}{r} \right| < \left| \frac{dK}{dL^-} \right|,$$

the first order conditions for the firm's output maximization or cost minimization problem are not satisfied, i.e., the marginal rate of technical substitution does not equal the price ratio. Hence, compensated price changes within the bounds of (7) do not change the optimal input combination for producing a fixed level of output.

Fixing w/r and expanding output, any expansion path in rectangle (i, j) approaching the grid line $L = \bar{L}_1$ does so at a capital level K^* satisfying

$$\frac{dK}{dL^+} = \frac{w}{r} = \frac{dK}{dL^-}$$

or solving for K^* ,

$$(8) \quad K^* = \frac{1+\beta}{\alpha_1} \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{w}{r} \right)$$

Since the output elasticity of labor over rectangle (i+1, j) is less than it is over rectangle (i, j), increases in output beyond $Q(L_1, K^*)$ are met by increasing only the capital input until either the optimum MRS equals the input price ratio or until the output elasticity of capital

drops, i.e., on the line $L = \bar{L}$ (see Fig. 1) and does not exist

$K^{**} = \bar{K}$ and $L = \bar{L}$.

$$\frac{dK}{dt} = \frac{dK}{dL} \frac{dL}{dt}$$

or solving for K^{**} ,

$$K^{**} = \frac{dL}{dK} \frac{dL}{dt}$$

then the expansion path is the curve $L = L(K)$ and $K = K(L)$ is a straight line with a slope $\frac{dK}{dL}$ of the expansion path in relation (1). This is illustrated in Fig. 3(a) for the simple case $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 1$.

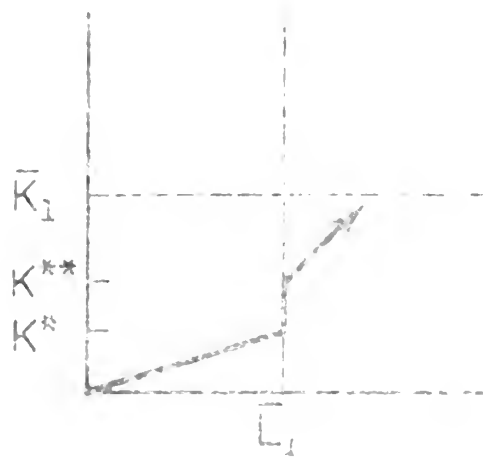
However, if the grid line $L = \bar{L}$ is reached first, then the expansion path for outputs $Q(L, K) = Q(\bar{L}, \bar{K})$ continues along $L = \bar{L}$ iff

$$(9) \quad \lim_{K \rightarrow \bar{K}} \frac{dK}{dL} = \frac{\alpha + 1}{\alpha} \frac{K}{L} > \frac{dL}{dK} = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + 1} \frac{K}{L}$$

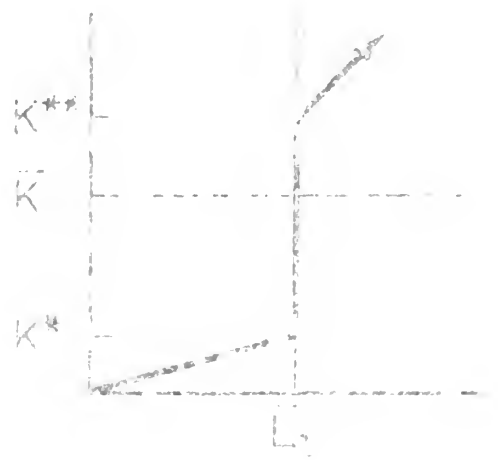
and conversely, if $L = \bar{L}$ is not

$$(10) \quad \lim_{K \rightarrow \bar{K}} \frac{dK}{dL} = \frac{\alpha + 1}{\alpha} \frac{K}{L} < \frac{dL}{dK} = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + 1} \frac{K}{L}$$

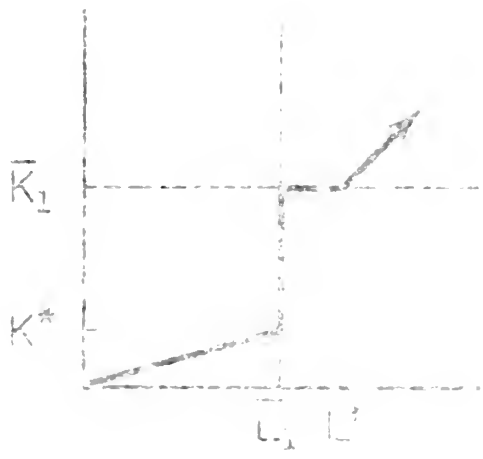
either the expansion path continues along $L = \bar{L}$ or it either terminates at $K = \bar{K}$ or $L = \bar{L}$ and $K = \bar{K}$ is reached. The more procedure is quite similar to the first case. This is illustrated in Fig. 3(b).



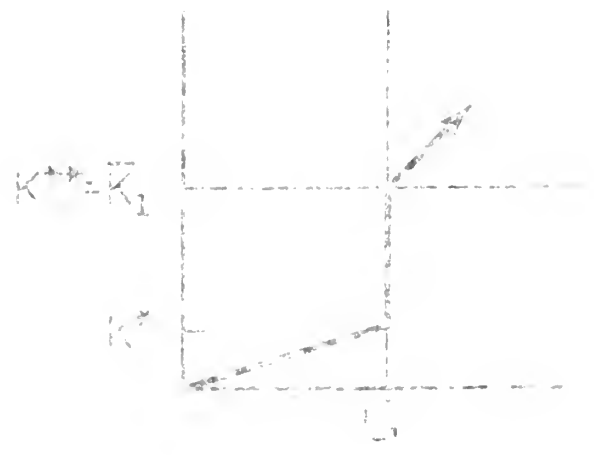
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 3 Expansion Paths

either the left-hand side of (1) is a constant or it is a function of λ . In the first case, L^* is a constant and the right-hand side of (1) is a function of λ . In the second case, L^* is a function of λ and the right-hand side of (1) is a constant. The following theorem illustrates the first case.

Theorem 1. Let L^* be a constant and let $f(\lambda)$ be a function of λ . Then the following conditions are necessary and sufficient for the existence of a function $g(\lambda)$ such that $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ .

(1)
$$\frac{f(\lambda)}{L^*} = \frac{f(\lambda)}{L^*} \cdot \frac{L^*}{L^*}$$

If (1) holds, then the expansion given in red angle (1.3) of a function $f(\lambda)$ is a function of λ and can be written as $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ where $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ .

The following theorem is associated with a function $f(\lambda)$ and a function $g(\lambda)$. It states that if $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ , then $f(\lambda)$ is a function of λ and can be written as $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ where $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ .

(2)
$$\frac{f(\lambda)}{L^*} = \frac{f(\lambda)}{L^*} \cdot \frac{L^*}{L^*}$$

If (2) holds, then the expansion given in red angle (1.3) of a function $f(\lambda)$ is a function of λ and can be written as $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ where $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ .

The following theorem is associated with a function $f(\lambda)$ and a function $g(\lambda)$. It states that if $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ , then $f(\lambda)$ is a function of λ and can be written as $f(\lambda) = L^* g(\lambda)$ where $g(\lambda)$ is a function of λ .

and if it is produced in a rectangle with dimensions Q_1 and Q_2 then the cost function is

$$(14) \quad C = w \left[\frac{Q_1}{a} + \frac{Q_2}{b} \right] = c \bar{K}_1$$

In the case of a Cobb-Douglas production function (13) the cost function is as $Q = Q(C, \bar{K}_1)$, (C^2, \bar{K}_1) and $Q(C, \bar{K}_1)$ is a continuous function of C and \bar{K}_1 is continuous.

The average cost function associated with (12) - (14) is obtained by dividing each equation by $Q(C, \bar{K}_1)$. With regard to (12), the average cost function is increasing, constant, or decreasing, depending on whether Q is produced in a rectangle with decreasing, constant, or increasing returns to scale. Since the cost function is continuous, so is the average cost function.

The marginal cost function associated with (12) - (14) is obtained by differentiating each equation with respect to C . At output levels corresponding to 'kinks' in the expansion path marginal cost is not defined since the left and right hand derivatives are not in general equal. Of course with regard to (12) the marginal cost schedule is of the conventional type for a Cobb-Douglas production function.

4. CDS Utility Functions

Not surprisingly, if the production function is a Cobb-Douglas utility function as well as a production function, then the expansion path is a straight line function

$$C / \bar{K}_1 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{a_1}{a_2} \left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}} \left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}} \\ \frac{a_1}{a_2} \left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}} \left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}} \end{array} \right\}$$

where \bar{Y} is the average of Y over the whole population, \bar{Y}_1 is the average of Y over the population with $X = 1$, and \bar{Y}_0 is the average of Y over the population with $X = 0$. The regression coefficient b is defined as the slope of the line of best fit, and is given by the formula $b = \frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}$. The intercept a is the value of Y when $X = 0$, and is given by the formula $a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}$. The regression line is then given by $Y = a + bX$. The regression coefficient b is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between X and Y . The regression line is a line of best fit, and is the line that minimizes the sum of the squares of the residuals. The regression coefficient b is a measure of the slope of the regression line, and is a measure of the change in Y for a unit change in X . The regression line is a line of best fit, and is the line that minimizes the sum of the squares of the residuals. The regression coefficient b is a measure of the slope of the regression line, and is a measure of the change in Y for a unit change in X .

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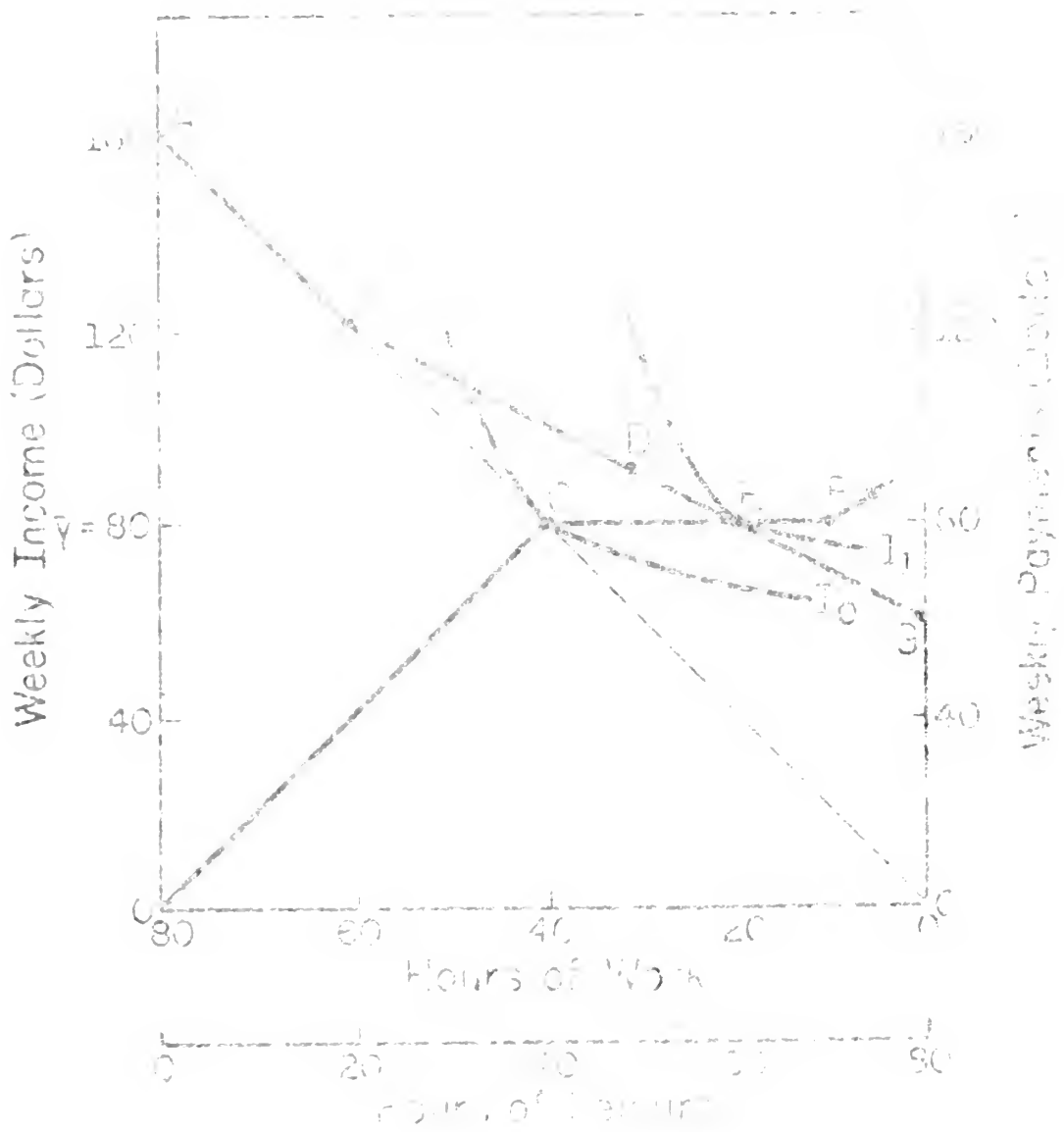


Figure 4 Response to a Negative Income Tax

where $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right)$ and $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right)$ is the elasticity of labor supply with respect to the real wage. In equilibrium, $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$. In equilibrium, $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$ reaches $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$ derivative $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$.

$$\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$$

He then proceeds along an expansion path until he reaches the budget constraint. At this point, he must then stop at a point on indifference curve I_1 which corresponds to no change in income with the net effect of the negative income tax (maintained in a reduced labor force, a reduction in labor supply).

Conversely, the explanation is as follows. The reduction of the effective wage is a result of the tax system that the original laborer, relatively speaking, is poorer. However, he would not be more able to pay more, the larger rate of tax is τ , so that $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$ that the effect of the tax is to reduce the labor force. However, the net effect is a reduction in labor supply. The reduction of the effective wage is a result of the tax system that the original laborer, relatively speaking, is poorer. However, he would not be more able to pay more, the larger rate of tax is τ , so that $\frac{dL}{d\tau} = \frac{L}{\tau} \left(\frac{d\tau}{\tau} \right) = \frac{dL}{d\tau} \frac{\tau}{L}$ that the effect of the tax is to reduce the labor force. However, the net effect is a reduction in labor supply.

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4. Efficient Allocation

Following the lead of the literature on public utility, we have assumed that the best way to provide a public utility is to have a single firm that utilizes other outputs of the economy. In this paper, we have shown that this study was not a realistic one. In fact, we have shown that the production function of the utility firm is not necessarily concave in the inputs. In fact, another equilibrium exists in which the utility firm produces the returns to scale. We have shown that this is not a realistic one.

In light of the above developments, we have suggested that the question of whether there exists a utility firm is a question of the output of electricity. We have shown that the utility firm is not necessarily a relevant range of output. We have shown that the utility firm is not necessarily in terms of utility schedules and investment policies. In fact, we have shown in order to have fixed the returns to scale, we have suggested that public utility firms can be well served by having a single firm that produces exogenous, and we have shown that the utility firm is not necessarily a Cobb-Douglas production function. The utility firm is not necessarily a source of utility.

The utility firm is not necessarily a source of utility. The utility firm is not necessarily a source of utility.

15. References

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where C_{11} is the capital input and C_{12} is the labor input. The capital input is expressed in terms of the conventional units of the production process. Unlike Nerlove it will be assumed that the output of the production process is $F = \bar{F}_1$, or $C_1 F_1 = \bar{F}_1$. The output of the production process, $\bar{F}_1 = 6173.4$ (millions of Btu's), is admittedly somewhat arbitrary, but, in more elaborate applications the choice of \bar{F}_1 for that fact, labor and capital knots, will reflect technological considerations of the production process. The choice here is no more arbitrary than the five great breakdown used by Nerlove and it corresponds to approximately the 3rd percentile of the firms' fuel input level.⁵

Following Nerlove [9, pp. 171-175] it can be shown that cost minimization subject to (15) and exogenous output and input prices implies the cost function

$$(16) \quad \ln C = \alpha_F \ln F + \frac{\alpha_L}{w_L} \ln w_L + \frac{\alpha_K}{w_K} (1 - \alpha_L - \ln P_F) + \frac{\alpha_E}{w_E} (2\alpha_L I_K + \ln w_L) - \frac{\alpha_L}{w_L} \ln C$$

where $w_L = w + v + f$ is the wage rate, w_K is the rental rate, P_F is the price of fuel, I_K is the capital input, and

$$\alpha_F = \frac{1}{\alpha_L + \alpha_K + \alpha_E} \left(\alpha_L + \alpha_K + \alpha_E \right)$$

Proceeding as in Nerlove's paper, it can be shown that, for a given set of firms, (16) implies

⁵ While I agree with the general idea of using the output of the production process as a way to estimate the input-output relationships, the choice of the output level is somewhat arbitrary. The choice of the output level is somewhat arbitrary, but, in more elaborate applications the choice of \bar{F}_1 for that fact, labor and capital knots, will reflect technological considerations of the production process. The choice here is no more arbitrary than the five great breakdown used by Nerlove and it corresponds to approximately the 3rd percentile of the firms' fuel input level.⁵

(C-1)
 Coefficient Estimates for the Regression

Coefficient	Estimated	Standard Error
α	.4842*	.2553
β_1	.5905**	.1240
β_2	.5591**	.1244
η	.01574	.0394
σ^2	.1823	.3498

"*" denotes significance at the 5% level.

"**" denotes significance at the 1% level.

$$(17) \quad w_1 \ln C = \beta_1 + \ln k + \alpha \ln P_1 + \gamma \ln P_F - \ln \epsilon$$

where $\beta_1 = w_1 \delta_1 + \gamma \ln P_2$. Note that 1st order for the disturbance term in (17) to be homoscedastic when returns to scale vary (i.e., $\delta_1 \neq \delta_2$), (16) was first multiplied through by w_1 .

Under the assumption that the residuals in (17) are independent, homoscedastic, and normally distributed, the likelihood function corresponding to (17) can be maximized subject to the continuity constraint $\ln \theta_2 = \ln \theta_1 + (\delta_1 - \delta_2) \ln \bar{P}_1$. The resulting maximum likelihood estimators $\hat{\alpha}$, $\hat{\delta}_1$, $\hat{\delta}_2$, $\hat{\eta}$, and $\hat{\beta}_1$ will asymptotically be consistent, normally distributed, and efficient. Since the likelihood function is nonlinear in these parameters, it is necessary to employ a technique such as Marquardt's method of steepest descent to obtain the maximum.

The actual maximum likelihood estimators (together with their standard errors) are given in Table 1. The results are similar to those of Nerlove: the output elasticities of labor and fuel highly significant, and the output elasticity of capital is insignificant (as it often was in Nerlove's study). Of course the result of principal concern is the estimated change $\hat{\delta}_1 - \hat{\delta}_2 = .03140$ in the output elasticity of fuel at \bar{P}_1 . The asymptotically normal test statistic for testing the significance of this change is

$$\frac{\hat{\delta}_1 - \hat{\delta}_2}{\left[\text{Est. Var}(\hat{\delta}_1) + \text{Est. Var}(\hat{\delta}_2) - 2 \text{Est. Cov}(\hat{\delta}_1, \hat{\delta}_2) \right]^{1/2}} = 3.112$$

which is highly significant. Thus, while there are increasing returns to scale everywhere, they appear to undergo a significant drop along \bar{P}_1 .

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