

University of Ottawa  
Economics Department  
Supervisor: Prof. Marc Lavoie

Major Paper

**Effect of the Rate of Interest and Productivity Growth on the  
Output Growth**

by Sergey Anglinov

August 2004

# Effect of the Rate of Interest and Productivity Growth on the Output Growth

## ABSTRACT

This paper studies the effect of the real rate of interest and productivity growth on output growth. It contrasts the views of mainstream economists and post-Keynesian economists on the problem. A survey of literature related to these two schools of thought is provided. A concept of the fair (natural) rate of interest is discussed as well as its relationship with productivity growth. The notion of total productivity growth, which arises from growth accounting as a residual, has serious flaws because of questionable theoretical foundations of aggregate production functions. It is demonstrated that the real rate of interest does have impact on income distribution. The size of this impact depends on the relationship between the real rate of interest and productivity growth. The higher real rate of interest, as compared to productivity growth, causes income distribution to shift in favour of the holders of interest-bearing securities [rentiers], the value of which depends on the interest rate. The measure  $(r - g)$ , where  $r$ =real interest rate and  $g$ =total productivity growth, was used to characterise the impact of the real interest rate—productivity growth nexus on income distribution and output growth. The empirical study conducted in this paper on the sample of seven countries showed what appears to be a consistent evidence of negative relationship between the differential of the real interest rate and growth productivity, on the one hand, and GDP growth, on the other.

This paper considers some concepts as they are being treated in post-classical economics. In particular, it analyzed what is the “fair” or proper rate of interest, its relationship with productivity growth, and how it affects economic growth.

Section I provides an overall view of the problem and its treatment in the literature. Section II pinpoints different approaches of the two main schools of economic thought with regards to some specific problems. A review of Pasinetti’s theory of the interest rate, which introduces the notion of the “fair (or natural) rate of interest”, is given in Section III. Section IV illustrates some practical examples of the concepts of the real interest rate and productivity growth. Section V provides a further real-life application of the real interest rate to the problem of income distribution. Section VI refers to the empirical study of the relationship between the real interest rate and productivity growth, and how it affects output growth.

The Appendix contains SHAZAM computer printouts of the econometric program.

## I. Background

Traditionally, in mainstream economics, such variables as the money supply and the government sector (government expenditure and taxes) are treated as being exogenous, and variables like consumption demand, investment, labour and capital, as well as market interest rates and the price level are determined endogenously. The interest rate is determined through the interaction of demand (liquidity preference) for and supply (marginal productivity of capital) of money and near-money, i. e., what the market can bear.

Unlike mainstream economists who regard the interest rate as a variable that brings into equilibrium the investment and saving flows in the financial markets, post-classical economists view the interest rate as a monetary convention agreed upon by the banks when they have to determine whether the borrower would be able to bring back the principal plus the interest.

The rate of profit, defined as  $\rho=(P/K)$ , where  $P$ =profits,  $K$ =value of capital stock, is fairly constant in the long run, according to Kaldor's stylized fact, although it can exhibit cyclical fluctuations. According to mainstream economics, in the state of equilibrium the rate of profit equals the marginal productivity of capital.

Mainstream economists tend to look at these two rates, the profit rate and the interest rate, as being the same in the state of equilibrium, as was pointed out by Pasinetti (1981). This "natural" rate of interest corresponds to the natural rate of unemployment of the Philips curve in the sense that both these rates are observed in the economy in the state of full employment (disregarding frictional unemployment), and can only fluctuate around its equilibrium value. This concept presupposes the

existence of an aggregate production function for the purposes of using the marginal analysis for aggregate variables (like aggregate investment and aggregate capital) in the aggregate economy. But this is a very shaky assumption requiring stringent conditions.

A few words must be added here with regards to the production function and, based on it, total factor productivity. Mainstream economists, who use production functions, arrive at the equilibrium state by equating marginal products of inputs to their real prices. As Felipe and Fisher (2002) put it: "Following Samuelson they claim that even in the case of heterogeneous capital goods it is possible to provide rational ground for the existence of a single homogenous factor called capital with marginal product equal to the interest rate."

While interpreting total productivity growth and the results that depend on the existence and specification of aggregate production functions, one must be aware that aggregation is a serious problem affecting the concept of total factor productivity growth. We must also be aware "... that the use of the aggregate production function gives reasonably good estimates of factor productivity is due mainly to the narrow range of movement of aggregate data rather than the solid foundation of the function." (Nadire, (1970, p. 1146))

Felipe and Fisher (2002), in particular, have shown that the aggregate production function lacks a solid theoretical foundation because the conditions necessary to derive a well-behaved aggregate production function, with two firms or thousands of them, from micro production functions at the firm level, are so stringent that they seem to be implausible in reality. When we use a production function for the economy as a whole, to associate aggregate inputs with aggregate output, as a consequence, we come up with a measure of total factor productivity growth

(Solow's residual). But because the meaning of such aggregates as output, labour and capital raises serious questions (e.g., Fisher (1993)), the notion of total productivity growth based on growth accounting, even when correctly measured, becomes objectionable. "Without proper aggregation we cannot interpret the properties of an aggregate production function which rules the behavior of (aggregate) total factor productivity." (Felipe and Fisher (2002), p. 250) But since the notion of total factor productivity is still widely used in the profession, the concept of total productivity is used in the empirical study of this paper.

## II. The Treatment of the Interest Rate in Mainstream economics and post-Keynesian economics

The market (equilibrium) rate of interest of mainstream economists is contrasted with the fair rate of interest of post-classical economists. In mainstream economics, the (real) interest rate is treated as a real variable, and prices are driven by an exogenously determined money supply. Whereas mainstream economists believe that interest rates are based on the interaction of the demand for and the supply of loanable funds, for the post-classical economists, these rates are subject to conventions (Lavoie, 1997). This is because the monetary authorities have the power to set any bank rate they want, at least in the short run. The article of faith for mainstream economists is the disbelief that the monetary authorities (Central Banks) are able to set a rate of interest which is different from the natural (in the sense of mainstream economics) rate over the long run. But according to post-Keynesian economists (Smithin, 1996; Lavoie, 1997) the control of short-term rates of interest in the economy gives the Central Bank the ability to set long term interest rates as well.

What really matters is the real short term rate because, in Keynes' words, "In the long run we are all dead."

The ability of commercial banks to lend at a given interest rate is usually said to be directly related to their reserves. In some modern economies (e. g., Canada) there are no mandatory reserve requirements for commercial banks, and the claim of post-classical economists that the bank rate is subject to conventions is especially evident.

Post-Keynesian economists believe that from the supply side of the economy the proper measure of profitability is a normal rate of profit (*ex ante* profit rate). It corresponds to the target rate of return of firms provided they are operating at the standard rates of capacity utilization (Lavoie, 1997). Accordingly, post-classical economists believe that the normal rate of profit is determined by long term interest rates, the bargaining power of labour (unionization), and the realized rate of profit (*ex post* profit rate).

There is, as Lavoie (1997, p.127) points out, a disagreement between post-Keynesian economists as to what constitutes the core of the relationship between interest rates and profit rates. Some of them believe that the long term, trend, interest rate is determined by the profit rate on investment. Others, on the other hand, argue that the causality goes the other way round, and that the monetary policies of the Central Bank determine real variables, including the real interest rate.

Apart from these concepts of the rate of return, namely, the natural interest rate, the normal rate of profit, and the realized rate of profit, there is a concept of *the fair rate of interest*: "...the rate of interest that will leave unchanged the distribution of income between interest and non-interest income regardless of lending and borrowing activities." (Lavoie, 1997, p. 128) This concept of the fair rate of interest corresponds

to the *natural rate of interest* in Pasinetti (1981). When a person is indifferent as to whether to borrow or not, then we have a fair rate of interest.

To preserve the balance in the distribution of income between lenders and borrowers, the fair rate of interest must be equal to the rate of growth of total factor productivity correctly measured. In other words, the fair rate would be equal to the growth rate in real wages (real purchasing power). In the inflationary economy, the fair rate of interest would equal total productivity growth plus the inflation rate. It follows that in an economic environment with negligible price inflation and technical change, there is no reason, in terms of social order and justice, for the interest rate to be different from zero.

### III. Review of Pasinetti's Theory of Interest Rate

Consider a hypothetical 'pure labour' economy which uses labour as the only input (Pasinetti, 1981). In a closed economy, because of effective demand equilibrium, i. e., under conditions of full employment and full utilization of productive capacities, there are no savings for such an economy as a whole. But there are possibilities of savings and dissavings for individuals, although all personal lending and borrowing must cancel out. The people with excess purchasing power may decide to lend part of it to those who fall short of their consumption needs.

The emerging of lending and borrowing relations gives rise to the financial assets, on the part of lenders, and financial liabilities, on the part of borrowers. Financial obligations carried through time represent claims on future consumption (or labour efforts) of some individuals against the others, even though no physical goods are carried through time.

In this simplified economy we have  $(n - 1)$  commodity production sectors, the labour sector being the  $n$ -th sector, with a price system in which any commodity can serve as a numeraire. When we introduce intertemporal debt/credit relations, the value of these financial obligations at any point in time will depend on the choice of the numeraire for the price system. In terms of numeraire all debts/credits remain constant through time while 'natural' (relative) prices may change in terms of that numeraire.

Consider the following growth rates in our  $(n - 1)$  sectors of economy:

$\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_{n-1}$ . Chose commodity  $h$  as a numeraire. Then, in terms of this numeraire the value of all debts and credits will remain constant through time, but in terms of commodity 1 the value of all debts and credits will change at rate  $(\rho_1 - \rho_h)$ , in terms of commodity 2 at the rate  $(\rho_2 - \rho_h)$  etc. Thus, the value of debts and credits would change if we changed the numeraire of the price system. This means that if we change the numeraire and want to preserve debt/credit relations "we must introduce a correction in the form of a rate of interest, even if no rate of interest had originally been stipulated on the debts and credits in terms of commodity  $h$ ." (Pasinetti, 1981, p.159) If we change the numeraire from commodity  $h$  to, say, commodity 1, we have to apply an interest rate  $(\rho_1 - \rho_h)$  on all debts and credits for them to remain unchanged in terms of the new numeraire, commodity 1. The magnitude of the interest rate would depend on the relative values of productivities in sectors 1 and  $h$ .

Remarkably, in this economy there will be not a single interest rate but a whole series of interest rates corresponding to each commodity sector. If we choose labour as a numeraire through time, i. e., the wage rate  $w(t)=1$ , and assume a zero interest rate on loans, then the amount of purchasing power in terms of labour which the lender receives at the end of the lending period will be the same as at the beginning,



though natural prices of all commodities will be falling at the rate equal to the productivity growth in each sector  $\rho_j$ ,  $j=1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . Hence, the value of the loan, although unchanged in terms of labour, would be increasing in terms of a specific commodity  $j$  at the compound rate  $\rho_j$ , which Pasinetti calls *the own-rate of interest for commodity j*.

If an interest rate  $i_w$  in terms of labour time was applied to loans, then the series of own-rates of interest in each commodity sector would be:

$$(i_w + \rho_1), (i_w + \rho_2), \dots, (i_w + \rho_{n-1}).$$

In the same fashion, if an arbitrary commodity  $h$  is chosen as numeraire for the loan transactions with interest rate  $i_h$ , then a series of own-rates of interest in terms of each specific commodity would be:

$$(i_h + \rho_1 - \rho_h), (i_h + \rho_2 - \rho_h), \dots, i_h, \dots, (i_h + \rho_{n-1} - \rho_h).$$

The own-rate of interest in terms of labour will be:  $i_h - \rho_h$ , which means that if the interest rate  $i_h$  in terms of commodity  $h$  is not high enough, as compared with productivity growth in sector  $h$ , then the lenders who stipulate their loans in terms of labour, would actually suffer losses.

The rate of change of commodity prices  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{n-1}$ , is positively related to the rate of change of the wage rate  $\sigma_w$ , and negatively related to a commodity productivity growth  $\rho_j$ :

$$\sigma_j = \sigma_w + \rho_j, \quad j=1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

If a physical commodity (e. g., gold) is used as numeraire, then its price equals unity by definition, and the rate of change of its price is zero, i. e., in this case two degrees of freedom of the price system are reduced to one. If prices are expressed not in terms of a physical commodity but in nominal values, in terms of (paper) money, then the number of degrees of freedom of the price system remains two, and we need

another equation to solve the system. For this purpose Pasinetti introduces the notion of 'the dynamic standard commodity' for which productivity is changing at the rate  $\rho^*$ , equal to the weighted average of all specific productivities in the economic system.

If we are to choose the wage rate in terms of money, assumed to change at the rate  $\rho^*$ , i. e.,

$$\sigma_w = \rho^*,$$

then the prices in the system would remain, on average, constant, although the prices of some commodities (those with  $\rho_j > \rho^*$ ) would be falling, and the others would be rising (those with  $\rho < \rho^*$ ).

Thus,  $\sigma_w = \rho^*$  is a situation of average price stability (zero inflation).

When the money wage rate  $\sigma_w$  exceeds the 'standard' rate of growth  $\rho^*$ , the overall price level is increasing, i. e., we have a situation of price inflation:  $\sigma_w > \rho^*$ .

When  $\sigma_w < \rho^*$ , we are facing a situation of price deflation. Thus, relative strength of productivity versus the rate of growth of wages,  $\sigma_A = \sigma_w - \rho^*$ , determines the price dynamics of this pure labour economy.

After simple manipulations we can write:

$$\sigma_j = \sigma_w - \rho_j$$

$$\sigma_j = (\sigma_w - \rho^*) + (\rho^* - \rho_j),$$

which shows that the rate of change of the price of a specific commodity can be decomposed into a general component,  $\sigma_w - \rho^*$ , which is characteristic of the overall price level, and a particular component,  $\rho^* - \rho_j$ , which is specific to the price of each commodity.

The following question then arises: what are the 'real' (in terms of a specific commodity) rates of interest in a monetary economy, i. e., an economy which uses a conventional monetary unit of account? We have  $n$  'real' own-rates of interest for each of  $(n - 1)$  commodity sectors plus the labour sector related to the actual nominal interest rate  $i_M$  and to the rate of increase  $\sigma_w$  of the wage rate, all in terms of money. Then the own rate of interest for labour will be:

$$\begin{aligned} & (i_M - \sigma_w) \\ &= (i_M - \sigma_A - \rho^*). \end{aligned}$$

The own rate of interest for each commodity  $j$  will be:

$$\begin{aligned} & (i_M - \sigma_j) \\ &= i_M - (\sigma_w - \rho_j) \\ &= i_M - \sigma_A - (\rho^* - \rho_j), \quad j=1, 2, \dots, n-1. \end{aligned}$$

Again, if we consider a composite commodity, the dynamic standard commodity, then for this particular commodity its own-rate of interest is:

$$\begin{aligned} & i_M - (\sigma_w - \rho^*) \\ &= i_M - \sigma_A, \end{aligned}$$

which represents an average 'real' interest rate, the 'standard' real rate of interest for the economic system taken as whole.

It can be seen that unlike the case of real (commodity numeraire) if we choose a nominal (money) numeraire, then the own rate of interest in the economy depends not only on the actual money rate of interest, in terms of the chosen numeraire, and on the rates of productivity growth but also on the rate of change of the purchasing power of money, i. e., the inflation rate. Hence, the nominal rate of interest is only meaningful in relationship to the rate of change of the overall price level.

Pasinetti then reiterates that in the economic system with technical progress and, as a consequence, with structural price dynamics, there will be a whole structure of own-rates of interest, even if the nominal rate of interest is set to zero. The problem is to choose the interest rate which we should apply to all debt/credit relations on the basis of some criterion.

Pasinetti proposes that, in the economic system where all contributions to and benefits from production processes are regulated on the basis of quantities of labour, the interest rate in terms of labor must be zero. As it has already been indicated, if labour is chosen as numeraire, then such an interest rate – the *natural interest rate*  $i_w^*$  – is zero:

$$i_w^* = 0.$$

But in terms of any other commodity numeraire, this implies that the natural interest rate equals productivity growth:

$$i_j^* = \rho_j, \quad j=1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

When the composite commodity – what Pasinetti calls the ‘dynamic standard commodity’ – is chosen as numeraire and is applied to all debt/credit relations, then the natural interest rate is equal to the ‘standard’ productivity growth of the economy:

$$i_A^* = \rho^*.$$

And in case of the money numeraire, in order to obtain the natural rate of interest  $i_M^*$ , we must add up the rate of inflation to the standard rate of productivity growth:

$$i_M^* = \rho^* + \sigma_A$$

After taking into account that

$$\rho^* + \sigma_A = \rho^* + \sigma_w - \rho^* = \sigma_w,$$

we can write

$$i_M^* = \sigma_w$$

In a similar way, by measuring the rate of change of the wage rate in corresponding numeraire, we can write natural interest rates as follows:

$$i_A^* = \sigma_w$$

$$i_j^* = \sigma_w$$

$$i_w^* = \sigma_w$$

Keeping in mind that the wage rate is expressed in the corresponding numeraire we can drop the subscripts and just write:

$i^* = \sigma_w$  - the natural rate of interest which keeps constant the purchasing power of loans carried through time in terms of labour time.

How can the notion of the natural interest rate be applied to income distribution? According to Pasinetti, the income distribution process can be viewed as being made up of two components: first, income is distributed at any point of time in proportion to the quantity of labour contributed to the production process; second, a process of debt/credit relations is formed in accordance with the need of individuals to distribute their consumption over time.

If the chosen numeraire is the wage rate, then all debt/credit relations will be reckoned in terms of labour, and the natural rate of interest should be zero. The purchasing power of financial obligations in terms of labour will remain intact through time if the chosen numeraire is some commodity  $h$ . Then the natural rate of interest preserving debt/credit relations in terms of that commodity is  $i_h^* = \rho_h$ .

In our labour-based economy in which income is distributed in proportion to the labour contribution to the production process, the loans agreed upon in terms of commodity  $h$  will be devaluing at the rate  $\rho_h$  unless a compensating natural rate of interest  $i_h^* = \rho_h$  is paid on loans, thus correcting for the devaluation of loans in terms of labour.

When we use conventional money as numeraire in which all debt/credit relations are stipulated, all financial assets/liabilities will be devaluing in terms of labour at the rate

$$i_M^* = \sigma_A + \rho^* = \sigma_w$$

Therefore the natural rate of interest  $i_M^* = \sigma_w$  must be paid on loans to correct for this devaluation.

Thus whatever numeraire is chosen for the debt/credit relations, the natural rate of interest is just the rate which exactly compensates for the devaluation of loans in terms of labour. Any other level of interest rate will cause deviations from what Pasinetti calls the 'labour principle of income distribution'. A higher than natural rate of interest will distort the income distribution in favor of lenders, and the lower – in favor of borrowers. Only the natural rate of interest will ensure that the intertemporal distribution of income takes place in proportion to the quantity of labour supplied to the production process.

Now consider the more general case of production with labour and capital goods. In the state of equilibrium total savings are equal to total investments. In an economy with natural prices and the natural rate of profit, the amount of profits will be equal to the corresponding investments in each sector. Total consumption in the economy will be represented by total income minus investments, and cannot be transferred through time. With the introduction of capital goods the approach to the determination of the appropriate interest rate for debt/credit relations remains basically the same as was the case of the pure labour economy. Only now instead of productivity growth  $\rho_j$  in each sector, Pasinetti introduces the rate of productivity growth  $\rho_j'$  in the vertically hyper-integrated sector (including the sector that produces capital goods for sector j) for

consumption good  $j$ . Then the 'natural' own-rates of interest for each consumption good would be:

$$\rho_1', \rho_2', \dots, \rho_{n-1}'.$$

The basic definition of the natural rate interest,  $i^* = \sigma_w$ , is generalized: regardless of the nature of the chosen numeraire, the natural rate of interest is equal to the rate of percentage change of the wage rate.

Pasinetti points out that the 'natural' rate of profit in any sector defined as

$$\pi_j^* = g + r_j$$

( $g$  = labour force growth rate

$r_j$  = per capita rate of growth of the vertically hyper-integrated production in sector  $j$ )

is conceptually different from its 'natural' own-rates of interest

$$\rho_j', j = 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

These two notions, the natural rate of profit and the natural rate of interest, though emerging from the same natural economic system can exist independently of one another because they apply to different spheres of economic activity. The rate of profit applies to the sphere of production in the natural economic system in which total new investments are equal to total profits, thus achieving self-sustainable growth. The rate of interest applies to the spheres of consumption and debt/credit relations, which allow individuals to distribute optimally their consumption over time, and for the system as a whole all financial transactions cancel each other.

As Pasinetti indicates, the confusion of these two independent, different, economic concepts comes from the institutionalized organization of the capitalist economic system. On the one hand, under free-market competition, there necessarily is a tendency to equalize the rate of profit (adjusted for risk) for the firms in all

sectors of the production process. On the other hand, the financial transactions of individuals and those of the firms are not separated from each other and tend to take place in the same financial markets. These tendencies of the capitalist set-up lead to the distortions and deviations from the features of a natural economic system and to the equalization of the two rates: the rate of profit and the rate of interest.

#### IV. Some practical applications

The concept of the fair rate of interest allows us to see the redistribution effects between the lenders and borrowers of capital in terms of labour time or workweeks. Lavoie (1997) gives an example of how this concept of fair interest rate works by considering 15-year mortgage payments on an average house in Ottawa. He shows that in 1961 borrowing payments, relative to cash payments, were equivalent to 4 weeks in terms of labor time whereas in 1986 these additional payments were 136 weeks in terms of labour time. In 1986, the real interest rate (mortgage rate) and total productivity growth rates were 6% and 0.1% per annum respectively, which shows that when the real rate of interest is not equal to total productivity growth we witness income redistribution from borrowers to lenders (or vice versa) through increased labour time expropriation.

Here is a slight modification of the example above. Suppose a consumer wants to buy a house for \$50,000 and takes a loan (mortgage) for that amount at an annual rate  $r = 6\%$  to be repaid in 15 years. Further suppose that the weekly wage of this consumer is \$300 and his total productivity growth (the wage rate growth) is  $k = 0.012 = 1.2\%$ .

Consider a typical amortized repayment schedule:



$$\$50,000 = (\$C/1.06^1) + (C/1.06^2) + \dots + (C/1.06^{15})$$

where C=fixed annual payment

$$\$50,000 = \$C \times \{[1 - (1/1.06^{15})]/0.06\}$$

$$\$50,000 = C \times 9.7122$$

$$C = \$ 5,148.14$$

The cost of the loan in terms of workweeks can be found through the summation (with regards to the annual wage growth):

$$C/300x(1 + k) + C/300x(1 + k)^2 + \dots + C/300x(1 + k)^{15}$$

$$= (C/300)x\{[1 - (1/(1 + k)^{15})]/k\}$$

$$= (5,148.14/300)x\{[1 - (1/(1 + 0.012)^{15})]/0.012\}$$

$$= 17.16 \times 13.652$$

$$= 234.28 \text{ workweeks}$$

Thus the cost of the house, with regards to interest rate and productivity growth as specified above, in terms of workweeks is 234.28

The cost of the house in terms of workweeks without going into debt is:

$$50,000/300 = 166.66 \text{ workweeks}$$

Only when the interest rate is equal to productivity growth, in our case  $r = 1.2\%$ , does the purchasing power of labour remain unaltered through time.

The amortization schedule in this case is as follows:

$$\$50,000 = (\$C/1.012^1) + (C/1.012^2) + \dots + (C/1.012^{15})$$

where C=fixed annual payment

$$\$50,000 = \$C \times \{[1 - (1/1.012^{15})]/0.012\}$$

$$\$50,000 = C \times 13.6528$$

$$C = \$ 3,662.23$$

The cost of the loan in terms of workweeks is found through the summation (with regards to the annual wage growth):

$$\begin{aligned}
 & C/300x(1 + k) + C/300x(1 + k)^2 + \dots + C/300x(1 + k)^{15} \\
 & = (C/300)x\{[1 - (1/(1 + k)^{15})]/k\} \\
 & = (3,662.23/300)x\{[1 - (1/(1 + 0.012)^{15})]/0.012\} \\
 & = 12.21 \times 13.6528 \\
 & = 166.66 \text{ workweeks}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, under the regime of a fair interest rate the consumer is indifferent, in term of workweeks, whether to go into debt or not.

The higher interest rate negatively affects economic growth as firms rank investment projects by their net present value (NPV). The higher interest rate increases the cost of capital for the firms, thus affecting investment. The higher interest rates (which are used to discount future cash flows) lower the NPV of a project and even make it negative, which means that the firm has to abandon it. To illustrate, consider a simplified case of the 5-year investment with a cost = \$9,000. The expected cash flows are \$2,000 per year for 5 years.

- 1) In the first case the annual interest rate is 3%.

The net present value of this project is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{NPV} & = -\$9,000 + \$2,000/1.03 + \$2,000/1.03^2 + \dots + \$2,000/1.03^5 \\
 & = -\$9,000 + \$2,000x(1 - 1/1.03^5)/0.03 \\
 & = -\$9,000 + \$2,000x4.5797 \\
 & = -\$9,000 + \$9159.4 \\
 & = \$159.4 > 0
 \end{aligned}$$

The firm will take on this project because NPV > 0.

Now consider the same project except for the interest rate being 5%.

$$\begin{aligned}
NPV &= -\$9,000 + \$2,000/1.05 + \$2,000/1.05^2 + \dots + \$2,000/1.05^5 \\
&= -\$9,000 + \$2,000 \times (1 - 1/1.05^5)/0.05 \\
&= -\$9,000 + \$2,000 \times 4.3295 \\
&= -\$9,000 + \$8,659 \\
&= -\$341 < 0
\end{aligned}$$

In this case the firm will scrap the project because its  $NPV < 0$ .

One can view the fair rates of interest as an “anchor” in the social economy which “preserve the intertemporal distribution of income, measured in labour time, between borrowers and lenders.” (Lavoie, 1997, p. 135) On the other hand, at the Canadian macro-level, it was demonstrated that a high real interest rate, as compared to total productivity growth, is a definite suspect to blame for the economic recessions during the period 1946-1983 (Lavoie and Seccareccia, 1988).

The interest rate can be also viewed as a psychological problem of behavioral idiosyncrasy in a sense that an individual decides how much of its current consumption to forego today in return for more consumption tomorrow. In general, the behavior of rentiers in the capital markets gives rise to the science of behavioral finance which provides us with many insights into the workings of financial markets.

Interest rates are interrelated with economic performance. Generally post-Keynesian economists are opposed to high interest rates both on economic and social grounds. Today higher interest rates are recommended by mainstream economists as means to curb inflation. But according to post-Classical economists, inflation caused by excess demand is a minor problem compared with the escalation of rental and wage costs of inputs (Lavoie and Seccareccia, 1988). Unlike interest rates, inflation is not believed to be a monetary phenomenon as assumed by the quantity theory of money. Therefore raising interest rates to combat inflation would lead to economic

recession as firms cut back on the employment of labour and on their investment projects.

The correct discount rate is tied to the interest rate set by the monetary authorities. This riskless interest rate (for example, on government bonds) is a bottom line for the interest rate structure in the financial markets. As long as firms are using financial markets to raise funds for their financing needs, the higher interest rate would increase the minimum required rate of return on investment, thus raising the cost of capital for the firm, and reducing, through this process, output and employment.

Instead, following Keynes, post-Keynesian economists would suggest a progressive income tax and price controls as the means to bring down inflation and excess demand. Higher interest rates depress financial markets and the market value of the firms. The wave of mergers and takeovers in Canada during the 1980s and in the US during the 1990s could have been the result of higher interest rates, thus making the replacement cost of the capital stock of a firm less than its market value (Tobin's  $q < 1$ ), raising barriers to the entry into the industry, and increasing monopoly power within the industry.

Post-Keynesian economists differ from mainstream economists in their treatment of the problem of income distribution. In mainstream economics based on marginal productivity theory, the wage rate (the reward to labour) equals the marginal productivity of labour, and the rate of return on a dollar of capital, that is, the rate of profit (the reward to capital) is equal to the marginal productivity of capital, and hence, the marginal products of the factors of production determine income distribution.

## V. Interest Rate and Income Distribution

In post-Keynesian economics the problem of the interest rate is closely related to the public policy of income distribution.

First, higher interest rates cause a direct income transfer from the productive sector to the holders of interest-bearing securities in the form of increased interest payments. Second, through its impact on production and employment, the increase in interest rates negatively affects the whole structure of wage-profit relationships (Lavoie and Seccareccia, 1988). Higher interest rates depress consumption and investment expenditures, causing redistribution of income shares of input factors from the “active earning class” in favor of the rentier class.

One might draw an analogy between interest rates and gravitational pull. Interest rates act on the valuation of financial assets much in the same way as gravity acts on matter. The higher the interest rate, the greater is the downward pull in the financial markets. This is because the rates of return that rentiers require from any kind of investment are directly linked to the risk-free rate they obtain from government securities. Therefore, if the government rate (or the Bank rate as set by the monetary authorities) goes up, the prices of all other investments must adjust downward, so that their expected rates of return are brought into line with that of government bonds. If, on the other hand, government interest rates go down, this pushes the prices of all financial investment of rentiers upward. In short, what a rentier pays today for a dollar to be received tomorrow is determined by the risk-free interest rate of government bonds. This means that every time the risk-free rate of monetary authorities moves, the value of all rentier investments changes.

The situation is especially transparent in case of bonds, the value of which is determined only by interest rates. But this is also true in the case of the stock market (although other important variables, mainly after-tax corporate profits also play a role) and in the case of capital stock (like real estate), but the effect of interest rate is usually obscured; nonetheless, sooner or later it will work through.

To illustrate how it works and how rentiers extract profits, consider long term U.S. government bonds at selected points of time. At the end of 1964, the interest rate was 4% and by late 1981 it was 14% (all data here and elsewhere is taken from [www.finance.yahoo.com](http://www.finance.yahoo.com) and *Report of the President*, various issues). If a rentier put \$1 million into the 14% 30-year U.S. government bond issued at the end of 1981, and reinvested all coupons, then at the end of 1998, with long term government bonds yielding then 5%, he would have had  $\$1 \text{ million} \times (1 - 1.(1.05)^{13})/0.05 = \$9,393,600$  and would have extracted an annual rate of return of more than 14%  $((9.3936)^{1/17} = 1.1408)$ .

The interest rate has the same effect on the stock market. In a similar fashion, if a rentier had put \$1 million in a market index, say, Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA), at the end of 1981 and reinvested all dividends, at the end of 1998 he would have had \$10,493,062 and his annual return would have been 14.83%.

We can make a comparison for selected periods between the performance of the U.S. businesses as measured by GDP, and the performance of financial markets governed by the interest rate.

(Nominal) Growth in GDP :

1964-1981:      373%

1981-1998:      177%

Stock market, as measured by DJIA:

Year-end 1964: 874.12

1981: 875.00

1998: 9181.43

Bond market, interest rates of long term U.S. government bonds:

Year-end 1964: 4.20%

1981: 13.65%

1998: 5.09%

These figures illustrate the power of compound interest rates. During the period 1964-1981, the GDP of the U.S. economy has risen by 373% in nominal terms while the stock market, as measured by DJIA, moved nowhere. On the other hand, during the period 1981-1998, the economy grew more than twice as slowly as it did in the previous 17-year period. And still, rentiers reaped record returns in the financial markets. This shows that the performance of the economy is very much independent of the performance of the market for interest-bearing securities which rentiers hold. Moreover, the performance of financial assets is almost exclusively determined by the interest rate (the other determining factor is the market mass-psychology of rentiers). The scissors of the interest rate roller coaster allow the rentiers to extract a rate of return in excess of the normal rate of profit.

Creating money out of nothing (more exactly, out of debt), which costs monetary authorities nothing, and charging interest on it, generates the most unfair tax – inflation. This is supposedly one of the reasons for the central bank to fight inflation.

Seccareccia and Lavoie (1996) offered a critique of the monetary policies of the Bank of Canada, which, while fighting inflation, pursued a policy of high real interest rates since 1990. This policy of the Bank of Canada was based on the necessity of achieving price stability. The primacy of price stability over all other economic indicators was originally based on findings by Jarret and Selody (1982), who claimed that "a one percentage point increase in inflation will significantly reduce average labour productivity growth on the order of three-tenth of a percentage point" and that "inflation is the single and most important explanatory variable in explaining slow (or negative) productivity growth." (Seccareccia and Lavoie, 1996) But as was pointed out by these two authors, the empirical evidence of a negative relationship between inflation and productivity growth may have a different causation. As is well known among post-Keynesian economists, it is productivity growth which negatively affects inflation, and not vice versa. The policy of low inflation accompanied by a high unemployment rate is both unfair towards households and is disruptive by causing uncertainty. The presumed effect of inflation on productivity, via investment, should be interpreted as an increase in the cost of borrowing the capital, through a higher real interest rate. As Seccareccia and Lavoie (1996) put it: "... the problem of long-term financing of investment is a problem of higher interest costs relative to expected net revenues and not, *stricto sensu*, a problem arising from inflation or its variance."

One-sided policy to prioritize inflation reductions at the cost of higher interest rates leads, via the decrease in new investments, to lower productivity growth, and as a result to the slowdown of the economy. As Seccareccia and Lavoie (1996) remark, the strong negative relationship between inflation and productivity growth, as evidenced by empirical studies of Jarret & Selody (1982) and Cozier & Selody (1992), was observed only during the 1970s and early 1980s, and is mainly due to the



oil price shocks of 1973 and 1979, which at the same time depressed productivity growth and increased inflation. The lack of a strong negative correlation between price inflation and productivity growth was also supported by evidence from outside Canada (Stanners, 1993). Thus, this case study casts doubts on the appropriateness of a monetary policy of artificially low inflation as pursued by the Bank of Canada during the 1980s and 1990s, a policy that gave rise to high rates of unemployment and real interest rates and is questionable in its ability to boost productivity growth.

Interest rates that are too low may cause high inflation and public dissatisfaction. Rentiers might want the central bank to set the interest rate at an optimal level, a “moderate” rate, say, 4-5% per annum – but it is 4-5% forever – that generates high revenues for the rentiers without causing public alarm.

## VI. Empirical Study

Many researchers have been looking into various aspects of the interest rate-productivity growth-output growth nexus. For example, in the case of the US, Roberts (2000) estimated productivity growth in the late 1990s. He found that in the second quarter of 2000 the productivity growth rate picked up to about 2-2/3 percent at an annual rate. If the model explicitly accounts for the impact of capital accumulation on labour productivity, then productivity growth picks up to 3 percent. In this framework the trend in productivity is allowed to follow a random walk with drift and both the level and growth rate of the trend component in productivity are subject to random shocks. In this model, he decomposes aggregate output into its hours and productivity components, (which is defined as output per hour). The model confirms the well known result that productivity correlates positively (“procyclical”) with output, that

is, productivity increases when output increases, but productivity falls back to trend much more quickly than does output. The results show that the increase in labor productivity in the US in the late 1990s accounts for most of the rise in trend productivity.

For mainstream economics, the “natural” rate of interest is the rate that equates potential output with actual one, and which is assumed to be constant. According to the Taylor rule, it is approximately 2% for the US. Both the natural rate of interest and potential output are not directly observed. Naturally, the natural rate of interest would vary as aggregate demand and supply shift, as was the case in the US during the 1980s (the fiscal expansion), and late 1990s (the productivity acceleration).

Laubach and Williams (2001) investigated the relationship between potential output and the natural rate of interest over the past four decades in the US by using the econometric technique of the Kalman filter. Their findings confirmed the view that there were structural changes in the American economy that had a significant impact on the natural rate of interest. The estimated relationship was most significant during the mid-sixties and the late 1990s, periods of high rates of potential output growth, and declined during the 1970s, the period of the productivity slow down. They also found that the fiscal expansion of the 1980s was associated with a high natural rate of interest. The estimated value for the natural rate of interest in the American economy at the end of 2000 was found to be 4%.

Galor and Tsiddon (1992) analysed the impact of changes in labor productivity on the long-run level of output. That analysis was conducted within the framework of dynamic general equilibrium model. Even one-time transitory changes in productivity can have an adverse effect on the output in the long run. This is because the fall in productivity reduces the output and as a result, savings. The reduction in savings

supposedly increases the real interest rate and thus decreases investments during the period of adverse shock to the productivity. If the productivity shock is severe enough, the stationary long-run output will converge to a lower level with reduced output growth. This also may result in a higher long run unemployment level. Here there is the case for the government to step in to restore the initial long-run equilibrium output by transferring income from consumers to savers.

Kahn and Rich (2003) looked into long-term productivity, trying to identify the trend and cyclical variations in productivity. The data set, which was used to estimate trend productivity growth, included consumption, labour compensation and detrended hours. In their empirical work they used the regime switching dynamic factor model (Kim and Murray, 2002). A strong evidence was found for the switching of both economy and productivity from a low growth to high growth regime in the mid 1990s, with the annualised difference between growth rates in the two regimes of approximately 1.5%. They point out that during the 1970s the government didn't recognise the slowdown in productivity growth, which led to overestimating potential GDP and to supposedly setting too low an interest rate by the Central Bank. This, in turn resulted in two-digit inflation.

The mainstream viewpoint, which considers the interest rate as an endogenous phenomenon, faces many contradictions. For example, the simultaneous rise in both interest rates and current investments during the early 1980s in the US cannot be easily explained within a standard general equilibrium dynamic model. To explain this phenomenon Olivei (1999) had to introduce nominal rigidities in his model, which interprets a favourable shift in expected profitability as an increase in expected productivity. The classical view leads to an implausibly large value for the

intertemporal elasticity of substitution in consumption, which is necessary to explain the paradox of high values of both real interest rates and current investments.

Following Pasinetti (1981), as well as Lavoie and Seccareccia (1988), a measure of such income transfer, from the productive sector of workers and entrepreneurs towards the unproductive sector of holders of interest-bearing securities, has been identified. This measure is  $(r - g)$ , where  $r$  = real interest rate and  $g$  = rate of growth of (labour or total) productivity. It is presumed that whenever this differential in rates is positive there is an income transfer from the productive sector of the economy to the rentier class associated with periods of recession and depression, and vice versa (Lavoie and Seccareccia, 1988). In fact, using Canadian postwar data Lavoie and Seccareccia (1988) demonstrated that each time the difference  $(r - g)$  was positive, the Canadian economy was experiencing a recession with the corresponding drop in output growth.

The working hypothesis to be tested in the empirical part of the paper is as follows: whenever the real rate of interest exceeds total productivity growth, there is a slowdown or recession in the economy, that is, when the real interest rate is high as compared to productivity growth, GDP growth tends to slow down.

To investigate this relationship, a sample of 7 countries (the US, Belgium Netherlands, Denmark, France, Italy, and Sweden) has been identified from the AMECO annual macroeconomic database. The country sample was chosen on the basis of data availability. The annual time series of the real interest rate (both long-run and short-run), total productivity growth rate, and real GDP growth rate for each country covering the period 1960-2004 have been selected for the estimation.

Prior to the estimation, the selected time series have been subjected to diagnostic tests, including unit root testing (Dickey-Fuller tests, Ljung-Box-Pierce statistics, and

the correlogram), Chow test and Goldfeld-Quand statistic of the structural stability of time series, and Granger causality tests. SHAZAM output is enclosed in Appendix. Tests for the stationarity and cointegration revealed mixed evidence, i. e., some of the time series were stationary and some were not. The Chow test (at 5% level of significance) showed structural breaks in the following years:

USA:	1970-71, 1973-1974, 1982, 1983-84
Belgium:	1970-71, 1971, 1972, 1973-74
Denmark:	1974, 1975, 1976-77
France:	1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974-75
Italy:	1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974-75
Netherlands:	1972, 1973-74, 1975-76, 1999, 2000-01
Sweden:	no structural breaks.

The Chow test revealed that almost all series (except for Sweden's series) experienced structural breaks around the 1971 and 1973-1974 years, which may be explained by the abandonment in 1971 of the "gold standard" in the US, and the oil price shocks in 1973-1974, which is in agreement with the findings of Laubach and Williams (2001) with regards to structural changes in the US economy. Goldfeld-Quandt statistics (measure of homoskedasticity of the error variance between two subsets of observations) also provided evidence for the structural breaks.

Granger causality tests (with  $H_0$ : no Granger causality) did not reveal any consistency in the direction of Granger causality at a 5% level of significance. Denote

GROWTH=GDP Growth, and

DIFF= differential between real interest rate and total productivity growth,

then for our sample of countries the results were as follows:

Table 1.

	DIFF	GROWTH
USA	0	1
Belgium	0	1
Denmark	1	1
France	0	0
Italy	0	0
Netherlands	0	0
Sweden	1	0

The second column (DIFF) in Table 1 shows the direction of the causality from DIFF (toward GROWTH). The third column (GROWTH) shows the direction of the causality from GROWTH (toward DIFF). “1” indicates the presence of Granger causality, and “0” – its absence, in either direction.

In the econometric distributed-lag model involving the regression of GDP growth on the differential between the real interest rate and total productivity growth, lagged values were used to supposedly account for cumulative influences of the lagged values of the explanatory variable.

In order to reduce collinearity in lagged regressors and other potential problems, the Almon polynomial lag scheme of second degree was used. Assume that GDP growth rate [ $GROWTH_t$ ] depends of the difference between the real interest rate and total productivity growth [ $DIFF_t$ ] in the current year and in the three preceding years as follows:

$$GROWTH_t = \alpha + \beta_0 DIFF_t + \beta_1 DIFF_{t-1} + \beta_2 DIFF_{t-2} + \beta_3 DIFF_{t-3} + u_t,$$

where  $\beta_i$  coefficients are approximated by a second-degree polynomial as follows:

$$\beta_i = a_0 + a_1i + a_2i^2$$

The results of the regressions are given in the following two tables.

Table 2. Estimated regression coefficients  $\beta_i$  using long-term real interest rates

	Estimated coefficients of lagged variables, DIFFs				
	0	1	2	3	Sum of coefs
US	-0.66	--	0.34	--	--
Belgium	-0.49	--	--	--	-0.33
Denmark	-0.67	--	--	--	-0.53
France	-0.38	--	--	--	-0.46
Italy	-0.41	--	0.16	--	-0.24
Netherlands	-0.54	--	0.21	--	-0.29
Sweden	-0.64	--	0.32	--	--

Table 3. Estimated regression coefficients  $\beta_i$  using short-term real interest rates

	Estimated coefficients of lagged variables, DIFFs				
	0	1	2	3	Sum of coefs
US	--	--	--	--	-0.44
Belgium	-0.27	--	--	--	-0.32
Denmark	-0.47	--	--	--	-0.32

France	--	-0.15	--	--	-0.37
Italy	-0.53	--	0.20	--	-0.30
Netherlands	-0.30	--	--	--	-0.27

*Note:* "--" denotes statistically insignificant (at 5% level of significance) values.

A look at the regression coefficients in these tables reveals that the differential value between real interest rates and total productivity growth rates do have a negative effect on output growth. Also note that in all cases the influence of the differential on output growth becomes negligible after the second period (regression coefficients are statistically zero at lag=3).

In all countries of our sample (except for the US and Sweden, the long-term case) the sum of the regression coefficients (which gives the cumulative effect) is negative, the largest one being for Denmark: a 100 basis points increase in the real interest rate relative to the productivity growth rate leads to a 53 basis points drop in GDP growth. Predominantly, the effect of the differential on output growth occurs during the current period.

## VII. Conclusion

The assertion of mainstream economists about the endogeneity of the interest rate has shaky foundations in view of the ability of monetary authorities to set the interest rate at a predetermined level in the short-run (and in the long-run as well). Besides, the equalization of the rate of interest with the rate of profit is not the outcome of the natural economic system but rather a consequence of the institutional set-up of



current society. In an economy with technical change, the fair (or “natural”) rate of debt/credit relations should preserve unchanged the purchasing power of all loans in terms of the wage rate (labour time).

The ability on the part of the central bank to set the level of the rate of interest has consequences for income distribution and output growth. The empirical study based on the sample of seven countries has nearly consistently found a cumulative negative effect of the differential between the real interest rate and total productivity growth on GDP growth. The results of diagnostic test indicate that the results could be improved if a more desegregate data were available.

## REFERENCES

Cozier, Barry, and Jack Selody. *Inflation and Macroeconomic Performance: Some Cross-Country Evidence*. Working Paper 92-6. Ottawa: Bank of Canada, 1992.

Felipe, J. and Fisher F. M. "Aggregation in Production Functions: What Applied Economists Should Know." *Metroeconomica* 54:2 & 3, pp. 208-262, 2003.

Fisher F. M. *Aggregation. Aggregate Production Functions and Related Topics*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA., 1993.

Galor O. and Tsiddon D. "Transitory Productivity Shocks and Long-Run Output." *International Economic Review*, vol.33, No. 4, 1992.

Jarret, Peter, and Jack G. Selody. "The Productivity-Inflation Nexus in Canada, 1963-1979." *Review of Economics and Statistics* 64: 361-67 (August 1982).

Kahn J. A. and Rich R. "Tracking the New Economy: Using Growth Theory to Detect Changes in Trend Productivity." Federal Reserve Bank of New York Staff Report, 2003.

Kim, Chang-Jin and Christian Murray. "Permanent and Transitory Components of Recessions." *Empirical Economics* 27, 2002.

Laubach, Thomas, and John C. Williams. "Measuring the Natural Rate of Interest." *Computing in Economics and Finance*, no. 35, 2001.

Lavoie, Marc. "Fair Rates of Interest in Post-Keynesian Political Economy." *Issues in Modern Political Economy* ( ed. J. K. Teixeira), University of Brasilia Press, 1997.

Lavoie, M. and Seccareccia M. "Money, Interest and Rentiers: the Twilight of Rentier Capitalism in Keynes's *General Theory*." In *Keynes and Public Policy After Fifty Years. Volume 2: Theories and Method*. By Hamouda O. F. and Smithin J. N. (eds). Edward Elgar, 1988.

Nadiri M. I. "Some Approaches to the Theory and Measurement of Factor Productivity: a Survey." *Journal of Economic Literature*, 8, pp. 1137-77, December 1970.

Olivei G. "Productivity Shocks, Investment, and the Real Interest Rate." Research Department, Federal Reserve Bank of Boston, 1999.

Pasinetti L. *Structural Change and Economic Growth: A Theoretical Essay on the Dynamics of the Wealth of Nations*. Ch. 8. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1981.

Roberts, John M. "Estimates of the Productivity Trend Using Time-Varying Parameter Techniques." Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, Working Paper, November 2000.

Seccareccia, Mario, and Marc Lavoie. "Central Bank Austerity Policy, Zero-Inflation Targets, and Productivity Growth in Canada." *Journal of Economic Issues*. Vol. XXX, No. 2, June 1996.

Stanners, W. "Is Low Inflation an Important Condition for High Growth?" *Cambridge Journal of Economics* 17: 79-107, March 1993.

## Appendix

\*US

### Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.2292 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.1667  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 3.8491  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.9619  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 142.42  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 3.3510  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -83.7026

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF1	-0.19968	0.142	-1.40	0.169	-4.029	3.67	0.021

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF1	-0.66465	0.2057	-3.231	0.003-0.469	-0.7398	-0.3817
DIFF1	0.12321	0.8678E-01	1.420	0.164 0.227	0.1393	0.0691
DIFF1	0.34401	0.1378	2.496	0.017 0.380	0.3894	0.1919
DIFF1	-0.22558E-02	0.1629E-01	-0.1385	0.891-0.023	-0.0025	-0.0012
CONSTANT	3.7528	0.4155	9.032	0.000 0.829	0.0000	1.1199

### Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.1692 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.1018  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 4.1487  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 2.0368  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 153.50  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 3.3510  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -85.2395

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF1SH	-0.44420	0.172	-2.58	0.014	0.442	2.51	0.074

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF1SH	-0.28032	0.1561	-1.796	0.081-0.283	-0.2962	-0.0763
DIFF1SH	-0.12974	0.8471E-01	-1.532	0.134-0.244	-0.1376	-0.0350
DIFF1SH	-0.35760E-01	0.1085	-0.3296	0.744-0.054	-0.0377	-0.0098
DIFF1SH	0.16141E-02	0.1704E-01	0.9472E-01	0.925 0.016	0.0017	0.0004
CONSTANT	3.7604	0.3614	10.40	0.000 0.863	0.0000	1.1222

\*Belgium

### Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.4019 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3534  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 2.5941  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.6106  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 95.982  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.8652  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -75.6135

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF2	-0.33449	0.861E-01	-3.89	0.000	-0.950	8.29	0.000

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF2	-0.48919	0.1241	-3.941	0.000-0.544	-0.7841	-0.3405
DIFF2	-0.58057E-02	0.5169E-01	-0.1123	0.911-0.018	-0.0093	-0.0040
DIFF2	0.15807	0.8254E-01	1.915	0.063 0.300	0.2541	0.1061
DIFF2	0.24348E-02	0.1336E-01	0.1822	0.856 0.030	0.0039	0.0015
CONSTANT	3.5512	0.3082	11.52	0.000 0.884	0.0000	1.2394

## Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.3239 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.2691  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 2.9325  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.7124  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 108.50  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.8652  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -78.1268

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF2SH	-0.32656	0.828E-01	-3.94	0.000	0.078	5.91	0.002

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF2SH	-0.27760	0.1168	-2.377	0.023-0.364	-0.4898	-0.1230
DIFF2SH	-0.71413E-01	0.4923E-01	-1.450	0.155-0.232	-0.1266	-0.0309
DIFF2SH	0.21456E-01	0.7745E-01	0.2770	0.783 0.045	0.0381	0.0090
DIFF2SH	0.10030E-02	0.1433E-01	0.7000E-01	0.945 0.012	0.0018	0.0004
CONSTANT	3.2823	0.2918	11.25	0.000 0.880	0.0000	1.1456

\*Denmark

## Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.5004 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.4599  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 3.1274  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.7685  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 115.71  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.3021  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -79.4464

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF3	-0.53565	0.110	-4.85	0.000	-0.664	12.4	0.000

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF3	-0.67782	0.1390	-4.877	0.000-0.626	-0.7911	-0.9490
DIFF3	-0.53575E-01	0.6425E-01	-0.8338	0.410-0.136	-0.0664	-0.0722
DIFF3	0.17821	0.9353E-01	1.905	0.065 0.299	0.2277	0.2316
DIFF3	0.17534E-01	0.1579E-01	1.111	0.274 0.180	0.0224	0.0223
CONSTANT	4.1210	0.4530	9.098	0.000 0.831	0.0000	1.7901

## Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.3527 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3002  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 4.0521  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 2.0130  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 149.93  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.3021  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -84.7566

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF3SH	-0.32370	0.105	-3.09	0.004	-0.973	6.72	0.001

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF3SH	-0.47139	0.1194	-3.948	0.000-0.544	-0.6780	-0.2887
DIFF3SH	-0.10694E-01	0.5864E-01	-0.1824	0.856-0.030	-0.0157	-0.0062
DIFF3SH	0.14942	0.8211E-01	1.820	0.077 0.287	0.2218	0.0812
DIFF3SH	0.89582E-02	0.1722E-01	0.5201	0.606 0.085	0.0133	0.0047
CONSTANT	2.8101	0.3504	8.020	0.000 0.797	0.0000	1.2206

\*France

## Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.4490 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.4043  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 1.9900  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.4107  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 73.630  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 3.0135  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -70.1787

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF4	-0.45841	0.877E-01	-5.22	0.000	0.067	10.1	0.000

VARIABLE NAME	ESTIMATED COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	T-RATIO	37 DF	PARTIAL P-VALUE	STANDARDIZED CORR. COEFFICIENT	ELASTICITY AT MEANS
DIFF4	-0.38784	0.1468	-2.642		0.012-0.398	-0.5865	-0.2035
DIFF4	-0.10403	0.5271E-01	-1.974		0.056-0.309	-0.1673	-0.0480
DIFF4	0.27306E-01	0.9044E-01	0.3019		0.764 0.050	0.0442	0.0116
DIFF4	0.61605E-02	0.1296E-01	0.4753		0.637 0.078	0.0099	0.0025
CONSTANT	3.7473	0.2700	13.88		0.000 0.916	0.0000	1.2435

### Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.4155 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3681  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 2.1109  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.4529  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 78.104  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 3.0135  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -71.3880

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF4SH	-0.37738	0.774E-01	-4.87	0.000	0.969	8.77	0.000

VARIABLE NAME	ESTIMATED COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	T-RATIO	37 DF	PARTIAL P-VALUE	STANDARDIZED CORR. COEFFICIENT	ELASTICITY AT MEANS
DIFF4SH	-0.11890	0.1211	-0.9816		0.333-0.159	-0.2084	-0.0276
DIFF4SH	-0.14992	0.4602E-01	-3.258		0.002-0.472	-0.2794	-0.0252
DIFF4SH	-0.10986	0.7556E-01	-1.454		0.154-0.232	-0.2074	-0.0143
DIFF4SH	0.12991E-02	0.1320E-01	0.9840E-01		0.922 0.016	0.0024	0.0001
CONSTANT	3.2189	0.2403	13.39		0.000 0.910	0.0000	1.0682

\*Italy

### Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.4314 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3853  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 2.9496  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.7174  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 109.14  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.8978  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -78.2464

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF5	-0.24138	0.741E-01	-3.26	0.002	-1.336	9.36	0.000

VARIABLE NAME	ESTIMATED COEFFICIENT	STANDARD ERROR	T-RATIO	37 DF	PARTIAL P-VALUE	STANDARDIZED CORR. COEFFICIENT	ELASTICITY AT MEANS
DIFF5	-0.41713	0.8996E-01	-4.637		0.000-0.606	-0.7906	-0.0699
DIFF5	0.22623E-01	0.4022E-01	0.5624		0.577 0.092	0.0437	0.0025
DIFF5	0.15953	0.5835E-01	2.734		0.010 0.410	0.3092	0.0088
DIFF5	-0.64052E-02	0.1505E-01	-0.4256		0.673-0.070	-0.0124	-0.0002
CONSTANT	3.0491	0.2763	11.04		0.000 0.876	0.0000	1.0522

### Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.5407 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.5035  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 2.3826  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.5436  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 88.157  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.8978  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -73.8701

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF5SH	-0.29837	0.618E-01	-4.83	0.000	-1.523	14.5	0.000

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF5SH	-0.53531	0.9823E-01	-5.449	0.000-0.667	-1.0440	0.0898
DIFF5SH	0.25309E-01	0.3752E-01	0.6745	0.504 0.110	0.0508	-0.0058
DIFF5SH	0.20572	0.6176E-01	3.331	0.002 0.480	0.4165	-0.0581
DIFF5SH	0.59164E-02	0.1417E-01	0.4175	0.679 0.068	0.0119	-0.0018
CONSTANT	2.8455	0.2486	11.44	0.000 0.883	0.0000	0.9819

\*Netherlands

### Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.3881 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3385  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 3.5003  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.8709  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 129.51  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.9140  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -81.7554

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF6	-0.29441	0.894E-01	-3.29	0.002	-1.583	7.82	0.000

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF6	-0.53936	0.1269	-4.249	0.000-0.573	-0.8392	-0.2780
DIFF6	0.29090E-01	0.5339E-01	0.5449	0.589 0.089	0.0454	0.0145
DIFF6	0.21062	0.8460E-01	2.490	0.017 0.379	0.3287	0.1030
DIFF6	0.52365E-02	0.1547E-01	0.3384	0.737 0.056	0.0082	0.0026
CONSTANT	3.3900	0.3249	10.43	0.000 0.864	0.0000	1.1633

### Using Short-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.2599 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.1999  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 4.2334  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 2.0575  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 156.63  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.9140  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -85.6535

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF6SH	-0.27528	0.875E-01	-3.15	0.003	-0.337	4.33	0.010

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF6SH	-0.30047	0.1185	-2.535	0.016-0.385	-0.5252	-0.0170
DIFF6SH	-0.39460E-01	0.5138E-01	-0.7680	0.447-0.125	-0.0694	-0.0013
DIFF6SH	0.61684E-01	0.7898E-01	0.7810	0.440 0.127	0.1086	0.0009
DIFF6SH	0.29615E-02	0.1720E-01	0.1722	0.864 0.028	0.0052	0.0001
CONSTANT	2.9734	0.3262	9.117	0.000 0.832	0.0000	1.0204

\*Sweden

### Using Long-Term Rates

R-SQUARE = 0.3905 R-SQUARE ADJUSTED = 0.3411  
 VARIANCE OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA\*\*2 = 3.6019  
 STANDARD ERROR OF THE ESTIMATE-SIGMA = 1.8979  
 SUM OF SQUARED ERRORS-SSE= 133.27  
 MEAN OF DEPENDENT VARIABLE = 2.4876  
 LOG OF THE LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION = -82.3419

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS							
VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
DIFF7	-0.22668	0.129	-1.76	0.087	-3.136	7.90	0.000

VARIABLE	ESTIMATED	STANDARD	T-RATIO	PARTIAL STANDARDIZED		ELASTICITY
----------	-----------	----------	---------	----------------------	--	------------



NAME	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	37 DF	P-VALUE	CORR. COEFFICIENT	AT MEANS
DIFF7	-0.64480	0.1391	-4.635	0.000-0.606	-0.7492	-0.3875
DIFF7	0.11108	0.6690E-01	1.660	0.105 0.263	0.1307	0.0642
DIFF7	0.32127	0.9311E-01	3.451	0.001 0.493	0.3821	0.1750
DIFF7	-0.14231E-01	0.1596E-01	-0.8915	0.378-0.145	-0.0168	-0.0073
CONSTANT	2.8317	0.3580	7.909	0.000 0.793	0.0000	1.1383

### Chow test: Null Hypothesis: Structural stability

\*US

#### SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS

N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	0.85878E-01	163.02	0.62029	0.543	0.2002E-01	1	38	0.112
4	39	0.86482E-01	159.87	1.0166	0.371	0.1001E-01	2	37	0.010
5	38	0.59015	153.38	1.8152	0.176	0.4617E-01	3	36	0.013
6	37	1.2596	145.44	2.8703	0.069	0.7578E-01	4	35	0.011
7	36	2.4614	145.07	2.7441	0.077	0.1154	5	34	0.012
8	35	4.6123	143.87	2.6031	0.087	0.1763	6	33	0.019
9	34	4.9564	143.77	2.5664	0.090	0.1576	7	32	0.008
10	33	8.9389	134.50	3.3799	0.044	0.2575	8	31	0.025
11	32	20.452	134.20	1.7211	0.192	0.5080	9	30	0.143
12	31	20.453	131.25	2.1327	0.132	0.4519	10	29	0.093
13	30	20.876	124.71	3.0414	0.059	0.4261	11	28	0.069
14	29	33.470	110.77	3.2524	0.049	0.6799	12	27	0.245
15	28	80.301	83.140	0.57944	0.565	1.932	13	26	0.074
16	27	81.469	82.544	0.50944	0.605	1.762	14	25	0.105
17	26	81.888	82.460	0.46875	0.629	1.589	15	24	0.151
18	25	84.425	80.594	0.38744	0.681	1.506	16	23	0.181
19	24	84.453	80.554	0.38889	0.680	1.357	17	22	0.248
20	23	87.842	68.554	1.4839	0.239	1.495	18	21	0.188
21	22	88.083	66.991	1.6628	0.203	1.384	19	20	0.238
22	21	88.096	46.360	4.9081	0.013	1.805	20	19	0.102
23	20	97.730	45.450	3.4209	0.043	1.843	21	18	0.097
24	19	135.28	29.123	0.46223	0.633	3.589	22	17	0.005
25	18	139.25	28.193	0.99725E-01	0.905	3.436	23	16	0.007
26	17	139.86	28.030	0.47085E-01	0.954	3.119	24	15	0.013
27	16	141.24	26.994	0.80196E-02	0.992	2.930	25	14	0.020
28	15	143.62	23.907	0.89897E-01	0.914	3.004	26	13	0.021
29	14	143.92	23.137	0.14530	0.865	2.764	27	12	0.034
30	13	144.61	23.040	0.74845E-01	0.928	2.466	28	11	0.058
31	12	152.37	14.782	0.13380	0.875	3.554	29	10	0.020
32	11	152.37	14.782	0.13378	0.875	3.092	30	9	0.039
33	10	152.42	14.466	0.16458	0.849	2.719	31	8	0.070
34	9	153.85	13.910	0.62149E-01	0.940	2.420	32	7	0.113
35	8	153.89	13.620	0.91424E-01	0.913	2.054	33	6	0.187
36	7	154.42	13.455	0.49256E-01	0.952	1.688	34	5	0.294
37	6	156.47	11.409	0.48795E-01	0.952	1.567	35	4	0.361
38	5	157.27	9.6245	0.16395	0.849	1.362	36	3	0.462
39	4	158.87	5.2972	0.49122	0.616	1.621	37	2	0.455
40	3	159.13	0.83694E-01	1.1131	0.339	50.03	38	1	0.112

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

### Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : GROWTH1

R-SQUARE = 0.1300                      DURBIN-WATSON = 1.379

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 4    M = 2

TEST                      ASY. CRITICAL  
STATISTIC                      VALUE 10%

-----  
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND  
T-TEST                      -2.7271                      -3.04

AIC =                      1.455  
SC =                      1.670  
-----

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND                      NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : GROWTH1

R-SQUARE = 0.1301

DURBIN-WATSON = 1.385

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 4 M = 2

TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----			
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND			
T-TEST	-2.7286	-3.50	
			AIC = 1.457
			SC = 1.673

### \*Belgium

#### SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS

N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	0.11427	98.050	0.96982	0.388	0.4429E-01	1	38	0.166
4	39	1.9073	95.189	1.1950	0.314	0.3707	2	37	0.307
5	38	3.6431	95.170	0.83547	0.441	0.4594	3	36	0.288
6	37	4.7316	95.152	0.61760	0.544	0.4351	4	35	0.218
7	36	4.7548	94.806	0.68282	0.511	0.3410	5	34	0.116
8	35	4.7830	93.932	0.85565	0.433	0.2801	6	33	0.058
9	34	7.2802	86.446	1.9391	0.157	0.3850	7	32	0.096
10	33	9.0959	78.342	3.4810	0.041	0.4499	8	31	0.119
11	32	10.502	78.231	3.1456	0.054	0.4475	9	30	0.102
12	31	11.186	76.648	3.3774	0.044	0.4232	10	29	0.076
13	30	11.207	71.838	4.6967	0.015	0.3971	11	28	0.054
14	29	15.040	71.476	3.7259	0.033	0.4734	12	27	0.087
15	28	51.499	49.038	0.48669	0.618	2.100	13	26	0.052
16	27	52.116	46.757	0.82312	0.447	1.990	14	25	0.065
17	26	61.911	40.818	0.60154E-01	0.942	2.427	15	24	0.026
18	25	61.918	40.812	0.60094E-01	0.942	2.181	16	23	0.043
19	24	61.941	40.787	0.60636E-01	0.941	1.965	17	22	0.068
20	23	65.354	36.319	0.26334	0.770	2.099	18	21	0.053
21	22	66.670	35.297	0.20636	0.814	1.988	19	20	0.068
22	21	69.897	31.836	0.25174	0.779	2.086	20	19	0.058
23	20	71.376	28.867	0.54533	0.584	2.119	21	18	0.056
24	19	72.076	28.646	0.45008	0.641	1.944	22	17	0.083
25	18	72.195	28.630	0.42962	0.654	1.754	23	16	0.125
26	17	72.201	28.516	0.45113	0.640	1.582	24	15	0.180
27	16	73.058	28.240	0.33660	0.716	1.449	25	14	0.237
28	15	77.619	22.655	0.53911	0.588	1.713	26	13	0.155
29	14	77.680	21.909	0.67711	0.514	1.576	27	12	0.205
30	13	80.609	19.418	0.58869	0.560	1.631	28	11	0.198
31	12	80.828	18.897	0.64942	0.528	1.475	29	10	0.264
32	11	81.358	18.832	0.55585	0.578	1.296	30	9	0.357
33	10	85.670	15.445	0.37259	0.691	1.431	31	8	0.310
34	9	87.509	11.930	0.70748	0.499	1.605	32	7	0.267
35	8	88.538	10.659	0.75680	0.476	1.510	33	6	0.320
36	7	89.219	10.659	0.61860	0.544	1.231	34	5	0.451
37	6	89.449	8.8940	0.93257	0.402	1.149	35	4	0.508
38	5	89.725	8.6914	0.91737	0.408	0.8603	36	3	0.337
39	4	89.725	7.0096	1.2723	0.292	0.6919	37	2	0.249
40	3	90.436	0.56678	2.5806	0.089	4.199	38	1	0.372

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

### Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF2

R-SQUARE = 0.3907

DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5825

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%	
-----		
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND		
Z-TEST	-12.002	-17.1
T-TEST	-2.5311	-3.04

AIC = 1.159  
 SC = 1.201

-----  
 COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND NO.OBS = 43  
 REGRESSAND : DIFF2

R-SQUARE = 0.4982 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5018

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 6 M = 2

TEST ASY. CRITICAL  
 STATISTIC VALUE 10%

-----  
 NO CONSTANT, NO TREND

T-TEST -1.4655 -3.50

AIC = 1.103  
 SC = 1.411  
 -----

\*Denmark

SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANTD TESTS

N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	2.7043	125.02	0.67589	0.515	0.8219	1	38	0.630
4	39	5.2309	114.94	1.9440	0.157	0.8419	2	37	0.561
5	38	5.4248	114.78	1.9387	0.158	0.5672	3	36	0.360
6	37	5.6018	114.42	1.9712	0.153	0.4284	4	35	0.213
7	36	6.1447	114.40	1.8790	0.166	0.3653	5	34	0.131
8	35	6.3416	114.37	1.8484	0.171	0.3050	6	33	0.070
9	34	10.342	106.57	2.5430	0.092	0.4436	7	32	0.133
10	33	12.083	106.57	2.2196	0.122	0.4394	8	31	0.112
11	32	12.124	106.47	2.2294	0.121	0.3796	9	30	0.064
12	31	12.177	105.77	2.3484	0.109	0.3338	10	29	0.036
13	30	12.841	104.33	2.4941	0.096	0.3133	11	28	0.023
14	29	14.733	91.948	4.6563	0.015	0.3605	12	27	0.033
15	28	36.688	65.607	5.6921	0.007	1.118	13	26	0.388
16	27	55.282	54.086	4.0631	0.025	1.825	14	25	0.092
17	26	64.247	54.022	2.2896	0.115	1.903	15	24	0.077
18	25	72.649	52.978	1.0133	0.372	1.971	16	23	0.067
19	24	79.475	50.633	0.30687	0.738	2.031	17	22	0.060
20	23	79.934	50.361	0.27845	0.758	1.852	18	21	0.088
21	22	83.605	38.901	1.5359	0.228	2.262	19	20	0.039
22	21	86.783	38.596	1.0539	0.358	2.136	20	19	0.052
23	20	86.887	38.596	1.0369	0.364	1.930	21	18	0.082
24	19	91.370	36.476	0.65730	0.524	1.936	22	17	0.084
25	18	94.856	33.384	0.59536	0.556	1.977	23	16	0.082
26	17	101.00	26.148	0.76842	0.471	2.414	24	15	0.040
27	16	101.00	26.114	0.77364	0.468	2.166	25	14	0.067
28	15	101.02	26.094	0.77385	0.468	1.936	26	13	0.106
29	14	104.57	23.183	0.67165	0.517	2.005	27	12	0.103
30	13	104.61	22.802	0.72634	0.490	1.802	28	11	0.152
31	12	104.66	22.403	0.78185	0.465	1.611	29	10	0.216
32	11	104.69	21.890	0.85894	0.431	1.435	30	9	0.294
33	10	104.98	19.077	1.2724	0.292	1.420	31	8	0.314
34	9	109.79	6.4806	2.6643	0.082	3.706	32	7	0.039
35	8	112.41	6.4779	2.1766	0.127	3.155	33	6	0.077
36	7	112.43	6.4676	2.1744	0.127	2.556	34	5	0.149
37	6	112.48	5.6232	2.3206	0.112	2.286	35	4	0.219
38	5	112.56	4.6524	2.4860	0.096	2.016	36	3	0.313
39	4	112.85	2.4819	2.8445	0.070	2.458	37	2	0.331
40	3	118.93	1.7172	1.8608	0.169	1.823	38	1	0.537

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
 REGRESSAND : DIFF3

R-SQUARE = 0.4864 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.7655

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 5 M = 2

TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----			
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND			
T-TEST	-1.3505	-3.04	
			AIC = 1.231
			SC = 1.492
-----			
COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND		NO.OBS = 43	
REGRESSAND : DIFF3			
R-SQUARE = 0.5217		DURBIN-WATSON = 0.7187	
DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 5		M = 2	
TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----			
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND			
T-TEST	-1.0354	-3.50	
			AIC = 1.119
			SC = 1.380
-----			

\*France

SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS									
N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	0.59417	74.324	0.71430	0.496	0.3038	1	38	0.415
4	39	0.86492	71.586	1.4026	0.258	0.2235	2	37	0.199
5	38	2.2006	70.639	1.2912	0.286	0.3738	3	36	0.228
6	37	2.2010	67.507	2.2252	0.122	0.2853	4	35	0.114
7	36	2.2916	65.333	2.8946	0.067	0.2385	5	34	0.057
8	35	3.0641	64.851	2.7987	0.073	0.2599	6	33	0.048
9	34	4.1021	59.158	4.4397	0.018	0.3170	7	32	0.059
10	33	4.6546	52.358	7.0629	0.002	0.3445	8	31	0.059
11	32	4.9879	50.343	7.8704	0.001	0.3303	9	30	0.042
12	31	6.1349	49.438	7.7511	0.001	0.3599	10	29	0.046
13	30	6.1518	45.149	10.020	0.000	0.3468	11	28	0.034
14	29	10.475	45.119	7.7406	0.001	0.5224	12	27	0.119
15	28	39.410	31.543	1.8438	0.172	2.499	13	26	0.023
16	27	40.451	31.514	1.5437	0.226	2.292	14	25	0.034
17	26	41.488	31.490	1.2517	0.297	2.108	15	24	0.050
18	25	43.148	31.452	0.80052	0.456	1.972	16	23	0.067
19	24	44.362	31.428	0.48175	0.621	1.827	17	22	0.092
20	23	46.242	30.907	0.12995	0.879	1.746	18	21	0.111
21	22	47.408	29.911	0.86729E-01	0.917	1.668	19	20	0.132
22	21	47.577	29.748	0.85195E-01	0.919	1.519	20	19	0.183
23	20	48.186	28.559	0.23311	0.793	1.446	21	18	0.216
24	19	48.194	28.141	0.33892	0.715	1.323	22	17	0.280
25	18	48.199	27.891	0.40293	0.671	1.202	23	16	0.358
26	17	48.270	27.537	0.47728	0.624	1.096	24	15	0.438
27	16	51.048	26.152	0.11686	0.890	1.093	25	14	0.444
28	15	55.486	22.129	0.11958E-01	0.988	1.254	26	13	0.343
29	14	58.522	18.234	0.23018	0.795	1.426	27	12	0.263
30	13	59.763	15.121	0.72347	0.491	1.553	28	11	0.224
31	12	60.235	15.015	0.62519	0.540	1.383	29	10	0.303
32	11	60.235	13.734	0.97385	0.387	1.316	30	9	0.347
33	10	66.102	11.082	0.12093	0.886	1.539	31	8	0.270
34	9	66.197	11.082	0.96890E-01	0.908	1.307	32	7	0.380
35	8	66.197	10.734	0.18541	0.831	1.121	33	6	0.488
36	7	66.318	10.472	0.22160	0.802	0.9313	34	5	0.392
37	6	66.395	10.467	0.20294	0.817	0.7249	35	4	0.261
38	5	66.755	10.060	0.21492	0.808	0.5530	36	3	0.163
39	4	68.340	1.7339	2.1118	0.135	2.130	37	2	0.371
40	3	69.477	1.6619	1.7882	0.181	1.100	38	1	0.654

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF4

R-SQUARE = 0.4929

DURBIN-WATSON = 0.6135

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----				
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-12.781	-17.1	
	T-TEST	-2.6764	-3.04	
				AIC = 0.854
				SC = 0.895

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF4

R-SQUARE = 0.6572

DURBIN-WATSON = 0.7151

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----				
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-15.030	-23.4	
	T-TEST	-2.8872	-3.50	
				AIC = 0.592
				SC = 0.633

\*Italy

SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS

N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	0.53383	115.56	2.6785	0.081	0.1755	1	38	0.322
4	39	10.678	115.45	0.91440	0.409	1.711	2	37	0.195
5	38	11.137	115.41	0.84580	0.437	1.158	3	36	0.339
6	37	13.210	108.97	1.5741	0.220	1.061	4	35	0.390
7	36	18.293	93.994	3.4305	0.042	1.323	5	34	0.278
8	35	20.635	79.765	6.1454	0.005	1.423	6	33	0.236
9	34	20.992	70.291	8.7069	0.001	1.365	7	32	0.254
10	33	21.153	65.580	10.187	0.000	1.250	8	31	0.305
11	32	28.950	65.418	7.7847	0.001	1.475	9	30	0.202
12	31	31.543	65.217	7.1100	0.002	1.403	10	29	0.228
13	30	32.841	62.909	7.3905	0.002	1.329	11	28	0.261
14	29	38.534	62.332	6.0267	0.005	1.391	12	27	0.230
15	28	82.128	38.258	1.8879	0.165	4.293	13	26	0.001
16	27	82.293	36.738	2.1313	0.132	4.000	14	25	0.001
17	26	88.911	34.540	1.3569	0.269	4.119	15	24	0.001
18	25	89.475	34.473	1.2732	0.291	3.731	16	23	0.002
19	24	90.029	30.800	1.8093	0.177	3.783	17	22	0.002
20	23	92.643	30.800	1.3582	0.269	3.509	18	21	0.003
21	22	104.12	25.649	0.34182	0.713	4.273	19	20	0.001
22	21	107.17	24.131	0.10999	0.896	4.219	20	19	0.001
23	20	108.24	23.529	0.39673E-01	0.961	3.943	21	18	0.002
24	19	108.24	23.464	0.49346E-01	0.952	3.565	22	17	0.005
25	18	108.86	22.452	0.10892	0.897	3.373	23	16	0.008
26	17	108.96	22.451	0.92935E-01	0.911	3.033	24	15	0.015
27	16	109.71	20.923	0.21056	0.811	2.936	25	14	0.020
28	15	111.76	16.576	0.56301	0.574	3.371	26	13	0.013
29	14	112.22	14.671	0.79146	0.460	3.400	27	12	0.015
30	13	113.29	14.631	0.62831	0.539	3.042	28	11	0.028
31	12	113.54	14.624	0.59010	0.559	2.677	29	10	0.052
32	11	113.60	14.623	0.58015	0.565	2.331	30	9	0.091
33	10	117.43	8.0732	1.0159	0.371	3.754	31	8	0.028
34	9	117.61	8.0028	0.99854	0.378	3.215	32	7	0.056
35	8	119.56	7.0891	0.83083	0.443	3.066	33	6	0.082
36	7	120.02	6.9859	0.77345	0.468	2.526	34	5	0.152
37	6	120.08	6.0314	0.91606	0.409	2.275	35	4	0.221
38	5	121.26	6.0292	0.72729	0.490	1.676	36	3	0.379
39	4	121.41	5.4767	0.79241	0.460	1.198	37	2	0.558
40	3	121.52	2.0282	1.3406	0.273	1.577	38	1	0.569

### Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
 REGRESSAND : DIFF5

R-SQUARE = 0.4224 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.4538

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----				
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-9.6552	-17.1	
	T-TEST	-2.3123	-3.04	
				AIC = 1.444
				SC = 1.486

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND NO.OBS = 43  
 REGRESSAND : DIFF5

R-SQUARE = 0.5140 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5602

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
-----				
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-11.885	-23.4	
	T-TEST	-2.5677	-3.50	
				AIC = 1.456
				SC = 1.497

### \*Netherlands

#### SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS

N1	N2	SSE1	SSE2	CHOW	PVALUE	G-Q	DF1	DF2	PVALUE
3	40	0.48356E-01	145.84	0.15976E-01	0.984	0.1260E-01	1	38	0.089
4	39	0.59270	141.88	0.48378	0.620	0.7728E-01	2	37	0.074
5	38	0.65258	141.38	0.54650	0.583	0.5539E-01	3	36	0.017
6	37	1.3478	140.67	0.54809	0.582	0.8383E-01	4	35	0.013
7	36	3.2825	137.32	0.74983	0.479	0.1625	5	34	0.025
8	35	5.8932	131.53	1.2185	0.307	0.2464	6	33	0.043
9	34	7.4210	123.81	2.1955	0.125	0.2740	7	32	0.040
10	33	8.1524	119.03	2.8875	0.068	0.2654	8	31	0.027
11	32	11.448	118.95	2.3352	0.110	0.3208	9	30	0.038
12	31	18.094	118.59	1.3312	0.276	0.4425	10	29	0.087
13	30	18.283	115.32	1.8105	0.177	0.4035	11	28	0.057
14	29	18.394	113.99	2.0076	0.148	0.3631	12	27	0.034
15	28	42.417	97.016	0.91994	0.407	0.8744	13	26	0.413
16	27	42.602	93.038	1.4909	0.238	0.8177	14	25	0.355
17	26	42.717	93.033	1.4740	0.241	0.7347	15	24	0.271
18	25	42.717	92.917	1.4919	0.238	0.6609	16	23	0.199
19	24	48.110	91.843	0.84412	0.438	0.6779	17	22	0.209
20	23	48.124	91.141	0.94460	0.398	0.6160	18	21	0.152
21	22	49.739	80.213	2.4098	0.103	0.6527	19	20	0.179
22	21	52.748	66.934	4.2898	0.021	0.7487	20	19	0.263
23	20	54.787	66.900	3.8978	0.029	0.7019	21	18	0.217
24	19	60.977	66.128	2.9005	0.067	0.7125	22	17	0.225
25	18	61.020	64.529	3.1782	0.053	0.6578	23	16	0.175
26	17	65.814	64.292	2.3837	0.106	0.6398	24	15	0.160
27	16	72.594	64.176	1.3175	0.279	0.6334	25	14	0.155
28	15	73.207	64.134	1.2309	0.303	0.5707	26	13	0.108
29	14	80.516	57.050	1.1971	0.313	0.6272	27	12	0.153
30	13	80.878	57.009	1.1491	0.327	0.5573	28	11	0.103
31	12	81.747	56.491	1.0965	0.344	0.4990	29	10	0.070
32	11	82.114	55.096	1.2508	0.298	0.4471	30	9	0.048
33	10	82.643	53.574	1.4021	0.258	0.3981	31	8	0.031
34	9	83.086	51.888	1.5946	0.216	0.3503	32	7	0.020

35	8	84.894	50.069	1.5963	0.216	0.3083	33	6	0.013
36	7	84.928	49.905	1.6166	0.212	0.2503	34	5	0.006
37	6	87.739	37.687	3.2003	0.052	0.2661	35	4	0.012
38	5	90.831	37.639	2.6625	0.082	0.2011	36	3	0.005
39	4	98.159	7.2298	7.5164	0.002	0.7339	37	2	0.269
40	3	98.161	0.24026	9.4347	0.000	10.75	38	1	0.238

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

### Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF6

R-SQUARE = 0.3118 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5170

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-10.502	-17.1	
	T-TEST	-2.3289	-3.04	
				AIC = 1.398
				SC = 1.440

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF6

R-SQUARE = 0.4316 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5047

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-10.179	-23.4	
	T-TEST	-2.2291	-3.50	
				AIC = 1.193
				SC = 1.234

|\_COINT DIFF6SH GROWTH6 / TYPE=RESD  
OBSERVATION 1 IS SKIPPED BECAUSE DIFF6SH MISSING  
OBSERVATION 45 IS SKIPPED BECAUSE DIFF6SH MISSING  
OBSERVATION 1 IS SKIPPED BECAUSE GROWTH6 MISSING  
...NOTE..SAMPLE RANGE SET TO: 1, 45

REQUIRED MEMORY IS PAR= 23 CURRENT PAR= 2000  
...NOTE..TEST LAG ORDER AUTOMATICALLY SET

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF6SH

R-SQUARE = 0.2429 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.5811

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 0 M = 2

	TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%		
NO CONSTANT, NO TREND				
	Z-TEST	-12.016	-17.1	
	T-TEST	-2.5497	-3.04	
				AIC = 1.829
				SC = 1.871

### \*Sweden

SEQUENTIAL CHOW AND GOLDFELD-QUANDT TESTS  
N1 N2 SSE1 SSE2 CHOW PVALUE G-Q DF1 DF2 PVALUE

3	40	0.96861	168.53	0.66372	0.521	0.2184	1	38	0.357
4	39	1.0055	161.59	1.5190	0.232	0.1151	2	37	0.108
5	38	2.0789	161.37	1.4099	0.256	0.1546	3	36	0.074
6	37	2.8274	160.78	1.3892	0.261	0.1539	4	35	0.040
7	36	3.7427	160.78	1.2730	0.291	0.1583	5	34	0.024
8	35	8.9861	158.31	0.92866	0.404	0.3122	6	33	0.074
9	34	11.234	152.28	1.4013	0.258	0.3372	7	32	0.069
10	33	13.939	140.61	2.6132	0.086	0.3841	8	31	0.079
11	32	20.601	138.84	1.9350	0.158	0.4946	9	30	0.134
12	31	23.137	138.73	1.6134	0.212	0.4836	10	29	0.113
13	30	23.799	137.70	1.6614	0.203	0.4399	11	28	0.076
14	29	26.842	137.70	1.2703	0.292	0.4386	12	27	0.067
15	28	36.112	134.90	0.48465	0.620	0.5354	13	26	0.119
16	27	45.817	126.15	0.37355	0.691	0.6485	14	25	0.201
17	26	66.219	107.08	0.22109	0.803	0.9895	15	24	0.505
18	25	68.123	102.11	0.57591	0.567	0.9590	16	23	0.475
19	24	69.378	102.08	0.43222	0.652	0.8795	17	22	0.399
20	23	72.379	93.053	1.1589	0.324	0.9075	18	21	0.421
21	22	73.508	89.982	1.4042	0.258	0.8599	19	20	0.373
22	21	73.813	86.893	1.7664	0.184	0.8070	20	19	0.319
23	20	74.107	81.279	2.4944	0.096	0.7815	21	18	0.292
24	19	79.899	80.893	1.7550	0.186	0.7632	22	17	0.272
25	18	84.126	78.278	1.5440	0.226	0.7476	23	16	0.256
26	17	86.178	78.227	1.2878	0.287	0.6885	24	15	0.201
27	16	93.240	70.438	1.3802	0.264	0.7413	25	14	0.249
28	15	94.051	68.987	1.4622	0.244	0.6817	26	13	0.196
29	14	94.126	68.903	1.4633	0.244	0.6071	27	12	0.137
30	13	95.294	68.757	1.3328	0.275	0.5445	28	11	0.095
31	12	109.76	48.112	2.1484	0.130	0.7866	29	10	0.291
32	11	113.90	47.477	1.6777	0.200	0.7197	30	9	0.237
33	10	125.47	24.676	3.2628	0.049	1.312	31	8	0.362
34	9	145.45	16.801	1.5633	0.222	1.894	32	7	0.193
35	8	155.41	12.601	0.84114	0.439	2.242	33	6	0.157
36	7	155.87	12.325	0.81943	0.448	1.860	34	5	0.254
37	6	156.33	12.229	0.77558	0.467	1.461	35	4	0.392
38	5	161.85	10.140	0.37123	0.692	1.330	36	3	0.471
39	4	169.01	5.9908	0.29143E-01	0.971	1.525	37	2	0.475
40	3	173.61	0.89051	0.84755E-01	0.919	5.131	38	1	0.339

CHOW TEST - F DISTRIBUTION WITH DF1= 2 AND DF2= 39

## Unit root test

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, NO TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF7

R-SQUARE = 0.2419 DURBIN-WATSON = 0.7208

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 1 M = 2

TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%
----------------	-------------------------

NO CONSTANT, NO TREND

T-TEST -1.8831 -3.04

AIC = 1.169  
SC = 1.252

COINTEGRATING REGRESSION - CONSTANT, TREND NO.OBS = 43  
REGRESSAND : DIFF7

R-SQUARE = 0.5222 DURBIN-WATSON = 1.151

DICKEY-FULLER TESTS ON RESIDUALS - NO.LAGS = 1 M = 2

TEST STATISTIC	ASY. CRITICAL VALUE 10%
----------------	-------------------------

NO CONSTANT, NO TREND

T-TEST -2.4055 -3.50

AIC = 1.137  
SC = 1.220



```

| * Testing for Granger causality
| | * Consider a VAR(3) model
| | _SAMPLE 1 42

```

\*US

```

| *Test H0: DIFF1 does not Granger-cause GROWTH1
| | *The test statistic is the JOINT-F on DIFF1

```

```

| _ols GROWTH1 GROWTH1(1.3) DIFF1(1.3)
TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH1	-0.17196	0.294	-0.584	0.563	4.002	0.979	0.415
DIFF1	-0.80532E-01	0.165	-0.488	0.629	-3.008	0.382	0.767

```

| *Test H0: GROWTH1 does not Granger-cause DIFF1
| | *The test statistic is the JOINT-F ON GROWTH1

```

```

| _ols DIFF1 GROWTH1(1.3) DIFF1(1.3)
TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH1	0.27988	0.182	1.54	0.133	0.702	4.21	0.013
DIFF1	0.91864	0.102	9.02	0.000	1.058	28.2	0.000

\*Belgium

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH2	0.21429	0.319	0.672	0.506	2.213	0.604	0.617
DIFF2	-0.15300	0.146	-1.05	0.301	0.178	0.639	0.595

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH2	-0.27259	0.288	-0.945	0.352	3.570	3.65	0.023
DIFF2	0.73783	0.132	5.60	0.000	0.804	14.9	0.000

\*Denmark

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH3	-0.28477	0.327	-0.872	0.390	0.868	1.01	0.403
DIFF3	-0.57781	0.202	-2.86	0.007	1.114	3.88	0.018

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH3	0.41374	0.253	1.63	0.112	0.514	5.97	0.002
DIFF3	1.0614	0.157	6.77	0.000	1.439	20.5	0.000

\*France

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH4	0.53315	0.205	2.60	0.014	1.452	2.33	0.093
DIFF4	-0.13739	0.118	-1.16	0.253	0.178	0.812	0.497

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH4	-0.18820E-02	0.210	-0.896E-02	0.993	263.494	2.07	0.123
DIFF4	0.81235	0.121	6.73	0.000	1.123	17.4	0.000

\*Italy

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH5	0.61019	0.249	2.45	0.020	1.188	3.25	0.034
DIFF5	0.12670E-01	0.105	0.121	0.904	-30.872	2.28	0.098

```

TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

```

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH5	0.45531E-02	0.376	0.121E-01	0.990	-11.689	0.902	0.451
DIFF5	0.77601	0.158	4.91	0.000	1.596	9.28	0.000

## \*Netherlands

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH6	0.21452	0.311	0.690	0.495	2.316	0.382	0.767
DIFF6	-0.16594	0.134	-1.24	0.224	0.012	2.60	0.069

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH6	-0.93444E-01	0.333	-0.280	0.781	5.452	1.07	0.374
DIFF6	0.82103	0.143	5.72	0.000	1.056	15.3	0.000

## \*Sweden

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH7	0.65304	0.210	3.10	0.004	1.210	5.05	0.006
DIFF7	0.12074	0.143	0.847	0.403	-0.704	2.97	0.046

### TESTS ON LAGGED COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLE	SUM(COEFS)	STD ERROR	T-RATIO	P-VALUE	MEAN LAG	JOINT-F	P-VALUE
GROWTH7	-0.27446	0.231	-1.19	0.243	1.837	1.44	0.250
DIFF7	0.67790	0.156	4.34	0.000	1.990	8.40	0.000