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INTRA-GENERATIONAL EXTERNALITIES AND INTER-GENERATIONAL TRANSFERS

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Abstract

In an environment with asymmetric information the implementation of a first-best efficient Clarke-Groves-Vickrey (D’Aspremont-Gérard-Varet) mechanism may not be feasible if it has to be self-financing. By using intergenerational transfers, the arising budget deficit can generally be covered in every generation if the growth rate of the economy is positive. This result yields an alternative explanation for the existence of pay-as-you-go financed transfer mechanisms.

JEL Code: D82, H23, H55.

Keywords: pay-as-you-go, externalities, mechanism design, adverse selection.

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1 Introduction

In this paper we show that making use of intergenerational transfers can be necessary and sufficient to achieve a Pareto improvement if otherwise non-internalizable intragenerational externalities exist. In order to generate intragenerational externalities that are not a consequence of an ad-hoc restriction of the set of admissible mechanisms, we use an environment with asymmetric information. For this class of problems the realization of intragenerational gains from trade – or, what is the same, the internalization of intragenerational externalities – is not trivial because mechanisms cannot be directly contingent on the information parameters of the problem. Our argument that intergenerational transfers can improve the allocation is based on the relaxation of participation constraints that hold if a generation tries to implement a potentially Pareto-improving mechanism. Although it is difficult to find externalities that have no intergenerational component in practice, a number of externalities in production and consumption mostly affect adults in their working age. It is therefore worthwhile to analyze the limiting case in which intergenerational components do not exist.

To be more specific, suppose that individuals can take actions that affect – through some arbitrary channel – the well-being of other individuals in the same generation. While the actions are observable, the types that may, for example, determine the psychic and monetary costs associated with these actions are private information. A government tries to implement a mechanism which induces every individual to take an action that yields in combination an efficient allocation. However, the implementation of a mechanism has to ensure that everybody is at least as well off as in a reference allocation without this mechanism. This requirement does not create a problem if individuals are sufficiently similar. With efficiency gains approximately equally distributed, everybody is willing to pay a lump sum that finances the incentive payments of a direct mechanism. Having a more differentiated population often implies a situation in which some individuals have a rather low willingness to pay for achieving a proposed efficient allocation. In the asymmetric information framework, these individuals cannot be identified ex ante and compensated accordingly. Consequently, some types earn information rents, and the maximum lump sum that can be collected may not cover the expenses for the incentive payments in full. As a result, the transfer mechanism is not feasible if it has to be self-financing.
Intergenerational transfers from the young to the old can close the gap between necessary expenses and the maximum revenue that can be collected without harming anyone in the old generation. This can take the form of a pay-as-you-go pension entitlement for the old being contingent on actions taken during their working life, a flat pension benefit, or public debt in general. However, the problem to finance the budget deficit of the mechanism arises again for the young who may face the same structure of intragenerational externalities as in the predecessor generation and who, in addition, have to be compensated for the transfer they have given to the old. It is shown that the resulting scheme of intra- and intergenerational transfers is sustainable if the economy exhibits a positive growth rate and if, in addition, this growth rate exceeds the growth rate of the minimum budget deficit necessary to achieve efficiency.

Our contribution adds a new argument to the literature dealing with the Pareto-improving role of intergenerational transfers. This literature has put forward four lines of argument to show that intergenerational transfers may be necessary to Pareto-improve the allocation of an intertemporal economy.

The first argument is based on the dynamic inefficiency of an overlapping-generations economy if individual preferences for old-age consumption are sufficiently strong. High rates of private savings may imply a capital stock that is too high. Channelling savings away from the capital market is thus a means to make every generation better off (Samuelson, 1958).

Second, in an economy with exogenous interest rate intergenerational transfers play the role of a chain letter. As long as some type of transversality condition is not violated and no last period exists, intergenerational transfers can make every generation better off (Spremann, 1984).

Third, Merton (1983) argues that if the risks on capital and labor markets are not perfectly and positively correlated, it may be useful to introduce some element of pay-as-you-go financed intergenerational redistribution in order to efficiently hedge risks.

Fourth, intergenerational externalities, for example in the form of human capital investments between parents and children (Peters, 1995; Kolmar, 1997; Sinn, 2000), in the form of technological externalities because of increasing returns to scale (Wigger, 2001), or in the form of the exploitation of a non-renewable resource create a sufficient argument in favor of intergenerational transfers. In each case intergenera-
tional gains from trade exist. These gains can be captured by implementing a scheme in which the older generation receives a pay-as-you-go pension as a compensation for sacrificing consumption opportunities during the working period in favour of the younger generation. Intergenerational transfers are necessary to achieve a Pareto improvement because the generation that has to make the sacrifice would inevitably be worse off if it changed its incentive scheme as to internalize the externality without transfers.

Our contribution may be seen as turning around an argument from the debate on Pareto-improvements by abolishing a pay-as-you-go scheme being financed by distortionary taxation (Breyer, 1989; Homburg, 1990; Fenge, 1995; Brunner, 1996). Gains for each generation may be realized by getting rid of static inefficiencies that would not exist without the pay-as-you-go scheme. Conversely, in our framework it is the introduction of the pay-as-you-go scheme that enables the economy to remove externalities. Hence, abolishing it can create static inefficiencies that could otherwise be internalized.

The remainder of our paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we introduce the basic model of intragenerational externalities in an economy characterized by intertemporally segregated generations and a structure of asymmetric information. Section 3 describes the set of Pareto-efficient allocations and first-best mechanisms that induce one of these allocations. Subsequently, section 4 discusses participation constraints and presents a necessary and sufficient condition under which a self-financing first-best mechanism is no longer feasible. Section 5 analyzes the issue of sustainability when both intragenerational and intergenerational transfers are used to achieve a first-best allocation. After discussing an example in section 6, the final section 7 concludes.

2 The model

We consider a discrete time model in which we have a sequence $t = 1, ..., \infty$ of periods. In every period of time there lives a number $m^t$ of individuals, constituting generation $t$. Our assumption that generations do not overlap represents a reduced form of a standard overlapping-generations framework in which no intergenerational spillovers exist except for potential transfers. This convention is used in order to keep the notation as simple as possible. Focusing on intragenerational externalities, we
stress that choices of individuals do not affect previous or succeeding generations. In an extension, we borrow from the standard overlapping-generations model the property of possible transfers from younger to older generations. In every period \( t \), an individual \( i = 1, \ldots, m^t \) is characterized by her type \( \theta^t_i \in \Theta^t_i \subset \mathbb{R} \). This type is her private information. Denote by \( \theta^t \) the vector of realized types \( \{ \theta^t_1, \ldots, \theta^t_m \} \), being an element of the set of potential type profiles \( \Theta^t = \Theta^t_1 \times \ldots \times \Theta^t_m \). For convenience we assume that the type determines the utility function of an individual, \( U(., \theta^t_i) \). The probability distribution governing nature’s choice of types is common knowledge.

Every individual can choose an action \( a^t_i \) from a set of possible actions \( A^t_i \). The vector of actions is denoted by \( a^t = \{ a^t_1, \ldots, a^t_m \} = \{ a^t_i, a^t_{i-} \} \), and \( A^t = A^t_1 \times \ldots \times A^t_m \) is the collection of action sets in period \( t \). The utility of an individual depends both on the choices of all individuals in her generation, \( a^t \), and on a transfer \( b^t_i \in \mathbb{R} \), \( b^t = \{ b^t_1, \ldots, b^t_m \} \in B^t = \mathbb{R}^{m^t} \) of a storable private good. This formulation of an allocation problem allows for a very general structure of spillovers and types of goods that are traded within the economy. Virtually any type of intragenerational interdependency between individual actions and utilities can be interpreted as a special case of the above specification, ranging from perfectly rival to perfectly non-rival goods.

In our basic setup, we abstain from intergenerational transfers. This implies that the transfer budget must be balanced in every period:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m^t} b^t_i = 0, \quad t = 1, \ldots, \tag{1}
\]

The utility function of an individual is given by

\[
U(a^t, b^t_i, \theta^t_i) = v(a^t, \theta^t_i) + b^t_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m^t. \tag{2}
\]

In accordance with the literature on mechanism design, the utility function is assumed to be additively separable between \( a^t \) and \( b^t_i \) and linear in the latter argument. The first component \( v \) will be called action utility. It fulfills the single-crossing property,

\[
v(a^t_i, a^t_{i-}, \hat{\theta}^t_i) - v(\bar{a}^t_i, a^t_{i-}, \hat{\theta}^t_i) > v(a^t_i, a^t_{i-}, \hat{\theta}^t_i) - v(\bar{a}^t_i, \bar{a}^t_{i-}, \tilde{\theta}^t_i) \iff \hat{\theta}^t_i > \tilde{\theta}^t_i \land a^t_i \neq \bar{a}^t_i, \tag{3}
\]

which generates convenient monotonicity properties (Milgrom, 2004).
In the following we analyze the case that generations are intertemporally separated. This means that the choices made by members of generation $t$ have no impact on the economic environment or the number of individuals in period $t + 1$ or any other future period. In addition, we assume that intergenerational transfers are absent in the initial situation prior to the implementation of an efficient mechanism. In this reference allocation individual $i$ in period $t$ achieves a utility level of $U_i^M(\theta^t)$, where the vector of reservation utilities in period $t$ is denoted by $U^M(\theta^t) = \{U_1^M(\theta^t), ..., U_m^M(\theta^t)\}$. This initial situation can have various interpretations. In a positive interpretation of the model it can range from anarchy to a private-property economy, or any form of a more explicit institutional structure that generates a potentially inefficient outcome. In a normative contractarian interpretation of the model, it can be a situation of ideal equality under a veil of ignorance (Rawls, 1971). Irrespective of the precise interpretation of this initial situation, it leads to a vector of reservation utilities for every individual in each generation. This vector specifies a minimum acceptance point for every individual in the sense that every allocation that generates a lower level of utility can be blocked.

To summarize, an economy is characterized by $\{m^t, U, U^M, \Theta^t, A^t, B^t\}_{t=1,...}$. The optimal allocation for every period $t$ can be characterized as follows:

$$\max_{a(\theta^t), b(\theta^t)} \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} (v(a(\theta^t), \theta^t_i) + b^t_i(\theta^t_i)) = \max_{a(\theta^t)} \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} v(a(\theta^t), \theta^t_i). \quad (4)$$

In general, the optimal choice of $a^t$ will be a function of $\theta^t$ because otherwise
the type would be irrelevant. Denote by \( a^* = a^*(\theta^t) \) such an optimal solution and
by \( P(\theta^t) \) the maximum sum of utilities. The linear terms \( b^*(\theta^t) \) are indeterminate
within a certain range and will be used to control incentives.

We are looking for conditions under which intergenerational redistribution is
necessary and sufficient for a Pareto improvement. It is therefore necessary to assume
that every generation chooses an institutional structure that is as efficient as
possible, given that no transfers between generations occur. Any argument in favor
of intergenerational redistribution that is not based on an inevitable friction of
the intratemporal problem is ad hoc in the sense that a better organization of the
intratemporal allocation problem would be an alternative to intertemporal redistribu-
tion.

In order to implement \( a^t \) the society can use a period-\( t \) mechanism \( M^t = \{ S^t, f \} \)
that assigns strategy sets \( S^t = \{ S^t_1, ..., S^t_m^t \} \) to every individual \( i = 1, ..., m^t \) in
period \( t \) and a mapping \( f : S^t \rightarrow (a^t, b^t) \) that selects a choice vector \( a^t \) for any given
vector of strategies \( s^t \). We call an allocation \( (a^t, b^t) \) Bayesian implementable if it is
a Bayesian-Nash equilibrium of the game induced by mechanism \( M^t \).

We know from standard implementation theory that every choice vector \( a^t \) that
can be implemented by an arbitrary mechanism can also be implemented by a direct
mechanism \( M^t_d = \{ \Theta^t, (a^t, b^t) \} \) (Mas Collell, Whinston and Green, 1995). Because
we want to focus on the role of intergenerational transfers under ideal institutional
structures we will therefore restrict attention to optimal direct mechanisms in the
following.

Our analysis follows the approach of Makowski and Mezzetti (1994) who contrary
to most of their predecessors first look at conditions under which the incentive
compatibility constraints are fulfilled and then analyze the participation constraints.
This way of dealing with the problem is analytically easy to handle and is more ade-
quate to our problem than the alternative approach to assume that the participation
constraints are fulfilled and then check for the incentive compatibility constraints.
We will first characterize the first-best efficient direct mechanism. In the next sec-
tion we investigate the conditions under which a Pareto-improving implementation
of this mechanism is or is not possible. The latter case defines necessary conditions
for the Pareto-improving role of intergenerational transfers. In order to complete
our argument in favor of intergenerational transfers we finally have to characterize
conditions under which a scheme of intra- and intergenerational transfers is also
sustainable.

Denote by $E^t[.]$ the non-contingent expected value and by $E^t_t[.]$ the contingent expected value of $[.]$ for a given type $\theta_i^t$, $i = 1, ..., m^t$. A Bayesian-Nash equilibrium of the direct mechanism $M^t_d$ is a vector of strategies $\theta^t$ such that

$$E^t_i [U(a^t(\theta^t), b^t_i(\theta^t), \theta^t_i)] \geq E^t_i [U(a^t(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), b^t_i(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), \theta^t_i)]$$

$$\forall \hat{\theta}^t_i \in \Theta^t_i \forall i = 1, ..., m^t. \tag{5}$$

It is now straightforward to characterize the properties of an efficient direct mechanism. In order to implement $a^t^*(\theta^t)$, individuals need to have an incentive to reveal their true type $\theta^t_i$.

**Lemma 1:** Any efficient direct mechanism involves a transfer rule obeying

$$b^t_i(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}) = E^t_i \left[ \sum_{j \neq i} v(a^t(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), \theta^t_j) \right] + \gamma^t_i, \quad i = 1, ..., m^t, \tag{6}$$

where $\gamma^t_i$ is a constant.

**Proof.** Compare the condition for an efficient allocation (4) with the individual condition for rational behavior in a Bayesian-Nash equilibrium, (5). Recalling the utility function (2) then shows that both problems coincide if and only if $b^t$ fulfills (6). With this transfer the individual maximization problem reads:

$$\max_{\hat{\theta}^t_i \in \Theta^t_i} E^t_i \left[ v(a^t(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), \theta^t_i) + \sum_{j \neq i} v(a^t(\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), \theta^t_j) \right] + \gamma^t_i, \quad i = 1, ..., m^t. \tag{7}$$

For every individual $i = 1, ..., m^t$, the maximum of this function is at $\hat{\theta}^t_i = \theta^t_i$ by construction. It can easily be verified that the class of efficient mechanisms is unambiguously determined except for the constant terms $\gamma^t_i$ (see D’Aspremont and Gérard-Varet, 1979).

Lemma 1 states that the transfer is equal to the sum of the expected action utilities of all other individuals plus a constant. This rule ensures that everybody acts so as to maximize the sum of all expected utilities.
4 Feasibility without intergenerational transfers

Without intergenerational transfers the budget constraint \( \sum_{i=1}^{m_t} b_i^t = 0 \) has to be fulfilled. In order to find out whether the first-best mechanism is feasible without relying on external resources, we have to check if the constant terms \( \gamma^t \) can be chosen so as to balance the budget. Denote by \( D^t(\gamma^t) \) the expected deficit of the efficient mechanism with constant terms \( \gamma^t \). If \( \gamma^t_1 = \ldots = \gamma^t_{m_t} = 0 \), the expected deficit is equal to

\[
D(0) := (m^t - 1) E^t[P(\theta^t)] = (m^t - 1) E^t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m_t} v(a^{t*}(\theta^t), \theta^t_i) \right].
\]  

(8)

Hence, an efficient mechanism can be implemented without intergenerational transfers if and only if the sum of constant terms \( \gamma^t \), multiplied by \(-1\), is not smaller than \( D(0) \), where the boundary is determined by

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m_t} b_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m_t} \left( E^t \left[ \sum_{j \neq i} v(a^{t*}((\hat{\theta}^t_i, \theta^t_{-i}), \theta^t_j)) \right] + \gamma^t_i \right) \\
= (m^t - 1) E^t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m_t} v(a^{t*}(\theta^t), \theta^t_i) \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{m_t} \gamma^t_i = 0.
\]  

(9)

Assume that the reservation utility of individual \( i \) in the case that the mechanism is not implemented is equal to \( U_{i}^M(\theta^t) \). The precise specification of this reservation utility depends on the status quo alternative that is used as a benchmark for the evaluation of the implementation of an efficient mechanism, as being discussed in section 2. Since the qualitative nature of our argument does not rely on the numerical values of the \( U_{i}^M(\theta^t) \), we do not have to specify the economic environment that generates them. However, we will analyze the allocation of a private good in a private-property economy as an example in section 6. The assumption of private property will then generate an explicit value of the reservation utilities.

Given this framework, Proposition 1 describes the necessary and sufficient condition for being able to implement a first-best allocation without intergenerational transfers.

**Proposition 1:** If and only if \( D(\theta^t) \leq -\sum_{i=1}^{m_t} M^t_i \) with

\[
M^t_i := \max_{\theta^t_i \in \Theta^t_i} \left\{ E^t_i[U^M_{i}(\theta^t)] - E^t_i \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} v(a^{t*}((\hat{\theta}^t_j, \theta^t_{-j}), \theta^t_j)) \right] \right\}
\]
holds in every period, it is possible to implement an intertemporally efficient allocation without intergenerational transfers.

Proof. The implementation of an efficient mechanism $M^t_i$ is Pareto-improving if and only if

$$E^t_i \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}_j^t, \theta^t_j), \theta^t_j) \right] + \gamma^t_i \geq E^t_i[U^M_i(\theta^t)], \quad i = 1, ..., m^t. \quad (10)$$

Noting that $\gamma^t_i$ cannot be contingent on $\theta^t_i$ because of the asymmetry of information, (10) has to be fulfilled for all possible realizations of the type, implying that:

$$\gamma^t_i \geq M^t_i := \max \left\{ E^t_i[U^M_i(\theta^t)] - E^t_i \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}_j^t, \theta^t_j), \theta^t_j) \right] \right\}, \quad (11)$$

which defines a participation constraint for individual $i$ in period $t$. Hence, only if

$$D(\gamma^t) = D(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} \gamma^t_i \leq 0 \iff D(0) \leq - \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} \gamma^t_i \leq - \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} M^t_i \quad (12)$$

holds, it is possible to implement an efficient mechanism without intergenerational transfers.

Proposition 1 indicates under which condition intergenerational transfers may be useful to achieve a Pareto improvement. Notice that the threshold values $M^t_i$ will typically be negative if the sum of the expected action utilities is positive, and vice versa.

Condition (11) restricts the lump-sum payments that can be imposed on an individual from above. If the condition stated in Proposition 1 is violated, it is no longer possible to arrive at a first-best allocation by means of a self-financing mechanism. Of course, this does not exclude a Pareto-improvement compared to the reference allocation through some other self-financing mechanism.

The feasibility problem is in fact a result of asymmetric information. The next proposition demonstrates that in a world with symmetric information the first-best allocation can be achieved without intergenerational transfers.

**Proposition 2:** With symmetric information implementing a first-best allocation is feasible without relying on intergenerational transfers.
**Proof.** With symmetric information, type-contingent transfers $\gamma^t_i$ can be used. The threshold levels are given by

$$
\gamma^t_i \geq M^t_i := E^t_i \left[ U^M_i(\theta^t_i) \right] - E^t_i \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{m^t_i} v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}^t_j, \theta^t_{-j}), \theta^t_j) \right].
$$

(13)

Implementing a first-best allocation without intergenerational transfers is feasible if

$$
D(0) = (m^t - 1) E^t \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}^t_j, \theta^t_{-j}), \theta^t_j) \right] \leq 
$$

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{m^t} E^t_i \left( U^M_i(\theta^t_i) - \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}^t_j, \theta^t_{-j}), \theta^t_j) \right) = - \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} M^t_i,
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{m^t} E^t_i \left[ v(a^{t*}(\hat{\theta}^t_j, \theta^t_{-j}), \theta^t_j) \right] \geq \sum_{j=1}^{m^t} E^t_i \left[ U^M_i(\theta^t_i) \right].
$$

This latter condition is always satisfied with strict inequality because gains from the coordination of actions exist.

Proposition 2 is easily understood. If information about the individuals’ types is symmetrically distributed, differentiated lump-sum payments can be used. It is then possible to design the transfer structure such that everybody gets exactly her reservation utility while the first-best action vector is induced. Such a scheme will be associated with a budget surplus because internalizing the externalities at a balanced budget must lead to a higher sum of expected utilities. The arising budget surplus can then be distributed to make everybody better off. With asymmetric information, many individuals may receive unavoidable information rents if a mechanism is implemented in order to achieve a first-best allocation. As a result, the gain in aggregate utility may not be sufficient to finance these rents.

## 5 Sustainability with intergenerational transfers

We know from the above analysis that a first-best efficient allocation can be reached only if the transfer rule (6) is fulfilled in all periods. Recalling that Lemma 1 describes the set of efficient direct mechanisms, the question as to whether it is actually possible to implement a first-best efficient allocation is answered by finding out if
\( \gamma^t \) can be set such that (12) is fulfilled. Depending on the structure of the intragenerational allocation problem, (12) may or may not be fulfilled if information is asymmetrically distributed. If the gains from trade from the implementation of an efficient mechanism are sufficiently large for all realizations of types \( \theta^t \), we can expect that the implementation of an efficient mechanism is in fact a Pareto-improvement. However, it is easy to construct examples where this condition is not satisfied. For example, Myerson and Satterthwaite (1983) have shown that it is impossible to reach efficiency in a situation of bilateral trade with private property rights if gains from trade exist in expectation, but not for every realization of types. If such a situation occurs, intergenerational transfers may play a Pareto-improving role. In order to demonstrate this, let

\[ W(\theta^t, m^t, a^t, U^M) = D(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} M_i^t \]  

be the minimum external amount of resources that would be necessary to create a Pareto-improvement by implementing an efficient mechanism in generation \( t \). In general, \( W^t \) depends on the nature of the allocation problem, the preferences of the individuals, and the size of the population. In the following we extend our basic model of intertemporally separated generations by allowing for transfers from any younger generation \( t+1 \) to its predecessor generation \( t \). This can be done by simply reinterpreting (2) as representing the indirect utility function of the standard overlapping generations model where the individual has already optimized her savings behavior.

Given that every generation \( t+1 \) pays a transfer \( W(\theta^t) \) to its predecessor generation, the budget constraint (1) of a generation \( t \) becomes

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} t_i^t + W(\theta^{t-1}) - W(\theta^t) = 0. \]  

Intergenerational transfers can hence make it possible to implement an efficient allocation for all generations \( t \) if and only if

\[ \bar{W}(\theta^t) \leq W(\theta^t) - W(\theta^{t-1}), \quad t = 1, \ldots. \]  

Neglecting the asymptotic behavior of \( W(.) \) such a transfer scheme is possible to implement in principle (see Spremann, 1984). The problem is to construct a scheme
which is sustainable. For a finite time horizon, a first-best mechanism is called sus-
tainable if it is possible to cover all budget deficits. If we have an infinite time
horizon, the corresponding condition is that public debt per capita converges to
zero. Our notion of sustainability is of course very narrow. It is also conceivable to
call a scheme sustainable if debt per capita does not exceed a finite threshold or
even if the ratio between public debt and GDP does not exceed some finite num-
ber. However, neither alternative is a generalization of the requirement in the finite
horizon framework that all debt has to be repaid.

In the following, we implicitly assume that transfers do not alter production
in the economy. Thus, a budget surplus can only be stored. In order to keep the
analysis as simple as possible, we exclude the option to invest such surpluses in order
to generate some additional output in the next period. This amounts to setting the
interest rate to zero.

Assume that the intergenerational transfer mechanism is first to be implemented
in period $t = 1$ and that a transfer $\bar{W}^1$ is first paid to generation 1 by generation
2. We can easily derive the necessary and sufficient condition for being able to
implement a first-best mechanism when the economy ceases to exist at the end of
period $T$.

**Proposition 3:** For every finite time horizon $T$ a necessary and suffi-
cient condition for the implementation of a first-best mechanism in every
period is that the sequence of transfers $\{W^t\}_{t=1,...,T} = \{\sum_{i=1}^{t} \bar{W}^i\}_{t=1,...,T}$
satisfies $\sum_{t=1}^{T} \bar{W}^t \leq 0$.

**Proof.** According to (16), the minimum intergenerational transfer sufficient to
implement an efficient mechanism for all generations $1, ..., t$ is equal to

$$W^t = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \bar{W}^i.$$  

Noticing this condition, the claim is an immediate consequence of the definition of
a sustainable scheme.  

Proposition 3 states that deficits in some periods have to be at least compensated
by surpluses in other periods. Otherwise, it is impossible to cover every budget
deficit that arises between the first period $t = 1$ and the last period $T$. Given that
the nature of the allocation problem and the preferences of the individuals do not
change over time, this condition can only be fulfilled if there is either positive or negative population growth. With a constant population size and \( \bar{W}^t > 0 \) for some \( t \), the deficit \( \bar{W}^t \) is constant and positive in all periods. In the next section we will present an example of an economy with only private goods in which \( \bar{W}^t \) decreases in \( m^t \). The following corollary is an immediate implication of Proposition 3.

**Corollary:** There exists no Pareto-improving introduction of a sequence of transfers \( \{W^t\}_{t=1,\ldots,T} = \{\sum_{i=1}^t \bar{W}^i\}_{t=1,\ldots,T} \) with \( \bar{W}^t \neq 0 \) for at least one \( t \) that implements a first-best mechanism in every period.

**Proof.** Every minimum deficit \( \bar{W}^t > 0 \) in an arbitrary period \( t \) has to be covered by a subsequence of surpluses \( \bar{W}^\tau < 0, \tau \subset \{1, \ldots, T\} \). In these periods \( \tau \) it would have been possible to implement an efficient mechanism without any transfers. Hence, any transfer \( \bar{W}^\tau < 0 \) reduces consumption in period \( \tau \), which implies that at least one individual is worse off compared to the status quo. \( \square \)

Hence, with a finite time horizon, it is impossible to make every individual in each generation better off by introducing intergenerational transfers. While a Pareto-efficient allocation may be achieved by implementing the scheme of intra- and intergenerational transfers, a generation that is a net payer can even do better in the absence of the intergenerational transfer scheme. In that case it can implement a first-best allocation for its members and leave the full period budget surplus for their consumption.

Next we focus on an infinite time horizon. The gross intergenerational transfer in the receiving generation is \( w(\theta^t) = \bar{W}(\theta^t)/m^t \) per capita. We start by considering the situation in which the population grows at a constant rate \( \mu = m^{t+1}/m^t - 1 \forall t \) and the minimum deficit \( \bar{W} \) grows at a constant rate \( \eta \forall t \). Proposition 4 collects the conditions under which debt per capita converges to zero.

**Proposition 4:** With an infinite time horizon and constant growth rates of the population and the period budget deficit, implementing a first-best mechanism in every period is sustainable if and only if the rate of population growth, \( \mu \), is both positive and higher than the growth rate of the deficit, \( \eta \), that is, \( \mu > 0 \) and \( \mu > \eta \).

**Proof.** With a constant population growth rate and a constant minimum-deficit growth rate, population at time \( t \) is equal to \( m^t = (1 + \mu)^{t-1}m^1 \), and the aggregate
minimum deficit at time $t$ can be expressed as $W^t = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \bar{W}^i = \bar{W}^1((1+\eta)^t - 1)/\eta$. Hence, debt per capita in period $t$ can be expressed as

$$w^t = \frac{\bar{W}^1 (1 + \eta)^t - 1}{m^t \eta(1 + \mu)^{t-1}}$$ (17)

if $\eta \neq 0$, and $w^t = (t\bar{W}^1)/(m^t(1+\mu)^{t-1})$ if $\eta = 0$. The claim then follows immediately from considering $\lim_{t \to \infty} w_t$.

Since aggregate debt increases steadily irrespective of the growth rate of the deficit, a positive rate of population growth is necessary for having a debt per capita that converges to zero. Should the growth rate of the budget deficit be positive, an even higher growth rate of the population is necessary and sufficient for reducing debt per capita period per period.

Propositions 3 and 4 have some obvious implications for the more general scenarios without constant growth rates. For example, if the growth rate of the population is always positive and higher than the growth rate of the deficit, debt per capita will converge to zero. In contrast, if the population does never increase and the budget deficit is always positive, the intergenerational transfer scheme is not sustainable.

Of course, as it will also turn out in the example in the next section, $W^t$ is in general a function of the population size, $W^t = \bar{W}(m^t)$. Again, we can draw some obvious conclusions by recalling Propositions 3 and 4. Debt per capita will converge to zero if population increases at a minimum growth rate $\mu_{\text{min}} > 0$ while at the same time the function $\bar{W}$ is non-increasing. With an increasing function $\bar{W}$, the intergenerational transfer scheme is sustainable if in every period the rate of population growth exceeds the growth rate of the deficit. Further, a shrinking population may go along with a sustainable scheme if we have budget surpluses for small populations and budget deficits for large populations. If the deficit is positive for all population sizes, a constant or shrinking population can never imply that debt per capita converges to zero.

6 Example with private goods

In this section we illustrate the above argument by means of an example. We assume that a private (that means rival and excludable) good is traded and that private property exists, which determines the reservation utility of each individual.
Assume that at every point of time $t$ there is a potential seller of an indivisible unit of a private good, called individual 1. This individual has with probability $1/2$ a utility of consuming her good that is equal to 1, and with probability $1/2$ a utility of consuming her good that is equal to 0. There are $m^t - 1 \geq 1$ potential buyers of the good with utilities of $a$ or $(1 + a)$, $a \in (0, 1)$, and probabilities $1/2, 1/2$ respectively. The utilities represent types, and the random draws are independent of each other. Each individual learns her type before trade takes place, but not the types of the other individuals. Denote by $a^t_i \in \{0, 1\}$, $\sum_{i=2,\ldots,m^t} a^t_i \leq 1$, the act of trading the good with individual $i$ at $t$. Normalizing the utility in case of no consumption to zero, this implies a utility before transfers of

$$v(a^t, \theta^t_1) = (1 - \sum_{i=2,\ldots,m^t} a^t_i)\theta^t_1$$

for individual 1, and

$$v(a^t, \theta^t_i) = a^t_i\theta^t_i$$

for individuals $i = 2, \ldots, m^t$.

As in Myerson and Satterthwaite (1983), the problem is to implement a mechanism that induces every individual to reveal her type and at the same time satisfy the government's budget constraint. Intuitively, the mechanism has to avoid a scenario in which agents are not willing to engage in mutually beneficial trade. This may happen if they can rationally expect to get better terms by not agreeing to the proposed price and continuing the bargaining process. An efficient mechanism implies an ex-post surplus of $\max \{\theta^t_1, \ldots, \theta^t_m\}$. Given this surplus the expected deficit of an uncompensated CGV-mechanism is equal to

$$D^t(0) = (m^t - 1)E[\max \{\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_m\}] = (m^t - 1)\left(\frac{2^{m^t} - 2}{2^{m^t}}\right)(1 + a) + 1 + a$$

$$= (m^t - 1)\left(\frac{2^{m^t} - 1}{2^{m^t}}\right)(1 + a)$$

for $t \geq 1$.

The maximum transfer $M^t_i$ that individual $i$ is willing to accept without generating a conflict with its participation constraint is equal to

$$M^t_i = \max_{\theta_i \in \{0, 1\}} \{\theta^t_i - E^t_i[\max\{\theta^t_1, \theta^t_2, \ldots, \theta^t_m\}]\}$$

$$= 1 - E^t_i[\max\{\theta^t_2, \ldots, \theta^t_m\}]$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2^{m^t - 1}} - \frac{2^{m^t - 1} - 1}{2^{m^t - 1}}(1 + a)$$
for individual 1, and

\[
M^*_t = \max_{a \in [a, 1+a]} \{ 0 - E_t^i [\max\{ \theta^i_t, \ldots, \theta^L_{m_t} \}] \} \\
= -E_t^i [\max\{ \theta^i_t, \ldots, a, \ldots, \theta^L_{m_t} \}] \\
= -\frac{(2^{m_t}-1) - 2}{2^{m_t}-1} (1 + a) + 1 + a = -\frac{2^{m_t}-1}{2^{m_t}-1} (1 + a)
\]  

(22)

for individuals \(i = 2, \ldots, m^t\). Hence, the intergenerational net transfer that is necessary to balance the budget is equal to

\[
\bar{W}(\theta^t) = D^t(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{m^t} M^*_i \\
= (m^t - 1) \frac{2^{m^t}-1}{2^{m^t}-1} (1 + a) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{m^t}-1} - \frac{2^{m^t}-1}{2^{m^t}-1} (1 + a)\right) \\
- (m^t - 1) \left(\frac{2^{m^t}-1}{2^{m^t}-1} (1 + a)\right) \\
= 1 - 2^{1-m^t} + 2^{-m^t}(2^{m^t} - 1)(1 + a)(m^t - 1) \\
- 2^{1-m^t}(2^{-1+m^t} - 1)(1 + a)m^t.
\]  

(23)

It is straightforward to check that the sign of this condition depends on \(a\) as well as on \(m^t\). The locus \(\bar{W}(\theta^t) = 0\) is given by a monotonically decreasing and convex function \(a(m^t)\), with \(a < a(m^t)\) implying that \(\bar{W}(\theta^t) > 0\). Two results from the literature emerge as special cases. First, for \(m^t = 2\) we get \(\bar{W}(\theta^t) = (1 - a)/4 > 0\.

This is the famous impossibility result by Myerson and Satterthwaite (1983) who were the first who have shown that bilateral trade is necessarily inefficient for small groups of traders. Second, for \(m^t \to \infty\) we get \(\lim_{m^t \to \infty} \bar{W}(\theta^t) = -a < 0\), which replicates the result by Gresik and Satterthwaite (1989) who have shown that the inefficiency vanishes if the number of potential traders increases. Hence, there is no need for intergenerational transfers in our example if the economy is sufficiently large.

On the other hand, if \(a < a(m^t)\) holds, balancing the budget is only possible by means of intergenerational transfers. However, in a growing economy, \(m^{t+1} > m^t \forall t\) it is always possible to find a non-explosive scheme. Noting that \(m^{t+1} \geq m^t + 1\) in this case, the range in which \(a > a(m^t)\) is valid will be reached in finite time. Therefore, there exists an intergenerational transfer scheme from the young to the old that allows the implementation of a Pareto-efficient mechanism in every period.
If $T$ is sufficiently large. If $T \to \infty$ a Pareto-improving transfer scheme always exists.

7 Concluding discussion

We have demonstrated that implementing a first-best allocation in an environment with asymmetric information and only intragenerational externalities can require the use of intergenerational transfers. Since the self-financing constraint of the mechanism cannot be satisfied, additional funds are needed. These funds are provided by the succeeding generation, which can be achieved by setting up a pay-as-you-go pension scheme. Of course, if an alternative source for receiving the additional government revenue is available as, for example, borrowing from abroad, the problem may also be solved without making use of pay-as-you-go pensions or some similar arrangement. However, if government borrowing on a perfect capital market is considered, it should be noted that the debt will never be repaid by the generation that receives the benefits. Otherwise, future tax payments will be taken into account such that the additional funds today do not contribute to relax the participation constraints. If future generations have to pay back the internal or external public debt, the transfer scheme is virtually identical to a pay-as-you-go pension scheme. A sustainable scheme with a per-capita debt converging to zero requires a growing population if a budget deficit arises in every period.

The proposed scheme can also work in a shrinking economy, which may be characterized by a negative population growth rate. An efficient allocation in all periods can, for example, be achieved when we have budget surpluses in smaller economies. With budget surpluses in some periods, at least one generation of net contributors can improve its position by abolishing the transfer scheme. When the notion of sustainability is relaxed by allowing for some finite per-capita debt in the limit or a positive maximum debt-output ratio, a growing population may no longer be necessary for a sustainable scheme with budget deficits in every period. If we allowed for growing labor productivity, a constant or even declining population can go along with an increasing aggregate output over time.

If the proposed scheme is not sustainable, using some resources from intergenerational transfers will generally harm at least one of the succeeding generations. However, the typical situation in practice will be that achieving a first-best allocat-
tion in one generation involves some elements of intergenerational spillover in the sense that it enlarges the production capacities in the next generation. As already stated at the outset, such a component of intergenerational spillover would already necessitate intergenerational transfers.
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