

The Expenditure System of CDES Indirect Utility Functions

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1. Introduction

In production and consumer theory, the common origin of the many applied specifications of production function and utility function are undoubtedly the CD (1928) and CES (1961) forms. A major shortcoming of the CD and CES utility functions is that these preferences are homothetic, implying **unitary income elasticities** so that *Engel curves* are straight lines through the origin. Moreover, the *budget shares* are always constant with CD; but they do change with price variation for CES preferences.

Tinbergen (1942) in an article, that never received a proper attention due to the Second World War, proposed to generalize the CD production function by introducing positive *minimum amounts* of capital and labor: “This function implies that capital and labour may replace each other completely: in principle one unit of product may be made with as little capital or labour as one likes, if only enough of the other factor is used. It seems more probable, however, that there is a certain limit below which no possibility of substitution exists. Graphically this would mean that the production curve in the (L,K) diagram... does not approach the axes.... This type of function was mentioned also by Kaldor.” (Tinbergen, 1942, pp. 45-46; Kaldor, 1936-1937, p.162).

Shortly after the war this idea has been introduced in the theory of consumption in a series of articles: Klein and Rubin (1948-1949), Samuelson (1948) and Stone (1954). This function is known as the Stone-Geary utility function and the ensuing demand model as the **Linear Expenditure System (LES)**. In case of the LES function the *marginal budget shares* are constant; the income elasticities are not unitary, but the Engel curves are still straight lines, though not through the origin.

In the early fifties of the last century this shortcoming of the LES function was recognized at Statistics Netherlands by Somermeyer and Wit who wanted to compare the income elasticities in the Netherlands in the pre-war period based on the last pre-war budget survey (1935/1936) with those of the post-war period for which the first budget survey was conducted in 1951 (Wit, 1957). In this period of shortage of data, one had to rely upon simplifying assumptions in order to be able to (gu)estimate the values of these elasticities. Somermeyer and Wit (1956) introduced a budget allocation model that has the same data

requirements as the LES function, but that does not have the limitation of constancy of marginal budget shares. It has been discovered later that this model had already been introduced by Leser (1941); a fact of which Somermeyer and Wit were unaware of.

They published their results in Dutch so that this model was not known in the outside world and a fellow country man, Houthakker (1960), who was unaware of the Leser (1941) and Somermeyer-Wit (1956) contribution, (re)discovered this model departing from an **implicitly indirectly additive** utility function. It is due to Houthakker that this model is named “**indirect addilog model**”. After Houthakker’s discovery, Wit (1960) published the English translation of the path breaking 1956 and 1957 articles.

As time went on, more and more data became available and the indirect addilog model was abandoned in favor of more general models, like the **Almost Ideal Demand System**, introduced by Deaton and Muellbauer (1980). A drawback of this model is that the fitted budget shares do not necessarily lie in the unit interval and that negativity can not be imposed.

In section 3 we pay attention to the *range* of **income elasticities** and the *shapes* of the *Engel curves* implied by a parametric extension of the indirect addilog model - the **CDES Indirect Utility** function - and show that it is “well behaved”. In section 4 we deal with the price and substitution elasticities and show that the *differences* of the cross *elasticities of substitution* are *constant* (CDES). It is a simple and natural parametric extension CES preferences. Finally, section 6 offer an empirical estimation of the CDES *preference (reaction) parameters*, based on Danish family budget surveys. The data allow calculation of the income elasticities for a classification of 41 household goods and services.

2. The CDES Expenditure System

We assume that a consumer desires to attain at least a utility level of U and that the consumer minimizes the cost for this purpose. Let C denote the minimum cost of attaining utility level U , and let Y_i denote the quantity that a consumer demands from commodity i ($1, \dots, n$) and P_i the corresponding price :

$$C = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i Y_i \quad (1)$$

Usually, the *indirect utility* function of the *addilog expenditure system* is given by

$$V^*(P, C) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* (C/P_i)^{\beta_i} \quad (2)$$

with the *standard parameter* restrictions, (cf. Deaton and Muellbauer (1980, p. 84), Chung (1991), p.42), Silberberg & Suen (2001, p. 360), Jensen and Larsen (2005), 36):

$$\alpha_i^* > 0, \quad \beta_i > 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* = 1 \quad (3)$$

The demand equations are obtained using Roy's identity, i.e.:

$$Y_i = -\frac{\partial V^*(P, C)/\partial P_i}{\partial V^*(P, C)/\partial C} \quad (4)$$

to yield the demand equations Y_i and the expenditure (budget) shares e_i :

$$Y_i = \frac{\alpha_i^* \beta_i (C/P_i)^{\beta_i - 1}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j^* \beta_j (C/P_j)^{\beta_j}} \quad ; \quad e_i = \frac{\alpha_i^* \beta_i (C/P_i)^{\beta_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j^* \beta_j (C/P_j)^{\beta_j}} \quad ; \quad (5)$$

From a mathematical point of view it is more convenient use to rewrite (2) in the form of the Box-Cox transformation - or alternative to that end, we may first *subtract* from (2) the *constant*: $\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^*$, and secondly, use the *reparameterization*:

$$\alpha_i = \alpha_i^* \beta_i \quad (6)$$

to obtain the more generalized parametric form of the indirect utility:

$$V(P, C) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \frac{(C/P_i)^{\beta_i} - 1}{\beta_i} \quad (7)$$

where we impose the *normalization* restriction:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i = 1 \quad (8)$$

As explained below, specification (7-8) is called the **CDES Indirect Utility** function. For technical details on the Box-Cox transformation, we refer to Appendix. Alternatively in (3), the normalization restriction:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^* \beta_i = 1 \quad (9)$$

could have been adopted as well, which, in view of (6) corresponds to (8).

Derivation of the indirect utility function (7) with respect to C gives:

$$\frac{\partial V(P, C)}{\partial C} = \sum_i \alpha_i P_i^{-\beta_i} C^{\beta_i - 1} = \sum_i \alpha_i (C/P_i)^{\beta_i} C^{-1} \quad (10)$$

which is only increasing in C for **all** $P_i > 0$, if

$$\alpha_i > 0 \quad (11)$$

Secondly, we obtain from (7) that under (11):

$$\frac{\partial V(P, C)}{\partial P_i} = -\alpha_i P_i^{-\beta_i - 1} C^{\beta_i} < 0 \quad (12)$$

i.e. the CDES indirect utility function is decreasing in prices, as it should be.

Next from (12), we derive:

$$\frac{\partial^2 V(P, C)}{\partial P_i \partial P_j} = \begin{cases} \beta_i + 1) \alpha_i P_i^{-\beta_i - 2} C^{\beta_i} & \text{for } i = j \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

Hence the indirect utility function (7) is strictly convex, and consequently strictly quasi-convex, only if

$$\beta_i > -1 \quad (14)$$

Van Daal (1983) has shown that the indirect utility function (7) is strictly quasi-convex, if and only if,

$$\alpha_i > 0, \quad \beta_i \geq -1 \quad (15)$$

where the last equality sign may apply for *at most* one value of i .

Consequently, under the parameter restrictions (13), the dual *direct* utility function is strictly quasi concave; thus the maximization of the dual direct utility function underlying the CDES indirect utility function indeed gives rise to a maximum. The underlying dual direct utility function, however, does not have an analytical form.

Proposition. *The generalization of the indirect addilog utility function from (2) to the CDES indirect utility function (7) is that β_i is also allowed to be negative, precisely : $\beta_i \in (-1, 0)$.*

Application of Roy's identity to CDES, (7), gives the demand functions :

$$Y_i = - \frac{\partial V(P, C) / \partial P_i}{\partial V(P, C) / \partial C} = \frac{\alpha_i (C/P_i)^{\beta_i - 1}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j (C/P_j)^{\beta_j}} \quad (16)$$

Hence pre-multiplication with P_i/C , gives the expenditure (budget) shares :

$$e_i = \frac{\alpha_i (C/P_i)^{\beta_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j (C/P_j)^{\beta_j}} \quad , \quad \sum_{i=1}^N e_i = 1 \quad (17)$$

It follows from the positive α_i in (15), that every budget share, (e_i) , (17), is bounded from below by zero, and together with (8) that every share, (e_i) , is also bounded from above by one.

From (16) we obtain after some manipulations

$$\frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial C} = (1 + \beta_i - \bar{\beta})(Y_i/C) \quad ; \quad \bar{\beta} = \sum_{j=1}^N e_j \beta_j \quad (18)$$

and:

$$\frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial P_j} = \beta_j Y_i Y_j C^{-1} - (1 + \beta_i) P_i^{-1} Y_i \delta_{ij} \quad (19)$$

where the Kronecker delta

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i = j \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

Consequently, using (18) and (19), the typical element S_{ij} of the Slutsky matrix:

$$S_{ij} = \frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial P_j} + \frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial C} Y_j = (1 + \beta_i + \beta_j - \bar{\beta}) Y_i Y_j C^{-1} = S_{ji}, \quad i \neq j. \quad (21)$$

Consequently, the Slutsky matrix is *symmetric*, as it should be.

In view of (16), the *off-diagonal* elements of the Slutsky matrix may be *negative, zero or positive*; thus, the demand system generated by the CDES indirect utility function allows for *complementarity, indifference* and *substitutability* between commodities. Since we permit, β_i , to be in the interval: $(-1,0)$, we do allow for complementarity. With the restriction, $\beta_i > 0$, only substitutability was allowed for. Finally, Van Driel (1974) has shown that the Slutsky matrix is *negative semi-definite with rank (n-1)*, if and only if (13) holds true.

The parameters α_i - with indeterminate level - may be interpreted as “*preference coefficients*”, and the parameters β_i as “*reaction parameters*”; the lower the value of β_i (i.e. the closer it is to -1), the more “*urgent*” the consumption of i may be considered to be, at least at lower income levels, For the general discussion of the parameters, we refer to Somermeyer and Langhout (1972).

3. Income elasticities and the shapes of Engel curves

Income elasticities

First we summarize the findings of Somermeyer and Langhout (1972). For ease of exposition we order the commodities such that:

$$\beta_1 = \min_j \beta_j \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_n = \max_j \beta_j \quad (22)$$

so that it follows from (18) that:

$$\beta_1 \leq \bar{\beta} \leq \beta_n \quad (23)$$

It is easily derived from (18) that the income elasticities are equal to:

$$E(Y_i, C) = 1 + \beta_i - \bar{\beta} = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^N (\beta_i - \beta_j) e_j \quad (24)$$

In view of (16) and (24), the income elasticities are lower-bounded as well as upper-bounded:

$$-\beta_n < 1 + \beta_i - \beta_n \leq E(Y_i, C) \leq 1 + \beta_i - \beta_1 \quad (25)$$

They are approaching their lower and upper limits according as C tends to infinity and to zero respectively. In view of (13) the lower bound is at most one, while the upper bound is at least equal to one. The lower bound is zero or negative, allowing for *inferior* commodities if:

$$\beta_i \leq \beta_n - 1 \quad (26)$$

Because we allow β_i to be in the interval $(-1,0)$, we allow for the existence of inferior commodities; a possibility that was excluded by the restriction: $\beta_i > 0$. It follows from (24) that commodity i is *necessary*, when $\beta_i < \bar{\beta}$ and *luxury*, when $\beta_i > \bar{\beta}$.

Engel curves

Let $C_i = P_i Y_i$ denote the *expenditure* on commodity i ; using the demand functions, (16), it is analogously proven by Somermeyer and Langhout (1972) that:

$$C_i = P_i Y_i; \quad \lim_{C \rightarrow 0} C_i = P_i \lim_{C \rightarrow 0} Y_i = 0 \quad (27)$$

and

$$\lim_{C \rightarrow \infty} C_i = P_i \lim_{C \rightarrow \infty} Y_i = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } \beta_i > \beta_n - 1 \\ \text{finite} & \text{if } \beta_i = \beta_n - 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } \beta_i < \beta_n - 1 \end{cases} \quad (28)$$

It follows from (25) that the criterion $\beta_n - 1$ also rules the sign of the lower bound of the income elasticity. Equation (27) means that the Engel curve arises from the origin; while equations (28) imply the possibility of three main types of Engel curves, viz.:

- (1) unlimited monotonic increase
- (2) monotonic increase to a maximum (saturation) level, and
- (3) decrease towards zero after having reached a maximum level.

It should be noted that types (2) and (3) cannot occur if $\beta_n < 0$. In practice, however, this case is not likely to occur, since this implies that all budget items are of a fairly urgent nature. For more details, as well as an application to the Netherlands, we refer to Somermeyer and Langhout (1972).

4. Price and substitution elasticities

Marshallian price elasticities

From (19) we derive that the own price elasticities to be:

$$E(Y_i, P_i) = \beta_i(e_i - 1) - 1 < 0 \quad (29)$$

so that Giffen goods are excluded. The cross price elasticities are:

$$E(Y_i, P_j) = \beta_j e_j \quad (30)$$

which means that all cross elasticities of a particular price, P_j , are the same.

The price response implied by (30) is the following. If the price increase of P_j refers to a necessary commodity, i.e. β_j negative and rather close to minus one, then the expenditure on all other commodities will *decrease* with a given percentage $\beta_j e_j$. If the price increase of P_j refers to a luxury commodity, i.e. β_j positive, and of considerable magnitude, then all other expenditures will *increase* with $\beta_j e_j$. It follows that luxuries are price elastic and necessities inelastic. Thus both positive and negative cross price effects are distributed neutrally over all other commodities. In many circumstances such proportional effects do not seem to be an unreasonable price response.

Slutsky elasticities

The Slutsky (compensated) elasticities easily follow from (24), (26) and (29) as:

$$E_S(Y_i, P_i) = E(Y_i, P_i) + e_i E(Y_i, C) = (1 + 2\beta_i - \bar{\beta})e_i - (1 + \beta_i) < 0 \quad (31)$$

$$E_S(Y_i, P_j) = E(Y_i, P_j) + e_j E(Y_j, C) = (1 + \beta_i + \beta_j - \bar{\beta})e_i = \begin{cases} < 0 \\ > 0 \end{cases} \quad (32)$$

Allen elasticities of substitution

Having derived the income and price elasticities, the Allen partial elasticities of *substitution*, (σ_{ij}) , easily follow from the well-known relationship:

$$E(Y_i, P_j) = [\sigma_{ij} - E(Y_i, C)]e_j \quad (33)$$

Using (24), (26) and (29), the own elasticities become:

$$\sigma_{ii} = -(1 + \beta_i)/e_i + (1 - \bar{\beta}) \quad (34)$$

and similarly, the cross-elasticities of substitution, (σ_{ij}) become :

$$\sigma_{ij} = \beta_i + \beta_j + (1 - \bar{\beta}) \quad (35)$$

The property that the *differences* of the cross-elasticities of *substitution* are *constant* - CDES, (7) - follows directly from (35)(35):

$$\sigma_{ij} - \sigma_{ik} = \beta_j - \beta_k \quad (36)$$

It should be noted that Chung (1994, p.44, (3.71)) incorrectly states that the differences, (36), are equal to zero. He seems to use the indirect utility function in the definition of the Allen partial elasticity of substitution instead of the expenditure/cost function.

5. Empirical values of CDES reaction parameters

We briefly report estimated parameters - (β_i) - of the CDES indirect utility function, (7).

Table 1: Classification of Household Goods and Services

Food and Beverages

1. Bread (cereals)
2. Butter
3. Margarine (other fats and oil)
4. Sugar (chocolate)
5. Milk (cream and yoghurt)
6. Cheese (curd)
7. Other foods
8. Vegetables (fruits)
9. Meat
10. Fish
11. Coffee (tea and cocoa)
12. Soft drinks (mineral water)
13. Beer
14. Wine and spirits
15. Tobacco

Clothing and footwear

16. Clothing
17. Footwear

Household operations

18. Glassware (tableware)
19. Household textiles (other furnishings)
20. Household machines

21. Furniture
22. Non-durable household goods
23. Household services
24. Radio and television
25. Services n.e.c.

Medical care and health

26. Medical and pharmaceutical products
27. Medical services
28. Personal care

Leisure

29. Jewellery
30. Leisure equipment
31. Entertainment
32. Restaurant (hotels)
33. Books and papers (magazines)

Housing

34. Fuel (gas, liquid fuels)
35. Electricity
36. Gross rents

Transport and communication

37. Gasoline
38. Repairs (transport)
39. Other transport (expenditures)
40. Purchased transport
41. Communication
42. Personal transport equipment

Table 2: Ranking of "Reaction Parameters"

Families with children under 7 years			Families without children, (wife over 45 years)		
Rank	Commodity Class	$\beta_i - \beta_2$	Rank	Commodity Class	$\beta_i - \beta_2$
1	Fuel	-0.33348	1	Margarine	-0.56234
2	Bread	-0.29404	2	Fuel	-0.48517
3	Margarine	-0.25465	3	Electricity	-0.42657
4	Sugar	-0.24830	4	Bread	-0.39438
5	Coffee	-0.21253	5	Coffee	-0.33723
6	Tobacco	-0.20813	6	Services n.e.c.	-0.25552
7	Milk	-0.12385	7	Tobacco	-0.24924
8	Electricity	-0.01895	8	Soft drinks	-0.23892
9	Radio, tv	0.01635	9	Jewellery	-0.18789
10	Medical products	0.04118	10	Meat	-0.18665
11	Other non-durable goods	0.09349	11	Medical products	-0.10276
12	Cheese	0.09450	12	Other non-durable goods	-0.09355
13	Household textiles	0.10560	13	Household machines	-0.07920
14	Vegetables	0.11840	14	Milk	-0.05749
15	Meat	0.12885	15	Medical services	-0.04911
16	Household machines	0.15462	16	Beer	-0.04888
17	Glassware	0.20301	17	Books and papers	-0.02345
18	Fish	0.23152	18	Fish	-0.00829
19	Soft drinks	0.27881	19	Cheese	0.03200
20	Leisure equipment	0.34423	20	Entertainment	0.06120
21	Beer	0.34631	21	Household textiles	0.07244
22	Entertainment	0.37195	22	Personal care	0.08888
23	Repairs	0.37212	23	Furniture	0.09684
24	Clothing	0.38976	24	Sugar	0.09990
25	Gasoline	0.42036	25	Repairs	0.12164
26	Footwear	0.43999	26	Vegetables	0.12429
27	Jewellery	0.54508	27	Glassware	0.13912
28	Medical services	0.58257	28	Gross rents	0.17936
29	Wine and spirits	0.58607	29	Footwear	0.24733
30	Personal care	0.60113	30	Other transport	0.29736
31	Other foods	0.64302	31	Purchased transport	0.34186
32	Other transport	0.66149	32	Clothing	0.37099
33	Books and papers	0.68632	33	Radio and television	0.39254
34	Gross rents	0.71112	34	Gasoline	0.42218
35	Restaurant	0.74708	35	Other foods	0.45335
36	Household services	0.78325	36	Wine and spirits	0.64572
37	Services n.e.c.	0.86186	37	Leisure equipment	0.69500
38	Purchased transport	0.91800	38	Household services	0.70973
39	Furniture	1.04451	39	Communication	0.89911
40	Communication	1.33410	40	Restaurant	1.02420
41	Transport equipment	1.78225	41	Transport equipment	1.32967

Table 3: Estimates of Expenditure (Income) Elasticities of Goods and Services : $E(Y_i, C) = E(P_i Y_i, C)$

Families with children under 7 years			Families without children, (wife over 45 years)		
Rank	Commodity Class	$E(Y_i, C)$	Rank	Commodity Class	$E(Y_i, C)$
1	Fuel	0.18039	1	Margarine	0.24691
2	Bread	0.21982	2	Fuel	0.32408
3	Margarine	0.25921	3	Electricity	0.38268
4	Sugar	0.26556	4	Bread	0.41487
5	Coffee	0.30133	5	Coffee	0.47202
6	Tobacco	0.30573	6	Services n.e.c.	0.55373
7	Milk	0.39001	7	Tobacco	0.56001
8	Electricity	0.49491	8	Soft drinks	0.57033
9	Radio, tv	0.53021	9	Jewellery	0.62136
10	Medical products	0.55504	10	Meat	0.62260
11	Other non-durable goods	0.60735	11	Medical products	0.70649
12	Cheese	0.60836	12	Other non-durable goods	0.71570
13	Household textiles	0.61946	13	Household machines	0.73681
14	Vegetables	0.63226	14	Milk	0.75176
15	Meat	0.64271	15	Medical services	0.76014
16	Household machines	0.66848	16	Beer	0.76037
17	Glassware	0.71687	17	Books and papers	0.78580
18	Fish	0.74538	18	Fish	0.80096
19	Soft drinks	0.79267	19	Cheese	0.84125
20	Leisure equipment	0.85809	20	Entertainment	0.87045
21	Beer	0.86017	21	Household textiles	0.88169
22	Entertainment	0.88581	22	Personal care	0.89813
23	Repairs	0.88598	23	Furniture	0.90609
24	Clothing	0.90362	24	Sugar	0.90915
25	Gasoline	0.93422	25	Repairs	0.93089
26	Footwear	0.95385	26	Vegetables	0.93354
27	Jewellery	1.05894	27	Glassware	0.94837
28	Medical services	1.09643	28	Gross rents	0.98861
29	Wine and spirits	1.09993	29	Footwear	1.05658
30	Personal care	1.11499	30	Other transport	1.10661
31	Other foods	1.15688	31	Purchased transport	1.15111
32	Other transport	1.17535	32	Clothing	1.18024
33	Books and papers	1.20018	33	Radio and television	1.20179
34	Gross rents	1.22498	34	Gasoline	1.23143
35	Restaurant	1.26094	35	Other foods	1.26260
36	Household services	1.29711	36	Wine and spirits	1.45497
37	Services n.e.c.	1.37572	37	Leisure equipment	1.50425
38	Purchased transport	1.43186	38	Household services	1.51898
39	Furniture	1.55837	39	Communication	1.70836
40	Communication	1.84796	40	Restaurant	1.83345
41	Transport equipment	2.29611	41	Transport equipment	2.13892

Appendix. The Box-Cox transformation of a variable

In mathematics the Box-Cox transformation of a variable x is defined as:

$$x(\lambda) = \frac{x^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} \quad (37)$$

If $\lambda = 1$, then (apart from the constant -1) the variable is linear.

If $\lambda \rightarrow 0$, then the limit of the numerator, as well as the limit of the denominator are equal to zero, so that we apply de l'Hôpital's rule. We first take the derivative of numerator and denominator with respect to λ , and take the limit again:

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^\lambda \log(x)}{1} = \log(x) \quad (38)$$

where \log denotes the natural logarithm.

In econometrics the Box-Cox transformation of a variable is used when one wishes to estimate a model and one is not sure whether the variable x should be included as such or whether its logarithm should be used. The model is estimated in the form of the Box-Cox transformation and it is tested whether the parameter of a certain variable x is equal to one, corresponding to the inclusion of the variable as such, or equal to zero, in which case the logarithm of the variable should be used. See Heij et. al. (2005, pp. 297-301) for more details.

In the context of economic theory the Box-Cox transformation can advantageously be used in the definition of the indirect utility function of the generalized addilog expenditure system:

$$V(P, C) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \frac{(C/P_i)^{\beta_i} - 1}{\beta_i} \quad (39)$$

If $\beta_i = 0$, then the term, $\frac{(C/P_i)^{\beta_i} - 1}{\beta_i}$, has to be replaced by : $\log(C/P_i)$. In practice, when the model is econometrically estimated, the event that the estimated coefficient is zero is not impossible, but occurs with probability zero. That is the reason why we do not treat this case in the main text.

In the main text the result of Van Driel (1974) and of Van Daal (1982) that at most one β_i is allowed to be minus one is mentioned. It means that for that particular commodity the corresponding term in the indirect utility function should be replaced by : $(C/P_i)^{-1}$. In practice this special case is again not impossible, but the probability of occurrence is zero again.

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