Stress Tests and Information Disclosure

Itay Goldstein† Yaron Leitner‡

Current draft: February 1, 2015
First draft: June 1, 2013

Abstract

We study an optimal disclosure policy of a regulator who has information about banks’ ability to overcome future liquidity shocks. We focus on the following tradeoff: Disclosing some information may be necessary to prevent a market breakdown, but disclosing too much information destroys risk-sharing opportunities (Hirshleifer effect). We find that during normal times, no disclosure is optimal, but during bad times, partial disclosure is optimal. We characterize the optimal form of this partial disclosure. We relate our results to the Bayesian persuasion literature and to the debate on disclosure of stress test results.

Key words: Bayesian persuasion, Optimal disclosure, Stress tests

---

*We are very grateful to the discussants Pierre Chaigneau, Emir Kamenica, Alfred Lehar, Stephen Morris, George Pennacchi, Paul Pfeiderer, Pegaret Pichler, Ned Prescott, Francesco Sangiorgi, and Nikola Tarashev. We also thank seminar participants at the Bank of Canada, Board of Governors, Boston University, Dartmouth, Cleveland Fed, New York Fed, Philadelphia Fed, UCLA, Wharton, AEA, Barcelona GSE Summer Forum workshop on “Information, Competition, and Market Frictions,” Fed system conference on financial structure and regulation, Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia “Enhancing Prudential Standards in Financial Regulations”, FIRS, NBER credit rating agency meeting, NY Fed/ NYU Stern Conference on Financial Intermediation, NYU International Network on Expectations and Coordination Conference, Tel Aviv Finance Conference, UBC Summer Finance Conference, and WFA. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia or of the Federal Reserve System.

†Finance Department, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania (email: itayg@wharton.upenn.edu).

‡Research Department, Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (email: yaronleitner@gmail.com).
1 Introduction

In the new era of financial regulation following the crisis of 2008, central banks around the world will conduct periodic stress tests for financial institutions to assess their ability to withstand future shocks. A key question that occupies policymakers and bankers is whether the results of the stress tests should be disclosed and, if so, at what level of detail. The debate over this question is summarized in an article in the *Wall Street Journal* from March 2012. In this article, Fed Governor Daniel Tarullo expresses support for wide disclosure, saying that “the disclosure of stress-test results allows investors and other counterparties to better understand the profiles of each institution.” But the Clearing House Association expresses the concern that making the additional information public “could have unanticipated and potentially unwarranted and negative consequences to covered companies and U.S. financial markets.”

A classic concern about disclosure is based on the Hirshleifer effect (Hirshleifer, 1971). According to the Hirshleifer effect, greater disclosure might decrease welfare because it reduces risk-sharing opportunities for economic agents. This is indeed a relevant concern in the context of banks and stress tests. A large literature (e.g., Allen and Gale, 2000) studies risk-sharing arrangements among banks. If banks are exposed to random liquidity shocks, they will create arrangements among themselves or with outside markets to insure against such shocks. More recently, banks are known to hedge their risks with various derivative contracts. If more information about the state of each individual bank and its ability to withstand future shocks is publicly disclosed, then such risk-sharing and hedging opportunities will be limited, generating a welfare loss.

While this concern may provide credible content to the “unwarranted and negative consequences” referred to in the above quote from the Clearing House Association, it is hard to deny that greater disclosure that “allows investors and other counterparties to better understand the profiles of each institution” appears to be

---

1See “Lenders Stress over Test Results,” *Wall Street Journal*, March 5, 2012.
crucial at times. In particular, as was clear during the recent financial crisis, when aggregate conditions seem bleak, the lack of disclosure might lead to a breakdown in financial activity. In the context of risk sharing and insurance, if the aggregate state of the financial sector is perceived to be weak, banks would not be able to insure themselves against undesirable outcomes (see, e.g., Leitner, 2005). In this case, some disclosure on certain banks might be necessary to enable some risk sharing and its welfare-improving effects.

In this paper, we study a model to analyze these forces and provide guidance for optimal disclosure policy in light of these forces. The model can address the debate on disclosure of stress test results but applies more generally to the issue of disclosing regulatory information even outside the stress-test arena. In the model, financial institutions suffer a loss if their future capital falls below a certain level. Part of the future capital of the financial institution can be forecasted based on current analysis and will become clear to policymakers conducting stress tests. However, there are also future shocks that cannot be forecasted with such an analysis. Financial institutions can engage in risk-sharing arrangements to guarantee that their capital does not fall below the critical level.

These risk-sharing arrangements work well if the overall state of the financial industry is perceived to be strong. In this case, no disclosure by the regulator is needed. Consistent with the Hirshleifer effect, disclosure can be even harmful because it prevents optimal risk-sharing arrangements from taking place. However, if, on average, banks are perceived to have capital below the critical level, then risk-sharing arrangements that insure them against falling below that level cannot arise without some disclosure. In this case, partial disclosure emerges as the optimal solution.

To study optimal disclosure rules in bad times, we distinguish between two cases. First, we consider an environment where the information discovered by the regulator in the stress test is not already known to the bank. This is a reasonable assumption if the information involves assessment of bank exposure to aggregate conditions or to the state of other banks, and those are known to the regulator,
who analyzes many banks, but not to the individual banks themselves. In this case, we show that it is optimal to create two scores — a high score and a low score — and give the high score to a group of banks whose average forecastable capital is equal to the critical level and the low scores to other banks. This is similar to the Bayesian persuasion solution proposed by Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011).

By providing disclosure that separates banks into two groups, the regulator enables risk sharing among the banks that receive the high score. All banks whose forecasted capital is above the critical level receive the high score, but some banks with forecasted capital below the critical level also receive the high score. Importantly, for this to work, the regulator must not provide additional information about banks receiving the high score because with too much information, banks that are below the critical level would not be able to participate in risk sharing.

Interestingly, the optimal disclosure rule is not necessarily monotone; i.e., it is not always the case that banks below a certain threshold receive a low score and banks above the threshold receive a high score. There is a gain and a cost from giving a bank a high score. The gain is enabling the bank to participate in risk sharing, preventing a welfare-decreasing drop in capital. The cost is that giving a high score to one bank takes resources, thereby preventing other banks from receiving a high score. The allocation of banks into the high-score group depends on the gain-to-cost ratio, and this does not always generate a monotone rule; it depends on the distribution of shocks that banks are exposed to. We provide conditions under which the disclosure rule is monotone.

The second environment we consider is one where the information discovered by the regulator in the stress test is known to the bank itself but not to the outside market. In this case, pooling banks into two groups will not generally work. Banks whose forecastable level of capital is significantly above the critical level will refuse to participate in a risk-sharing arrangement with a group whose average forecastable capital is just at the critical level. Hence, in this case, the optimal disclosure rule has multiple scores. As before, one score is reserved for banks that are revealed to be below the critical capital level, and these banks are shunned from risk-sharing.
arrangements. Other scores pool together banks below the critical level with a bank above the critical level to enable risk sharing. Different scores are required to accommodate the different reservation utilities of different banks above the critical level of capital.

Interestingly, in this environment, non-monotonicity becomes a general feature of optimal disclosure rules. When considering banks below the critical level of capital, it turns out that the stronger ones are pooled with a bank whose level of capital is only slightly above the critical level (hence receiving a moderate score and selling at a moderate price), while the weaker ones are pooled with a bank whose level of capital is significantly above the critical level (hence receiving a high score and selling at a high price). As we show in this paper, the increase in cost from pooling with a moderately strong bank to pooling with a very strong bank is not significant for the weakest banks but is significant for the moderately weak banks, and this leads to the non-monotonicity result. We also show that for some parameter values, this result continues to hold even if we add the constraint that stronger banks must end up with higher equilibrium payoffs (e.g., Innes, 1990).

In summary, our paper generates the following results about optimal disclosure rules. First, no disclosure is optimal during good times, but partial disclosure is optimal during bad times. Second, partial disclosure takes the form of different scores pooling together banks of different levels of strength. The number of scores increases as we move from a case in which banks do not already have the information revealed in the stress test to the case in which they do possess this information. Third, non-monotonicity appears to be a pervasive feature of optimal disclosure rules, such that a given score pools together strong banks with weak banks. This type of non-monotonicity may continue to hold even when we impose monotonicity on equilibrium expected payoffs.

Related literature. Our paper is related to the literature on Bayesian persuasion, going back to Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011). The solution for the first case in which the bank does not know its type is close to the solution in Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011). However, since we put more structure on the planner’s ob-
jective function in the context of the banking industry, we obtain more results. In particular, we show that disclosure should be based on the gain-to-cost ratio and provide conditions under which a simple cutoff rule is optimal. The second case in which the bank knows its type is completely new to this literature and provides new results, which could be applied in other settings of Bayesian persuasion (see Section 5).\(^2\)

The literature on disclosure of regulatory information is reviewed in Goldstein and Sapra (2013), which highlights the disadvantages of disclosure (see also Leitner, 2014). Morris and Shin (2002) show that disclosure might be bad if economic agents share strategic complementarities and wish to act like each other even though it is not socially optimal. Providing a public signal then makes them place a too large weight on it because it provides information not only about fundamentals but also about what others know about the fundamentals. However, Angeletos and Pavan (2007) show that this conclusion may not hold when agents share strategic substitutes or when coordination is socially desirable. Leitner (2012) shows that disclosing information may reduce the regulator’s ability to obtain information about contracts that banks enter with one another. In his setting, it is optimal to reveal only partial information, namely, whether a bank has reached some prespecified position limit. The idea that disclosing information may reduce the regulator’s ability to collect information from banks also appears in Prescott (2008). Bond and Goldstein (forthcoming) show that disclosure of information by the government to the market might harm the government’s ability to learn from the market. Hence, the government may want to disclose information only on variables on which it cannot learn from the market. Increased disclosure might also be harmful due to the adverse effect it might have on the ex-ante incentives of bank managers, as in the traditional corporate-finance literature emphasizing the tension between

\(^2\)In a different model of persuasion in the banking sector, Gick and Pausch (2014) study a game in which investors with heterogenous priors can take one of two actions and the regulator’s objective is to get as close as possible to an outcome in which some predetermined fraction of investors take the first action. They show that in general, it is optimal for the regulator to choose a signal that is not too informative because full information induces investors to herd on the same action.
ex-post and ex-ante optimal actions (e.g., Burkart, Gromb, and Panunzi, 1997).
Morrison and White (2013) and Shapiro and Skeie (forthcoming) study how the regulator’s disclosure policy is affected by reputational concerns. Castro, Martinez, and Philippon (2014) study how disclosure policy is affected by the government’s fiscal capacity. Our paper analyzes a different tradeoff involving risk-sharing opportunities, which are at the heart of financial activity.

In a recent paper, Bouvard, Chaigneau, and De Motta (2014) study how disclosure affects the possibility of bank runs when there are two types of banks and the regulator has private information about banks’ types as well as the proportion of banks of each type. They show that during normal times disclosing information is undesirable because it can lead to bank runs, but during crises, disclosing information is desirable because it can prevent some runs. This result relates to one of our results but is based on completely different microfoundations. In addition, most of our results on the design of optimal disclosure rules are absent in their setting because they assume that there are only two types of banks.

In a related paper, Lizzeri (1999) studies the optimal disclosure policy of an intermediary who is hired by a firm to certify the quality of its products. Lizzeri (1999) shows that a monopolist intermediary may choose to restrict the flow of information and reveal only the minimum information that is required for an efficient exchange. Disclosing less information allows the intermediary to extract more rents from firms that are being rated. Instead, in our setting, providing less information allows for better risk sharing.³

There is also an extensive literature that studies information disclosure by firms, particularly whether the regulator should mandate firms to disclose information.⁴ Our paper contributes to this literature by illustrating a case in which the regulator would like to restrict information flow from firms. A strong firm ignores the fact

³Kartasheva and Yilmaz (2012) extend Lizzeri’s framework by adding different outside options for firms as well as information asymmetries among potential buyers. In their setting the first-best outcome is full disclosure. In our setting, the first-best outcome typically involves pooling and, hence, only partial disclosure.
that revealing information destroys risk-sharing opportunities for weak firms, but the regulator takes this negative externality into account.

In a different context, Marin and Rahi (2000) provide a theory of market incompleteness, which is based on the tradeoff between adverse selection and the Hirshleifer effect. Adverse selection favors an increase in the number of securities because it reduces information asymmetries among agents. The Hirshleifer effect favors a reduction in the number of securities. Our paper does not talk about security design but instead discusses how the regulator should pool banks into groups to enable risk sharing. Because the payoff function in our setting exhibits some convexity (a bank suffers a loss if its capital falls below a certain level), two groups may be necessary even when banks do not have private information. When banks have private information, more groups are necessary to accommodate the different reservation utilities of banks above the critical level.

Finally, the idea that risk-sharing arrangements may break down when aggregate conditions are bleak relates to Leitner (2005). He shows that in this case, if there are many banks, it is optimal for them to remain unlinked rather than form a financial network. In one interpretation of our model, we show how the disclosure policy affects the financial networks that banks form.

2 A model

Economic environment. There is a bank, a regulator (i.e., a planner), and a perfectly competitive market. The bank has an asset, which yields a random cash flow \( \tilde{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon} \), where \( \tilde{\theta} \) is referred to as the bank’s type and \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) is the bank’s idiosyncratic risk, which is independent of type. The bank can sell its asset in the market for an amount \( x \), which will be derived endogenously. Everyone is risk neutral, and the risk-free rate is normalized to be zero percent. Therefore, the price \( x \) is the expected value of the asset \( \tilde{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon} \), conditional on the information available to the market (the information will depend on the disclosure regime). We use \( z \) to denote the bank’s final cash holdings, and so \( z = x \) if the bank sells the asset and \( z = \tilde{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon} \).
if the bank keeps the asset.

We assume that the bank derives the following final payoff as a function of $z$:

$$R(z) = \begin{cases} 
  z & \text{if } z < 1 \\
  z + r & \text{if } z \geq 1,
\end{cases} \quad (1)$$

for a parameter $r > 0$. This payoff function captures the general idea that a bank derives some gains when its cash holdings are (weakly) above some threshold. One can think of several motivations: (1) The bank has a project that yields a positive net present value $r$ but requires a minimum level of investment. For various reasons (e.g., projects cash flows are nonverifiable), the bank cannot finance the project if it does not have sufficient cash in hand. (2) The bank has a debt liability of 1. Not paying it leads to loss of future income $r$. (3) The bank faces a run if its cash holdings fall below some threshold.

Note that our results do not depend on the particular specification for $R(z)$ above. For example, our results extend to the case in which $r$ depends on the bank’s type (we discuss this more later). The results also extend to other payoff functions that exhibit discontinuity, such as assuming that the bank obtains $az$ for some $a \in [0, 1)$ if $z < 1$, and $z + r$ if $z \geq 1$ (where $r$ can be set to zero). The case $a = r = 0$ may best capture the idea that when the asset value falls below some threshold, there is a bank run and the bank is left with nothing. Key to all these specifications is the discontinuity in payoffs.\textsuperscript{5}

The bank chooses whether to keep its asset or sell it in the market. The bank does so in a way that maximizes its expected final payoff $R(z)$, conditional on the information available to it. As will be clear later, the bank will have a motive to sell its asset at a price of at least 1. This essentially provides insurance that the bank’s cash holdings do not fall below the threshold. More generally, selling the asset can be thought of as engaging in risk sharing. In our model risk sharing takes a simple form: the bank replaces a random cash flow with a deterministic cash flow by selling its asset to the market.\textsuperscript{6}

The nature of our model continues to hold for

\textsuperscript{5}A similar discontinuity in payoffs appears in Leitner (2005) and in Elliott, Golub, and Jackson (2014).

\textsuperscript{6}The market is not affected by the discontinuity in payoffs as the bank and just gets $\theta + \varepsilon$ if
other forms of risk sharing, including the case in which multiple banks share risk among themselves (see discussion in Section 5).

The bank’s type $\tilde{\theta}$ is drawn from a finite set $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}$ according to a probability distribution function $p(\theta) = \Pr(\tilde{\theta} = \theta)$. The idiosyncratic risk $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ is drawn from a continuous cumulative distribution function $F$ that satisfies $E(\tilde{\varepsilon}) = 0$. The probability structure (i.e., the functions $p$ and $F$) is common knowledge.

The focus of this paper is on the optimal disclosure policy of a regulator who has information about the bank. For example, the regulator could obtain information by maintaining examination staff at the bank or by conducting stress tests. The regulator can disclose information to the market before the bank can sell its asset. Hence, disclosure affects the terms of trade and the bank’s ability and incentive to engage in risk sharing.

Specifically, we assume that the regulator observes the realization of $\tilde{\theta}$, which we denote by $\theta$. The market does not observe $\theta$. As for the bank, we focus on two cases: (1) The bank does not observe $\theta$. (2) The bank observes $\theta$. In both cases, we assume that no one observes the realization of $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ (denoted by $\varepsilon$), which is residual noise.

The first case captures the idea that the regulator may have some information advantage relative to banks. This is a plausible assumption when asset values depend on future regulatory actions or when asset values depend on interactions among banks, and the regulator’s ability to collect information from multiple banks allows it to come up with better estimates. This case can also be relevant when the regulator has a better understanding of the bank’s position based on past experience of dealing with other institutions. The second case captures the idea that the regulator and the bank share the same information, which is unobservable to other market participants. For example, the bank may know its ability to withstand future liquidity shocks, and the regulator can find out this information by conducting stress tests. Throughout most of the analysis, we assume that the bank cannot affect what the planner observes (i.e., $\theta$ is given), but in the second case we it buys the asset. Hence, this transfer of risk can increase surplus.
also analyze a situation in which the bank observes \( \theta \) before the planner and can freely (and secretly) dispose assets, i.e., reduce \( \theta \) (see Section 4.5).

Denote the types in \( \Theta \) by \( \theta_{\text{max}} = \theta_1 > \theta_2 > \ldots > \theta_m = \theta_{\text{min}} \). We assume that there are \( k \geq 1 \) types at or above \( \theta_1 \). If information on \( \theta \) was publicly available, these types could sell the asset at a price that guarantees their cash holdings to end up above the threshold of 1. We also assume that:

**Assumption 1:** \( F(1 - \theta_{\text{min}}) < 1 \) and \( F(1 - \theta_{\text{max}}) > 0 \).

Assumption 1 implies that even for the lowest type, there is a positive probability that the asset cash flow will be above 1, and even for the highest type, there is a positive probability that the asset cash flow will be below 1.

**Disclosure rules.** Before finding out the realization of \( \tilde{\theta} \), the planner chooses and announces a disclosure rule to maximize expected total surplus. Since the market breaks even on average, maximizing expected total surplus is the same as maximizing the bank’s expected payoff across the different types. The planner has the ability to commit to the chosen disclosure rule.

Formally, a disclosure rule is a set of “scores” \( S \) and a function that maps each type to a distribution over scores. In our setting, the optimal disclosure rule can be implemented with a finite number of scores. Hence, there is no loss of generality in assuming that \( S \) is finite (or countable). We use \( g(s|\theta) \) to denote the probability, according to the disclosure rule, that the planner assigns a score \( s \in S \) when he observes type \( \theta \). That is, \( g(s|\theta) = \Pr(\tilde{s} = s|\tilde{\theta} = \theta) \). Of course, for every \( \theta \in \Theta \), the following has to hold: \( \sum_{s \in S} g(s|\theta) = 1 \).

To gain intuition on how disclosure rules work, note that full disclosure is obtained when for every type \( \theta \), the planner assigns some score \( s_\theta \in S \) with probability 1, such that \( s_\theta \neq s_{\theta'} \) if \( \theta \neq \theta' \). No disclosure is obtained when the planner assigns the same distribution over scores to all types; e.g., each type obtains the same score.

For use below, denote \( \mu(s) = E[\tilde{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon}|\tilde{s} = s] \). This is the expected value of the bank’s asset conditional on the bank obtaining score \( s \). Since \( \tilde{\varepsilon} \) is independent of
\( \tilde{\theta} \), and since \( E(\tilde{\varepsilon}) = 0 \), we obtain that:

\[
\mu(s) = E[\tilde{\theta}|\tilde{s} = s] = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} \theta \Pr(\tilde{\theta} = \theta|\tilde{s} = s) = \frac{\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} \theta p(\theta)g(s|\theta)}{\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)g(s|\theta)},
\]

where the last equality follows from Bayes’ rule.

**Sequence of events.** The sequence of events is as follows:

1. The planner chooses a disclosure rule \( (S, g) \) and publicly announces it.
2. The bank’s type \( \theta \) is realized and observed by the planner. (In case 2, \( \theta \) is also observed by the bank.)
3. The planner assigns the bank a score \( s \) according to the disclosure rule. (Recall that the planner can commit to assigning scores according to the disclosure rule chosen.) The planner publicly announces \( s \).
4. The market offers to purchase the asset at a price \( x(s) \).
5. The bank chooses whether to keep its asset or sell it for a price \( x(s) \).
6. The residual noise \( \varepsilon \) is realized. As a result, the bank’s cash holdings \( z \) and the bank’s final payoff \( R(z) \) are determined. The market’s payoff is \( \theta + \varepsilon - x(s) \) if it purchases the asset, and 0 otherwise.

The planner’s disclosure rule and assigned score specify a game between the bank and the market. We focus on the planner’s preferred perfect Bayesian equilibria of this game. Specifically, the bank chooses whether to sell or keep the asset to maximize its expected payoff conditional on its information, and the market chooses a price \( x(s) \) that equals the expected value of the asset conditional on the publicly announced score, taking as given the bank’s equilibrium strategy (i.e., whether the bank sells at this price or not). Formally, we assume Bertrand competition among at least two market participants. We assume that if the bank is indifferent between selling and not selling, it sells, and if the market is indifferent between two prices, it offers the highest price. The planner chooses a disclosure rule that maximizes the bank’s expected payoff across the different types, taking as given the equilibrium strategies of the market and the bank. We discuss the assumption that the planner can commit to a disclosure rule as well as other possible
planner’s objective functions in Section 5.

3 Bank does not observe its type

We start with the case in which the bank does not observe \( \theta \). So the bank observes only the score \( s \) assigned to it by the planner. We solve the game backward. One observation that simplifies the analysis is that the bank’s decision of whether to sell the asset depends on \( s \) but not on \( \theta \) or \( \varepsilon \), which are unobservable to the bank. Hence, the decision of the bank to sell does not convey any additional information to the market. Consequently, the market sets a price \( x(s) = \mu(s) \). It then follows from the payoff structure in (1) that:

**Lemma 1** In equilibrium, the bank sells the asset if and only if it obtains a score \( s \) such that \( \mu(s) \geq 1 \).

The proof of Lemma 1 and all other proofs are in the appendix. The idea behind Lemma 1 is simple. If \( \mu(s) > 1 \), selling guarantees that the bank’s cash holding will not fall below 1. Because of the penalty in the payoff structure when cash holdings fall below 1, the bank acts like a risk averse agent and is happy to replace the asset’s random cash flow with its expected value. If instead, \( \mu(s) < 1 \), the bank prefers to keep the asset because if the bank sells the asset at a price below 1, the bank’s cash holdings will surely be below 1, but if the bank keeps the asset, there is a positive probability that the asset’s cash flow will turn out to be more than 1 (by Assumption 1). In this case the bank acts like a risk-loving agent.

The expected payoff for a bank of type \( \theta \), given disclosure rule \((S, g)\), is then

\[
    u(\theta) = \sum_{s; \mu(s) < 1} [\theta + r \Pr(\varepsilon \geq 1 - \theta)] g(s|\theta) + \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} [\mu(s) + r] g(s|\theta).
\]  

The first term represents the cases in which the bank keeps the asset, and the second term represents the cases in which the bank sells the asset. The planner’s problem is to choose a disclosure rule \((S, g)\) to maximize the bank’s ex-ante expected payoff \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta) \).
For use below, we refer to a score with $\mu(s) \geq 1$ as a “high” score and to a score with $\mu(s) < 1$ as a “low” score. Denote the probability that a bank of type $\theta$ obtains a high score by $h(\theta)$. That is, $h(\theta) = \sum_{s: \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta)$. This is the probability that the bank sells its asset (or, more broadly, engages in risk sharing).

**Lemma 2** The planner’s problem reduces to finding a function $h : \Theta \rightarrow [0,1]$ to maximize

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1-\theta)h(\theta),$$  

subject to the constraint

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - 1)h(\theta) \geq 0.$$  

The intuition for Lemma 2 is as follows. The term $\Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1-\theta)$ in the objective function (4) represents the gain from giving a high score to type $\theta$. The gain is that type $\theta$ sells its asset for price $x \geq 1$ and hence can guarantee that its cash holdings are at least 1 even if the asset cash flow turns out to be less than 1 (when $\bar{\varepsilon} < 1-\theta$). The objective function is the weighted expected gain from giving high scores across types. The planner can increase the value of the objective function by increasing $h(\theta)$ but faces the resource constraint (5). This constraint says that the average $\theta$ for types receiving a high score must be at least 1. It originates from the requirement that $\mu(s) \geq 1$ for every high score $s$. If this was not the case, the market would not be willing to pay a price $x \geq 1$ for an asset of a bank with a high score and there would be no benefit from giving a high score. Essentially, by giving a high score, the planner implements a cross subsidy from types with $\theta > 1$ to types with $\theta < 1$, so a high type sells its asset for less than what the asset is truly worth, and a low type sells its asset for more than what the asset is worth. This is beneficial because more types can ensure that their cash holdings are at least 1.

The solution to the planner’s problem is as follows. If $E(\bar{\theta}) \geq 1$, assigning $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$ satisfies the resource constraint and hence is optimal. Otherwise, if $E(\bar{\theta}) < 1$, it is impossible to assign $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$ and so
the resource constraint is binding, such that the average type getting a high score is exactly 1. The optimal disclosure rule then has to determine the probability with which each type gets a high score. This depends on comparing the “gain-to-cost ratio” from increasing $h(\theta)$ for different types. The gain from increasing $h(\theta)$ for a bank of type $\theta$ is the term $\Pr(\tilde{z} < 1 - \theta)$ in the objective function (4). The cost is that type $\theta$ requires resources in the amount $1 - \theta$, as in equation (5). So the gain-to-cost ratio for type $\theta$ is:

$$G(\theta) \equiv \frac{\Pr(\tilde{z} < 1 - \theta)}{1 - \theta}. \quad (6)$$

For types with $\theta \geq 1$, it is optimal to assign $h(\theta) = 1$ because there is no cost; these types provide resources. For types with $\theta < 1$, it follows from the linearity of the problem that it is optimal to set a cutoff $G^*$ such that types with gain-to-cost ratio above the cutoff are assigned $h(\theta) = 1$, and types with gain-to-cost ratio below the cutoff are assigned $h(\theta) = 0$. The optimal $G^*$ is the lowest cutoff possible that satisfies the resource constraint. For types with gain-to-cost ratio that equals $G^*$, the probability of obtaining a high score can be between 0 and 1 and is set such that the resource constraint is satisfied with equality.

The following proposition summarizes the optimal disclosure rule.

**Proposition 1** When a bank does not observe its type, the optimal disclosure rule is such that

1. If $E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq 1$, then $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$.
2. If $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$, then

$$h(\theta) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } \theta \geq 1 \text{ or if } \theta < 1 \text{ and } G(\theta) > G^* \\
0 & \text{if } \theta < 1 \text{ and } G(\theta) < G^*,
\end{cases}$$

(7)

where $G^*$ is the lowest $G \in \{G(\theta)\}_{\theta < 1}$ that satisfies the resource constraint $\sum_{\theta \geq 1} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) + \sum_{\theta < 1: G(\theta) < G^*} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) \geq 0$. If $G(\theta) = G^*$, then $h(\theta) \in [0, 1]$.

An interesting question is whether and when full disclosure is optimal, and whether and when no disclosure is optimal. If $E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq 1$, we know that $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta$. The planner can implement this by giving all types the same score, i.e.,
with no disclosure. There are other ways to implement the optimal rule, assigning more than one score such that the average $\theta$ of types receiving each score is at least 1. In the special case $\theta_{\min} \geq 1$, the planner can even assign a different score to each type, i.e., provide full disclosure. In contrast, if $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$, the planner must assign at least two scores. Some disclosure is necessary because without disclosure the price would be less than 1 and no type would sell its asset. Yet, full disclosure is suboptimal because under full disclosure, only types above 1 sell their assets, while under the optimal disclosure rule, some types that are below 1 also sell their assets. The following result, characterizing circumstances under which full disclosure or no disclosure achieve the optimal rule, follows:

**Corollary 1** Full disclosure achieves the optimal outcome if and only if $\theta_{\min} \geq 1$. No disclosure achieves the optimal outcome if and only if $E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq 1$.

The optimal disclosure rule can be implemented with a maximum of two scores: a high score $s_1$ such that $g(s_1|\theta) = h(\theta)$ and a low score $s_0$ such that $g(s_0|\theta) = 1 - h(\theta)$. Then if $E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq 1$, all types get the score $s_1$, and otherwise, if $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$, some types get $s_1$ and some types get $s_0$. Interestingly, in the case of $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$ (summarized in the second part of Proposition 1), the types that obtain a low score are not necessarily the lowest. So, a simple cutoff rule that assigns a high score to high types and a low score to low types is not necessarily optimal. Intuitively, the gain from giving a high score is higher for lower types because low types are more likely to end up with low realizations of cash flow. That is, the numerator of (6) is decreasing in $\theta$. But the cost of giving a high score to low types is also higher because low types require more resources. That is, the denominator of (6) is also decreasing in $\theta$. Hence, it is unclear whether $G(\theta)$ is increasing or decreasing, or whether it is even monotone. The function $G(\theta)$, and hence the optimal disclosure rule, depends on the distribution of the idiosyncratic risk $\tilde{\varepsilon}$.

The optimal rule will involve a simple cutoff with respect to $\theta$ when $G(\theta)$ is increasing when $\theta < 1$. In this case types above the cutoff obtain a high score with probability 1, and types below the cutoff obtain a low score with probability
1. A simple example in which this happens is when there is no idiosyncratic risk (i.e., $\varepsilon = 0$). Then the gain-to-cost ratio when $\theta < 1$ is simply $G(\theta) = \frac{1}{1-\theta}$. More generally, a sufficient condition for obtaining a cutoff rule is that the cumulative distribution function of $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ satisfies Condition (1) below. This condition is satisfied by any cumulative distribution function that is concave on the positive region. Examples include a normal distribution and a uniform distribution (both with mean zero).

**Condition 1** $F(\varepsilon)/\varepsilon$ is decreasing when $\varepsilon > 0$.

**Corollary 2** If $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$ and Condition (1) holds, the optimal disclosure rule involves a cutoff such that types below the cutoff obtain a low score and types above the cutoff obtain a high score.

Another case in which the optimal rule involves a simple cutoff with respect to $\theta$ is when $r$ in the payoff function (1) depends on $\theta$ according to some function $r(\theta)$, which is increasing in $\theta$ sufficiently strongly. This has a simple and intuitive economic interpretation: good banks have better investment opportunities in addition to having better assets in place. In this case, the gain from giving a high score is $r(\theta) \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)$ and the gain-to-cost ratio is $r(\theta)G(\theta)$. So, no matter what shape $G(\theta)$ has, if $r(\theta)$ is increasing sufficiently strongly, the gain-to-cost ratio will be monotonically increasing, and the disclosure rule will look like a cutoff rule. For example, if $r(\theta) = \frac{1}{\Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)}$, then $r(\theta)G(\theta) = \frac{1}{1-\theta}$, which is increasing in $\theta$.

Finally, an example in which the optimal disclosure rule does not involve a simple cutoff as in Corollary 2 is when $G(\theta)$ is decreasing when $\theta \leq \theta_{k+1}$. In this case the optimal disclosure rule is nonmonotone in type. It includes a cutoff such that types below the cutoff and types above 1 obtain a high score, while types in the middle obtain a low score. A sufficient condition for this to happen is that

---

7 The case $\varepsilon = 0$ is isomorphic to the example in Kamenica and Gentzkow (2011) in which a firm provides information to consumers to help them learn about the match between their preferences and the characteristics of the firm’s products.
4 Bank observes its type

So far, we assumed that the bank does not observe its type. We showed that it is possible to implement the optimal disclosure rule with two scores, such that the planner pools everyone who sells under the same score. In this section, we show that this conclusion may no longer be true when the bank observes its type. The difference is that now each type has a “reservation price,” i.e., a minimum price at which it is willing to sell. When different types have different reservation prices, the planner may need to assign more than two scores to distinguish among them. We also discuss how the planner should assign these multiple scores to low types who are pooled with high types.

4.1 Derivation of the planner’s problem

We first derive banks’ reservation prices. Define

\[
\rho(\theta) = \begin{cases} 
\max \{1, \theta - r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)\} & \text{if } \theta \geq 1 \\
\min \{1, \theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)\} & \text{if } \theta < 1.
\end{cases}
\] (8)

**Lemma 3** In equilibrium, a bank of type \( \theta \) agrees to sell at price \( x \) if and only if \( x \geq \rho(\theta) \).

Lemma 3 is derived as follows. If type \( \theta \) keeps its asset, its expected payoff is \( E[R(\theta + \bar{\varepsilon})] = \theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta) \). If type \( \theta \) sells at price \( x \), its payoff is \( R(x) \), i.e., it is \( x \) when \( x < 1 \) and \( x + r \) when \( x \geq 1 \). Hence, type \( \theta \) agrees to sell if and only if \( R(x) \geq \theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta) \). This reduces to \( x \geq \rho(\theta) \).

We refer to \( \rho(\theta) \) as type \( \theta \)'s reservation price and denote \( \rho_i = \rho(\theta_i) \). As illustrated in Figure 1, the reservation price satisfies two properties, which we use later.

\(^8\) An example of a probability distribution function that satisfies the condition above is a truncated Cauchy distribution (Nadarajah and Kotz, 2006) on the interval \([-A, 0]\) minus its mean, where the lower bound \( A \) depends on the model parameters. Intuitively, for the sufficient condition above to hold, the probability distribution of \( \bar{\varepsilon} \) must put low weight on low values; that is, \( F(1 - \theta_k + 1) < \frac{1 - \theta_{k+1}}{1 - \theta_{\text{min}}} F(1 - \theta_{\text{min}}) < \frac{1 - \theta_{k+1}}{1 - \theta_{\text{min}}} \). So when \( \theta_{k+1} \) is close to 1, the distribution must have a fat tail to satisfy \( E(\bar{\varepsilon}) = 0 \).
First, $\rho(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$. Second, $\rho(\theta) < \theta$ when $\theta > 1$. The intuition for the second property is that types above 1 are willing to sell below their true valuation (i.e., at a discount) to guarantee that their cash holdings do not fall below 1. This is the insurance motive. The figure also shows that a very low type will agree to sell its asset for less than 1, but only if the price is above $\theta$. Intuitively, the bank will demand compensation for losing the option value of ending up with cash holdings above 1. As emphasized before, in this range the bank is essentially risk loving. However, as we show below, in equilibrium such transactions will not happen as the market is not willing to pay a price above the expected type. Overall, as in the previous section, a bank never sells in equilibrium for a price below 1.

![Figure 1](image)

We now derive some properties that must hold under the optimal disclosure rule.\(^9\)

**Lemma 4** Under an optimal disclosure rule:

1. Every type $\theta_i \geq 1$ sells its asset with probability 1.
2. Whenever type $\theta_i \geq 1$ receives score $s$, the price is $x(s) = \mu(s)$.
3. If the highest type that obtains score $s$ is below 1, then every type keeps its asset upon obtaining score $s$.

\(^9\)We establish existence of an optimal disclosure rule below.
The first part in Lemma 4 follows because if a type $\theta \geq 1$ did not sell its asset, the planner could strictly increase type $\theta'$'s payoff, without affecting the payoffs of other types, by fully revealing $\theta'$'s type. Then the market would offer to buy type $\theta'$'s asset at a price $\theta$, and type $\theta$ would accept the offer.

The second part follows from the first part and the observation that the reservation price is increasing in $\theta$. These imply that every type sells its asset upon obtaining score $s$, as long as score $s$ is also obtained by type $\theta_i \geq 1$. Hence, selling at this score does not convey any additional information to the market, and the market prices the asset at the expected value given the score: $x(s) = \mu(s)$.

The third part reflects the fact that if no type above 1 obtains score $s$, the price $x(s)$ must be less than 1. Then, the bank will sell only if the price is strictly above the true value. But this cannot be an equilibrium outcome because the market would overpay in expectation. The third part holds under any disclosure rule, not only an optimal one.

It follows from Lemmas 3 and 4 that under an optimal rule a bank sells its asset upon receiving score $s \in S$ if and only if $\mu(s) \geq 1$. Hence, the equilibrium payoff for type $\theta$ is $u(\theta)$, as in equation (3) in the previous section. It also follows that if the highest type that obtains score $s$ is type $\theta_i \geq 1$, then $\mu(s) \geq \rho_i$, so that $\theta_i$ agrees to sell. Formally, denote by $S_i$ the set of scores that type $\theta_i \geq 1$ obtains with a positive probability but higher types do not obtain; that is, $S_i = \{s \in S : g(s|\theta_i) > 0 \text{ and } g(s|\theta') = 0 \text{ for every } \theta' > \theta\}$. Then

$$\mu(s) \geq \rho_i \text{ for all } s \in S_i \text{ and } i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}. \quad (9)$$

(Recall that types 1 through $k$ are above 1.)

The planner’s problem reduces then to finding a disclosure rule $(S, g)$ to maximize the expected payoff across types $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta)$, just as in the previous section, such that equation (9) holds. This equation is a generalization of the condition for selling $\mu(s) \geq 1$ in Lemma 1, but now to satisfy the reservation prices of different types, there are different conditions for different scores.
Denote $h_i(\theta) = \sum_{s \in S_i} g(s|\theta)$. So $h_i(\theta)$ is the probability that $\theta$ obtains a score such that the highest type that obtains the score is $\theta_i \geq 1$. The probability that a bank sells its asset is then $\sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta)$. We can now write down the planner’s problem as follows:

**Lemma 5** When the bank observes its type, the planner’s problem reduces to choosing a set of functions $\{h_i : \Theta \rightarrow [0, 1]\}_{i=1,...,k}$ to maximize

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta) \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta),$$

such that (11) – (13) holds:

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)h_i(\theta) \geq 0 \text{ for every } i \in \{1, ..., k\}, \quad (11)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta) \leq 1 \text{ for every } \theta \in \Theta, \quad (12)$$

$$h_i(\theta) = 0 \text{ for every } i \in \{1, ..., k\} \text{ and } \theta > \theta_i. \quad (13)$$

The derivation of Lemma 5 follows directly from the discussion above and from the analysis in the previous section. The objective function (10) is as in Lemma 2, noting that the probability that type $\theta$ sells its asset is $h(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta)$. Again, the planner wants to maximize the expected gain from giving banks a score that enables them to sell at a price above 1 when otherwise they would end up with cash holdings below 1. Equation (11) is a generalization of the resource constraint (5) and follows from (9). Now there are $k$ resource constraints required to satisfy the reservation prices of all the types above 1. Equation (12) simply says that the probability that type $\theta$ sells its asset is at most 1. Finally, equation (13) says that the highest type that obtains a score $s \in S_i$ is type $\theta_i$, by definition.

The problem in Lemma 5 is a linear programming problem. Because the feasible region is bounded ($h_i(\theta) \in [0, 1]$) and nonempty, a solution exists. The solution

---

10Setting $h_i(\theta) = 1$ if $\theta = \theta_i$, and $h_i(\theta) = 0$ if $\theta \neq \theta_i$, satisfies all the constraints.
can be implemented with \( k + 1 \) scores, which we denote by \( s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_k \). Specifically,

\[
g(s_i|\theta) = \begin{cases} h_i(\theta) & \text{if } i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \\ 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{k} h_j(\theta) & \text{if } i = 0 \end{cases}
\]  

(14)

As in Corollary 1, full disclosure achieves an optimal outcome if and only if there are no types below 1. No disclosure achieves an optimal outcome if and only if there are sufficient resources, so that every type sells in equilibrium if there is no disclosure. However, the condition for no disclosure to be optimal changes to \( E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq \rho_1 \), and so it is stricter than in the previous section. Essentially, there must be sufficient resources so that every type can sell its asset at the reservation price of the highest type.\(^{11}\) Hence, disclosure may be necessary even if \( E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq 1 \).

Finally, note that if the optimal disclosure rule is such that \( \mu(s) = \rho_i \) for some \( s \in S_i \), then the optimal rule may not uniquely implement the planner’s preferred outcome. In particular, there might exist an equilibrium in which \( x(s) = \theta_{\min} \) and trade does not occur. However, the planner can uniquely implement an outcome that is almost optimal by setting \( \mu(s) \) slightly above \( \rho_i \). In this case, Bertrand competition leads to a unique equilibrium outcome in which \( x(s) = \mu(s) \).

### 4.2 Properties of optimal disclosure rules

In this section, we focus on two properties of optimal disclosure rules, which must hold when resources are scarce.\(^{12}\) We say that resources are scarce if it is impossible to implement an outcome in which every type sells its asset with probability 1. A sufficient condition for this to happen is that \( E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1 \).\(^{13}\) In this case, all \( k \) resource constraints in (11) are binding.\(^{14}\) So if the highest type that obtains score \( s \) is \( \theta_i \geq 1 \), the price is \( \rho_i \).

The first property is as follows:

\(^{11}\)Formally, since \( h_1(\theta_1) = 1 \) (Lemma 4), under no disclosure, \( h_1(\theta) = 1 \) for every \( \theta \in \Theta \). This satisfies the resource constraint (11) if and only if \( E(\tilde{\theta}) \geq \rho_1 \).

\(^{12}\)When resources are not scarce, there is always an optimal rule that satisfies the two properties, but there are also optimal disclosure rules that do not satisfy these properties.

\(^{13}\)See more details in the appendix. A necessary and sufficient condition is that \( a_k \) in Lemma A-2 in the appendix is well defined.

\(^{14}\)See Lemma A-1 in the appendix.
Proposition 2 Suppose resources are scarce. Under an optimal disclosure rule, types above 1 that have different reservation prices obtain different scores.

Intuitively, if two types above 1 have different reservation prices but the same score, the sale price equals to the reservation price of the higher type. This means that the lower type sells for more than its reservation price and, therefore, ends up with more resources than it requires. But this is a waste of resources without any gain. The planner can do better by assigning the lower type its own score, so that this type ends up with less resources. This frees up resources that can be used to cross subsidize types below 1. This, in turn, increases the probability that low types will end up with cash holdings that are at least 1.

It follows that when resource are scarce and \( \rho_1 > \rho_2 > \ldots > \rho_k \), the planner must assign at least \( k + 1 \) scores. So without loss of generality, the planner assigns scores \( s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_k \), such that score \( s_i \) (\( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \)) pools together type \( \theta_i \), which is above 1, with a type (or types) that are below 1, and score \( s_0 \) pools together only types that are below 1. When a bank obtains score \( s_0 \), the bank does not sell its asset. When a bank obtains score \( s_i \neq s_0 \), the bank sells its asset for price \( \rho_i \).

Corollary 3 If resources are scarce and \( \rho_1 > \rho_2 > \ldots > \rho_k \), the planner must assign at least \( k + 1 \) scores.

The second property is that pooling between types below 1 and types above 1 is non-monotone. Among the types below 1 that are pooled with types above 1, the lowest types below 1 are pooled with the highest types above 1. Formally,

Proposition 3 Suppose resources are scarce, \( \theta' < \theta'' < 1 < \theta_i < \theta_j \), and \( \rho_i < \rho_j \). Under an optimal disclosure rule, if a positive probability exists that type \( \theta' \) is pooled together with type \( \theta_i \) (i.e., \( h_i(\theta') > 0 \)), then type \( \theta'' \) cannot be pooled together with type \( \theta_j \) (i.e., \( h_j(\theta'') = 0 \)).

\[ \text{It is also possible to implement the optimal outcome with more than } k + 1 \text{ scores. For example, instead of assigning score } s_i \text{ where } i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}, \text{ the planner can assign multiple scores with } \mu(s) = \rho_i \text{ such that } h_i(\theta) = \sum_{s: \mu(s) = \rho_i} g(s|\theta). \]
This result seems surprising. To understand the intuition, we need to go back to the gain-to-cost ratio that was guiding the allocation of scores in the case the bank did not know its type in the previous section (see Equation (6)). When giving scores to types below 1 in the case studied in this section, the planner will have a similar gain-to-cost ratio in mind, but now there will be different gain-to-cost ratios for the $k$ different scores that guarantee selling in equilibrium. In particular, the gain-to-cost ratio from pooling type $\theta < 1$ with type $\theta_i \geq 1$ is:

$$\frac{\Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)}{\rho_i - \theta}.$$  

(15)

The gain from pooling type $\theta < 1$ with any of the types above 1 is the same. Type $\theta'$'s cash holdings will surely be at least 1, so the gain is $\Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)$ as before. But the cost is different and depends on which score is allocated. It is more costly to pool with a higher type because the sale price is higher and $\theta$ ends up with more resources. In particular, when $\theta$ is pooled with type $\theta_i > 1$, $\theta$ sells at price $\rho_i$, and so the cost is $\rho_i - \theta$.

To understand the non-monotonicity result in Proposition 3, it is useful to break up the cost $\rho_i - \theta$ into two components $\rho_i - 1$ and $1 - \theta$. The latter is the cost of bringing the bank up to the threshold of 1 and the former is the cost of bringing it up farther from 1 to the reservation price $\rho_i$ of the bank with which it is pooled. For types $\theta < 1$ that are close to 1, the second component is negligible, while the first component is first order. In contrast, for very low types below 1, the second component is first order. Hence, to save on resources, it is more beneficial to reduce the first component for the types that are close to 1. This can be done by pooling these types with types above 1 that have a low reservation price $\rho_i$. Then, the result in the proposition follows: Higher types below 1 are pooled together with lower types above 1.

An immediate corollary of Proposition 3 is that among the types below 1 that sell their assets, lower types sell for higher prices. Formally,

**Corollary 4** Suppose resources are scarce and $\theta' < \theta'' < 1$. Under an optimal
disclosure rule, if a positive probability exists that type $\theta'$ sells at price $x'$ and type $\theta''$ sells at price $x''$, then $x'' \leq x'$.

Corollary 4 implies that the sale price is nonmonotone in type. Among the types below 1 that sell their assets, lower types sell for higher prices. However, among types above 1, the opposite is true, as these types end up selling exactly for their reservation price, which is increasing in type.

4.3 Closed-form solutions and examples

The results in the previous subsection provide general properties of the optimal disclosure rule and also a general algorithm that can be used to determine the optimal disclosure rule for every set of parameters and distribution functions covered by our model. To get a better idea of how the disclosure rule works, in this subsection, we illustrate the optimal disclosure rule in some special cases. For use below, define $G_i(\theta) = \frac{\Pr(\bar{\bar{z}} < 1 - \theta)}{\rho_i - \theta}$, which is the gain-to-cost ratio from pooling together type $\theta < 1$ with type $\theta_i > 1$, as in (15).

Case 1. No idiosyncratic risk, i.e., $\bar{\bar{z}} = 0$: Here, the planner cannot implement cross-subsidies from high types to low types, and type $\theta \in \Theta$ ends up with a payoff $R(\theta)$ independently of the disclosure rule. Hence, every disclosure rule leads to the same outcome, and so every disclosure rule is optimal.

Case 2. $\rho_1 = 1$: Here, the highest reservation price is 1. As we know from (8), this can be consistent with having multiple types above 1, but either $r$ is sufficiently high or $\theta_{\max}$ is sufficiently low, so they are willing to sell the asset at a price of 1. It follows immediately from Proposition 1 and from the analysis in the previous subsection that in this case, the optimal disclosure rule is essentially identical to the one when the bank does not observe its type, as in Proposition 1.

Case 3. $k = 1$: Here, there is only one type above 1. It can be easily shown that in this case the optimal disclosure rule is similar to that in Proposition 1 (when the bank does not know its type), except that the gain-to-cost ratio is $G_1(\theta)$ instead of $G(\theta)$. Then, Corollary 2 describing when the disclosure rule features monotonicity
holds only if $\rho_1$ is sufficiently small. Otherwise, $G_1(\theta)$ is decreasing when $\theta < 1$ even if Condition 1 is satisfied.\footnote{Formally, $G_1(\theta)$ is increasing when $\theta < 1$ if and only if $-F'(1-\theta)(\rho_1-\theta) + F(1-\theta) \geq 0$. This reduces to $\rho_1 \leq \max_{\theta, \theta < 1} \{\theta + \frac{F(1-\theta)}{F'(1-\theta)}\}$.} Intuitively, when $\rho_1$ is very high, the cost $(\rho_1 - \theta)$ of pooling type $\theta < 1$ with the type above 1 is relatively high no matter how high $\theta$ is, and so the dominant factor in deciding which types should be included in risk sharing is that the gain $\Pr(\xi < 1 - \theta)$ is decreasing in $\theta$. So when $\rho_1$ is sufficiently high, low types and the type above 1 obtain the high score, while types in the middle obtain the low score.

**Case 4.** $k \geq 2$ and $G_i(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$ for every $\theta < 1$ and every $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$:\footnote{A sufficient condition for this to happen is that Condition 1 holds and $\rho_1 < \max_{\theta, \theta < 1} \{\theta + \frac{F(1-\theta)}{F'(1-\theta)}\}$.} Using similar logic as in Section 3, one can show that the lowest types are excluded from risk sharing. The optimal disclosure rule can be found by applying Propositions 2 and 3. First, pool the lowest type above 1 (type $\theta_k$) with the highest types below 1 until all the resources from type $\theta_k$ are exhausted. Next, pool the second lowest type above 1 (type $\theta_{k-1}$) with the remaining highest types below 1 until the resources from type $\theta_{k-1}$ are exhausted. And so on, until we exhaust the resources from the highest type $\theta_1$.\footnote{Proposition A-1 in the appendix provides a closed-form solution. Note that, in general, when resources are scarce, the optimal disclosure rule uniquely determines the probability $h_i(\theta)$, and hence the price at which type $\theta$ sells its asset. However, there is more than one way to implement it (e.g., footnote 15).}

The following example illustrates the solution:

**Example 1** There are five types $\theta_1 > \theta_2 > 1 > \theta_3 > \theta_4 > \theta_5$ and $\rho_1 > \rho_2$. So without loss of generality there are 3 scores $s_0, s_1, s_2$. Suppose $G_i(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$ for every $\theta < 1$ and $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Suppose in addition that:

\begin{align*}
p(\theta_2)(\theta_2 - \rho_2) &= p(\theta_3)(\rho_2 - \theta_3) \quad (16) \\
p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) &= p(\theta_4)(\rho_1 - \theta_4). \quad (17)
\end{align*}

Then the optimal disclosure rule is as follows (an element in the table is the prob-
ability that type $\theta_j$ obtains score $s_i$):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\theta_5$</th>
<th>$\theta_4$</th>
<th>$\theta_3$</th>
<th>$\theta_2$</th>
<th>$\theta_1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$s_1$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s_2$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s_0$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In particular, equation (16) implies that $\theta_3$ gets score $s_2$ with probability 1, so that the resource constraint for score $s_2$ is satisfied with equality. Equation (17) implies that $\theta_4$ gets score $s_1$ with probability 1, so that the resource constraint for score $s_1$ is satisfied with equality. As we can see, $\theta_1$ and $\theta_4$ are pooled together at the highest price; $\theta_2$ and $\theta_3$ are pooled together at the lower price; and $\theta_5$ does not sell and does not participate in risk sharing.\(^{19}\)

**Case 5.** $k \geq 2$ and $G_i(\theta)$ is decreasing in $\theta$ for every $\theta < 1$ and every $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$.\(^{20}\) In this case, types in the “middle” are excluded from risk sharing, and the optimal disclosure rule can be found as follows: Pool the highest type $\theta_1$ with the lowest types until all the resources from type $\theta_1$ are exhausted. Next, pool the second highest type $\theta_2$ with the remaining lowest types, and so on, until all the resources of types above 1 are exhausted.

**Case 6.** $k \geq 2$ and there exists $\hat{k} \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that for every $\theta < 1$, $G_i(\theta)$ is decreasing in $\theta$ if $i \in \{1, \ldots, \hat{k}\}$ and increasing in $\theta$ if $i \in \{\hat{k} + 1, \ldots, k\}$.\(^{21}\) In this case, the optimal disclosure rule can by found be combining the procedures in cases 4 and 5. We illustrate in the example below.

**Example 2** In Example 1 suppose that $G_1(\theta)$ is decreasing when $\theta < 1$ (rather than increasing) and $p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) = p(\theta_3)(\rho_1 - \theta_5)$. The optimal disclosure rule

\(^{19}\)In general, a type below 1 will be pooled with more than one type above 1. For example, if we changed equations (16) and (17), so that $p(\theta_2)(\theta_2 - \rho_2) = \frac{1}{3} p(\theta_3)(\rho_2 - \theta_3)$ and $p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) = \frac{2}{3} p(\theta_3)(\rho_2 - \theta_3) + \frac{1}{3} p(\theta_4)(\rho_1 - \theta_4)$, then $\theta_3$ will obtain score $s_1$ with probability $\frac{2}{3}$ and score $s_2$ with probability $\frac{1}{3}$, and $\theta_4$ will obtain $s_1$ with probability $\frac{1}{3}$ (and $s_0$ with probability $\frac{2}{3}$).

\(^{20}\)A sufficient condition for this to happen is that $\rho_k > \max_{\theta: \theta < 1} \{\theta + \frac{F(1-\theta)}{F'(1-\theta)}\}$.

\(^{21}\)A sufficient condition for this to happen is that Condition 1 holds and $\rho_k \geq \max_{\theta: \theta < 1} \{\theta + \frac{F(1-\theta)}{F'(1-\theta)}\} > \rho_{k+1}$.
is as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>( \theta_5 )</th>
<th>( \theta_4 )</th>
<th>( \theta_3 )</th>
<th>( \theta_2 )</th>
<th>( \theta_1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( s_1 ) (sell at price ( \rho_1 ))</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( s_2 ) (sell at price ( \rho_2 ))</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( s_0 ) (keep asset)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.4 Discussion of non-monotonicity

Optimal disclosure rules may exhibit two forms of non-monotonicity. First, the probability of selling the asset may be nonmonotone in type (Example 2). Second, the sale price may be nonmonotone in type (Examples 1 and 2).

The first form of non-monotonicity arises when the gain-to-cost ratio is decreasing in \( \theta \). A necessary condition for this is that the gain is decreasing in \( \theta \). That is, for a given cost, the planner has a preference for helping low types. In our model this happens because every type may end up with cash holdings above 1 and obtain \( r \) even without selling its asset, but lower types are less likely to be in that position. So, the gain from having a low type sell its asset is higher. This will not be true in a variation of our model in which the bank’s final payoff is \( R(z) \) if it sells the asset, and \( z \), otherwise. For example, the bank may have an investment opportunity that expires before the asset cash flows are obtained. In this case, the gain from selling at price \( x \geq 1 \) is the same for all types, and the planner’s objective becomes \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta) \). Then the gain-to-cost ratio becomes \( \frac{1}{\rho_{i-g}} \), which is increasing in \( \theta \).\(^{22}\)

The second form of non-monotonicity follows from the payoff function (1), which induces pooling between types above 1 and types below 1, and because the sale price reflects the reservation price of the highest type in the pool, meaning that pooling with a higher type is more costly. As a result, pooling between types above 1 and types below 1 is nonmonotone, and types below 1 can sell at a price above the price obtained by some types above 1. This nonmonotonicity continues to hold under different planner’s objective functions. Examples are when the planner’s objective

\(^{22}\)In the alternative model, type \( \theta \)'s reservation price changes to \( \rho(\theta) = \max\{1, \theta - r\} \) if \( \theta \geq 1 \), and \( \rho(\theta) = \theta \), if \( \theta < 1 \). Propositions 2 and 3, continue to hold. 

27
is to maximize \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(\theta) \), as discussed above, or when the planner’s objective reflects some (unmodeled) social gain from having type \( \theta_i \) sell its asset.

4.5 Non-monotonicity and free disposal

The two forms of non-monotonicity can lead to equilibrium outcomes in which low types end up with higher expected payoff than high types. For example, in Example 1, type \( \theta_4 \) ends up with a higher expected payoff than type \( \theta_3 \) because both types sell with probability 1 but type \( \theta_4 \) sells for a higher price. Such an outcome is plausible if the bank and the regulator learn \( \theta \) at the same time and the bank cannot affect \( \theta \). However, if the bank learns its \( \theta \) before the regulator and can freely (and secretly) dispose assets, the equilibrium above breaks down because a high type has strong incentives to increase its equilibrium payoff by destroying assets. In an online appendix, we explore optimal disclosure rules that are not exposed to free disposal when such free disposal is a possibility.

Specifically, we solve the planner’s problem with an additional monotonicity constraint, namely that the bank’s equilibrium payoff is weakly increasing in type. We show that for some parameter values, lower types continue to sell at higher prices. However, to satisfy the monotonicity constraint, so that high types do not have incentive to destroy assets, the low types sell with probability that is less than 1. We also show that for some parameter values, it is no longer optimal that types above 1 with different reservation prices obtain different scores. For example, for some parameter values in Example 1, it is optimal to pool type \( \theta_2 \) with type \( \theta_1 \) so that type \( \theta_2 \) sells its asset at a price above its reservation price. This increases the payoff for type \( \theta_2 \), which is beneficial because it relaxes the monotonicity constraint for lower types, thereby allowing them to sell with a higher probability.

5 Discussion

In this section, we discuss some of the assumptions, interpretations, and possible extensions of the model.
1. In our model risk sharing takes a simple form: a bank sells its asset to a competitive market. We obtain similar results if we assume instead that the bank can enter into more complicated derivative contracts, under which the bank replaces a random cash flow with a deterministic cash flow. Such derivative contracts are quite common in today’s banking industry. The nature of our results also remains the same if banks can create risk-sharing arrangements among themselves such as in the traditional interbank market (see more below).

2. An interesting extension of our model would allow the regulator to provide funds to banks. Such an extension would suggest that in some cases, it is optimal to inject money not only to weak banks but also to strong banks, so that the market cannot distinguish among them.\footnote{This might have been part of the logic behind having all nine large banks obtain Troubled Asset Relief Program (TARP) funds during the financial crisis in 2009.} For example, suppose there are two banks: strong ($\theta_1 = 1.2$, $\rho_1 = 1$) and weak ($\theta_2 = 0.4$), and the planner has a bailout fund in the amount of 0.4. Giving all the money to the weak bank identifies the bank as weak. Because the value of the weak bank after the cash injection is 0.8, it will not be able to sell its asset for a price of at least 1. So the weak bank will continue to face the risk that its cash holdings are below 1. Splitting the money equally between the two banks leads to a better outcome. Now, after the cash injection, the value of the strong bank is 1.4, and the value of the weak bank is 0.6. Since the market cannot distinguish between the two banks, each bank will be able to sell its asset for a price of 1, which is the average value of both banks. Then both banks could guarantee cash holdings of 1.

3. In our model, all the economic surplus is captured by the banking sector, and so the regulator sets a disclosure rule aiming to maximize the surplus in the banking sector. However, our model can also easily capture externalities imposed by banks on the rest of society. Suppose, for example, that when a bank of type $\theta$ fails (i.e., when $\theta + \varepsilon < 1$), society suffers some exogenous loss $l(\theta)$. Then the social gain from having a bank sell its asset is higher by $l(\theta)$. We can include this gain in the planner’s objective function and take it into account in the design
of the disclosure rule. In particular, we can capture this gain by adding $l(\theta)$ to the coefficient of $h_i(\theta)$ in the planner’s objective function (10). Our main results, including the nonmonotonicity results, continue to hold in this case. Clearly, now the planner will have a stronger motive to help banks with a high $l(\theta)$. This may capture the familiar “too big to fail” argument, whereby regulators try to save institutions whose failure will cause a big damage to the economy.

4. As in any standard mechanism design problem, we assumed that the regulator can commit to assigning scores according to the announced disclosure rule. It is important to note that in many cases this commitment would arise endogenously. For example, if banks create risk-sharing arrangements among themselves rather than with a third party, the regulator cannot gain by deviating from the optimal ex-ante disclosure rule, e.g., saying things are better than they are, since then banks will have insufficient funds to honor the agreements and they will all fail. Similarly, even if risk sharing is done with the market, as is explicitly the case in our model, the regulator cannot gain by deviating ex post in case there is a continuum of banks and the probability $p(\theta)$ of being a type $\theta$ represents the proportion of banks of this type in the continuum. In this case, maximizing the bank’s ex-ante expected payoff is the same as maximizing the sum of banks’ ex-post payoffs. Since the regulator is interested in that, he has no incentive to deviate ex post and say that some banks are doing better because this will come at the expense of other banks (remember the market knows the proportion of banks of each type). In this sense, the regulator is very different from a single bank, and we indeed cannot expect a single bank to be able to commit on a disclosure rule. The bank cares only about its own payoff ex post and so will always want to deviate and disclose a better type. Hence, studying disclosure by the regulator and not by individual banks is very natural in the context of our model.

5. One objection people may have for the disclosure rule derived in our paper is that pooling strong banks with weak banks might be perceived as “cheating” by the regulator, which is unlikely to pass public scrutiny. It is important to note, however, that the regulator does not cheat or lie in our model. A high score does
not necessarily mean that the bank is strong. It only means that, on average, the bank’s cash flow is above the critical level, which is indeed correct. When the regulator gives a score, the regulator can also announce the average cash flow for banks receiving the score. It is then known that for a high score, these banks are not expected to fail, which ends up being true in equilibrium, and so there should not be any public objection to this practice used by the regulator. In addition, one can think of scores more broadly than just grades. Scores separate banks into groups, and assigning scores is isomorphic to recommending banks which groups to form. For example, one can think of scores as suggesting mergers among banks or joint liability arrangements as in Leitner (2005). We solved for the optimal design of groups under the constraint that each bank prefers to join the recommended group rather than stay in autarky, and under the assumption that idiosyncratic risk is fully diversified within a group. This might be the case if there is a continuum of banks of each type, or more realistically, if the regulator provides insurance against idiosyncratic risk within a group.\footnote{We do abstract, however, from other issues of group formation, such as whether a bank receiving one score will attempt to form a link with a bank receiving a different score.}

6. While our model focuses on the optimal disclosure policy by a regulator, we believe that it can be used as a benchmark to think of credit rating agencies. For example, our model suggests that low types receiving high rating may be a feature of a socially optimal outcome. An interesting question is how the optimal disclosure rule looks like when the regulator faces competition from credit rating agencies, or whether it is possible to implement risk sharing when the regulator and credit rating agencies have a different objectives.

7. Finally, our results could also be applied to other settings of Bayesian persuasion. The novelty in our setting relative to the broad Bayesian persuasion literature (aside from the micro foundations for the banking context) is that agents, whose types are being disclosed by a planner, know their types and so have different reservation prices. This generates interesting implications for the optimal disclosure rule, which are explored in Section 4. This is applicable for many other settings studied
with Bayesian persuasion tools. For example, consider schools that grade students with different abilities, and potential employers who care about the average ability of students they hire. Suppose that students know their own abilities, and students can open their own business instead of getting hired. In this case, a student’s reservation price is the benefit from opening his own business. Our analysis can shed light on the way schools will communicate information about students.\(^{25}\)

6 Conclusion

We provide a model of an optimal disclosure policy of a regulator, who has information about banks. The disclosure policy affects whether banks can take corrective actions, particularly whether banks can engage in risk sharing to ensure that their capital does not fall below some critical level.

We show that during normal times, no disclosure is necessary, but during bad times, partial disclosure is needed. Partial disclosure takes the form of different scores pooling together banks of different levels of strength. Two scores are sufficient if banks do not have the information that the regulator has. In this case, the optimal disclosure rule may take a simple form, such that banks whose forecasted capital is below some threshold obtain the low score and banks whose forecasted capital is above the threshold obtain the high score. More than two scores may be needed if a bank shares the same information that the regulator has about the bank. In this case, the optimal disclosure rule is non-monotone. Among the strong banks, the stronger banks obtain higher scores, which reflect a higher asset value, on average, but among the weak banks that are pooled with strong banks, the weaker banks obtain higher scores when they are pooled with strong banks. This type of non-monotonicity continues to hold even if we impose monotonicity on equilibrium payoffs.

\(^{25}\)Ostrovsky and Schwarz (2010) study a similar problem but without such reservation prices.
References


Appendix

Proof of Lemma 1. From the text, the equilibrium price is $x(s) = \mu(s)$. Conditional on the bank’s information, the bank’s expected payoff is $E[R(\hat{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon} | \tilde{s} = s)] = \mu(s) + r \Pr(\hat{\theta} + \tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 | \tilde{s} = s)$ if it keeps the asset and $R(\mu(s))$ if it sells.
Hence, if $\mu(s) \geq 1$, it is optimal for the bank to sell because $R(\mu(s)) = \mu(s) + r > E[R(\hat{\theta} + \bar{\varepsilon}|\bar{s} = s)]$. If $\mu(s) < 1$, it is optimal to keep the asset because $R(\mu(s)) = \mu(s) < E[R(\hat{\theta} + \bar{\varepsilon}|\bar{s} = s)]$. The strict inequality follows from Assumption 1.

**Proof of Lemma 2.** The planner’s problem is to choose a disclosure rule $(S, g)$ to maximize the bank’s ex-ante payoff $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta)$. From the law of iterated expectations, $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} \mu(s) g(s|\theta) = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} \theta g(s|\theta)$. Hence

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta) = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) < 1} [\theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)] g(s|\theta) + \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} [\theta + r] g(s|\theta)$$

$$= \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) [\theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)] \sum_{s; \mu(s) < 1} g(s|\theta) + \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) [\theta + r] \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta).$$

Since $\sum_{s; \mu(s) < 1} g(s|\theta) = 1 - \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta)$, we obtain that

$$\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta) = \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) [\theta + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)] + r \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta).$$

In the right-hand-side of the equation above, only the second term is affected by the disclosure rule. Hence, maximizing $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) u(\theta)$ is the same as maximizing $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta) \sum_{s; \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta)$. Observe that if $(S, g)$ is a disclosure rule, $h(\theta) = \sum_{s \in S; \mu(s) \geq 1} g(s|\theta)$ satisfies (5), as follows. For every high score $s \in S$, $\mu(s) \geq 1$, which from (2) reduces to $\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) (\theta - 1) g(s|\theta) \geq 0$. Summing over all high scores, we obtain (5). Conversely, if $\{h(\theta)\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ solves the problem in Lemma 2, a disclosure rule $(S, g)$ such that $S = \{s_0, s_1\}$ and $h(\theta) = g(s_1|\theta)$ is optimal. The result follows.

**Proof of Proposition 1.** 1. Setting $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$ achieves the maximal attainable value for (4) and satisfies the resource constraint (5). Any other $h : \Theta \rightarrow [0, 1]$ reduces the value of (4), by Assumption 1.

2. Suppose $h$ solves the problem in Lemma 2. By Assumption 1, $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \geq 1$. Now consider a type $\hat{\theta} < 1$ s.t. $h(\hat{\theta}) > 0$. We must have $h(\theta) = 1$ for every $\theta \in \Theta$ s.t. $G(\theta) > G(\hat{\theta})$ because if a type $\theta_i < 1$ exists s.t. $h(\theta_i) < 1$ and $G(\theta_i) > G(\hat{\theta})$, we obtain a contradiction to the optimality of $h$ by defining an
alternate solution \( \tilde{h}(\theta) = \begin{cases} h(\theta) & \text{if } \theta \notin \{\theta_i, \hat{\theta}\} \\ h(\theta) + \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \theta_i \\ h(\theta) - \frac{p(\theta_i)(1 - \theta_i)}{p(\theta)(1 - \theta)} \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \hat{\theta} \end{cases} \). In particular, if \( \Delta > 0 \) is sufficiently small, \( \tilde{h} \) is a function from \( \Theta \) to \([0, 1]\), which satisfies (5) and increases the value of (4) by \( p(\theta_i) \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_i) \Delta - p(\hat{\theta}) \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \hat{\theta}) \frac{p(\theta_i)(1 - \theta_i)}{p(\theta)(1 - \theta)} \Delta \), which equals \( \Delta p(\theta_i)(1 - \theta_i)[G(\theta_i) - G(\hat{\theta})] > 0 \). Consequently, if \( h(\hat{\theta}) > 0 \), we must have \( \sum_{\theta \geq 1} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) + \sum_{\theta < 1: G(\theta) > G(\hat{\theta})} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) \geq 0 \) to satisfy (5). Since the coefficient of \( h(\theta) \) in (4) is positive, \( h \) is given by (7).

**Proof of Corollary 1.** Under full disclosure, \( \mu(s) = \theta \) for every \( s \in S \) such that \( g(s|\theta) > 0 \). Hence, \( h(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta \geq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta < 1 \end{cases} \). By Proposition 1, this outcome is optimal if \( \theta_{\text{min}} \geq 1 \) and suboptimal if \( \theta_{\text{min}} < 1 \). Under no disclosure, \( \mu(s) = E(\hat{\theta}) \) for every \( s \in S \). If \( E(\hat{\theta}) \geq 1 \), the outcome is \( h(\theta) = 1 \) for every \( \theta \in \Theta \), which is optimal. If \( E(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \), the outcome is \( h(\theta) = 0 \) for every \( \theta \in \Theta \), which is suboptimal.

**Proof of Corollary 2.** Let \( \theta_i < \theta_j < 1 \). Then \( 1 - \theta_i > 1 - \theta_j > 0 \). From condition 1, \( G(\theta_i) < G(\theta_j) \). The result then follows from Proposition 1.

**Proof of Lemma 3.** The proof is in the text.

**Proof of Lemma 4.** 1. Consider an optimal disclosure rule \((S, g)\), a type \( \theta' \geq 1 \), and a score \( s' \in S \) s.t. \( g(s'|\theta') > 0 \). Suppose to the contrary that \( \theta' \) does not sell its asset upon obtaining \( s' \). Consider an alternate rule defined by \( \tilde{S} = S \cup \{\tilde{s}\} \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta') = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta') & \text{if } s = \tilde{s} \\ 0 & \text{if } s = s' \\ g(s|\theta) & \text{if } s \notin \{s', \tilde{s}\} \end{cases} \), and for \( \theta \neq \theta' \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s|\theta) & \text{if } s \neq \tilde{s} \\ 0 & \text{if } s = \tilde{s} \end{cases} \). Under \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\), the only type that obtains score \( \tilde{s} \) is \( \theta' \). So the equilibrium price for score \( \tilde{s} \) is \( \theta' \). By Lemma 3, \( \theta' \) sells upon obtaining score \( \tilde{s} \). Equilibrium prices for all other scores remain unchanged. Hence, the alternate rule increases the expected payoff for type \( \theta' \) by \( rg(s'|\theta) \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta') \), while keeping the payoffs for all other types unchanged.

2. Consider an optimal disclosure rule \((S, g)\), a type \( \theta \geq 1 \), and a score \( s \in S \) s.t. \( g(s|\theta) \geq 0 \). From part 1, type \( \theta \) sells upon obtaining score \( s \). So by Lemma
3, \( \rho(\theta) \leq x(s) \). To show \( x(s) = \mu(s) \), we show that every type \( \theta' \) s.t. \( g(s|\theta') > 0 \) sells upon obtaining score \( s \), so selling does not convey additional information to the market. If \( \theta' > \theta \), type \( \theta' \) sells from part 1. If \( \theta' < \theta \), then \( \rho(\theta') \leq \rho(\theta) \leq x(s) \), and type \( \theta' \) sells by Lemma 3.

3. Consider a disclosure rule \((S, g)\), not necessarily an optimal one, such that \( g(s|\theta) = 0 \) for every \( \theta \geq 1 \). Suppose to the contrary that in the equilibrium induced by \((S, g)\), some types sell upon obtaining score \( s \). Suppose the highest type that sells is \( \hat{\theta} < 1 \). So \( \hat{\theta} < \rho(\hat{\theta}) \). Since the market does not expect to lose money, the price must satisfy \( x(s) \leq \hat{\theta} \). But then \( x(s) < \rho(\hat{\theta}) \), which contradicts Lemma 3.

**Lemma A-1** If resources are scarce, any solution to the problem in Lemma 5 satisfies \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)h_i(\theta) = 0 \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \).

**Proof.** Suppose to the contrary that \( \{h_i\}_{i=1,...,k} \) solves the problem in Lemma 5 and there exists \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \) s.t. \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)h_i(\theta) > 0 \). Since resources are scarce, a type \( \hat{\theta} < 1 \) exists such that \( h(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \). Let \( \Delta \in (0, 1 - h(\hat{\theta})] \) and \( \tilde{h}_j(\theta) = \begin{cases} h_j(\theta) + \Delta & \text{if } j = i \text{ and } \theta = \hat{\theta} \\ h_j(\theta) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \). Then \( \{\tilde{h}_i\}_{i=1,...,k} \) satisfies the constraints in Lemma 5 and strictly increases the value of the objective function, leading to a contradiction to the optimality of \( \{h_i\}_{i=1,...,k} \). ■

**Remarks for footnote 13.** We show that \( E(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \) implies that resources are scarce, as follows. Summing up all resource constraints and changing the order of summation, we obtain \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i) \sum_{i=1}^k h_i(\theta) \geq 0 \). Since \( \rho_i \geq 1 \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \), it follows that \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) \sum_{i=1}^k h_i(\theta) \geq 0 \). Since \( E(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \), \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - 1) < 0 \). Hence, a type \( \theta \in \Theta \) exists for which \( \sum_{i=1}^k h_i(\theta) < 1 \).

**Proof of Proposition 2.** Consider an optimal disclosure rule \((S, g)\) and two types \( \theta_j > \theta_i > 1 \) s.t. \( \rho_j > \rho_i \). Let \( \{h_z(\theta)\}_{z \in \{1, \ldots, k\}} \) be the corresponding solution to Lemma 5. That is, for every \( z \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \), \( h_z(\theta) = \sum_{s \in S_i} g(s|\theta) \). Suppose to the contrary that a score \( s' \in S \) exists such that \( g(s'|\theta_i) > 0 \) and \( g(s'|\theta_j) > 0 \). Without loss of generality, \( g(s'|\theta_i) = 0 \) for every \( \theta > \theta_j \). Then \( h_j(\theta_i) > 0 \) and \( h_j(\theta_j) > 0 \).
From Lemma A-1, \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_z)h_z(\theta) = 0 \) for every \( z \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \). We obtain a contradiction to Lemma A-1 by constructing an alternate solution \( \{\tilde{h}_z\}_{z=1,\ldots,k} \) to the problem in Lemma 5, such that at least one of the resource constraint is satisfied with strict inequality.

Specifically, if \( \rho_j \geq \theta_i \), construct \( \tilde{h}_z(\theta) = \begin{cases} h_z(\theta) + \Delta & \text{if } z = i \text{ and } \theta = \theta_i \\ h_z(\theta) - \Delta & \text{if } z = j \text{ and } \theta = \theta_i \\ h_z(\theta) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \). It is easy to verify that if \( \Delta \) is sufficiently small, \( \tilde{h}_s(\theta) \) solves the problem in Lemma 5. In particular, resource constraint \( i \) is satisfied because \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)h_i(\theta) = 0 \) and \( \theta_i \geq \rho_i \) imply that \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)\tilde{h}_i(\theta) = \Delta p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_i) \geq 0 \). Resource constraint \( j \) is satisfied because \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_j)\tilde{h}_j(\theta) = -\Delta p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_j) \geq 0 \). Moreover, either \( \theta_i > \rho_i \) or \( \theta_i = \rho_i < \rho_j \). So at least one resource constraint is satisfied with strict inequality. If instead \( \rho_j < \theta_i \), then since \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_j)h_j(\theta) = 0 \), a type \( \tilde{\theta} < \rho_j \) exists such that \( h_j(\tilde{\theta}) > 0 \). The alternate solution is similar to \( h \) but for type \( \tilde{\theta} \), \( \tilde{h}_i(\tilde{\theta}) \) changes to \( \tilde{h}_i(\tilde{\theta}) + \hat{\Delta} \) and \( \tilde{h}_j(\tilde{\theta}) \) changes to \( \tilde{h}_j(\tilde{\theta}) - \hat{\Delta} \), where \( \hat{\Delta} = \frac{p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_j)}{p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_j)} \Delta > 0 \). Again, it is easy to verify that the alternate solution solves the problem in Lemma 5. Resource constraint \( j \) continues to be binding because \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_j)\tilde{h}_j(\theta) = -p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_j)\Delta - p(\tilde{\theta})(\tilde{\theta} - \rho_j)\hat{\Delta} = 0 \). Resource constraint \( i \) is satisfied with strict inequality because \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)\tilde{h}_i(\theta) = p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_i)\Delta + p(\tilde{\theta})(\tilde{\theta} - \rho_i)\hat{\Delta} > p(\theta_i)(\theta_i - \rho_i)\Delta + p(\tilde{\theta})(\tilde{\theta} - \rho_j)\hat{\Delta} = p(\theta_i)(\rho_j - \rho_i)\Delta > 0 \).

**Proof of Corollary 3.** From Proposition 2, we need at least \( k \) scores, so that each type above 1 obtains a different score. Since resources are scarce, we need another score for types below 1 that do not sell their assets.

**Proof of Proposition 3.** Consider an optimal disclosure rule \((S, g)\) and four types \( \theta' < \theta'' < 1 < \theta_i < \theta_j \), such that \( \rho_i < \rho_j \). (Clearly, \( \rho_i \geq 1 \).) Let \( \{h_z(\theta)\}_{z \in \{1, \ldots, k\}} \) be the corresponding solution to Lemma 5. That is, for every \( z \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \), \( h_z(\theta) = \sum_{s \in S} g(s|\theta) \). From Proposition 2, if \( \theta' \) is pooled together with type \( \theta_i \), then \( h_i(\theta') > 0 \). Suppose to the contrary that \( \theta'' \) is pooled together with type \( \theta_j \). So from Proposition 2, \( h_j(\theta'') > 0 \). From Lemma A-1, \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\theta - \rho_i)h_i(\theta) = 0 \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \). We obtain a contradiction.
to Lemma A-1 by constructing an alternate solution \( \{ \tilde{h} \}_{i=1,\ldots,k} \) to the problem in Lemma 5 that satisfies at least one of the resource constraints with strict inequality. Specifically, construct \( \tilde{h} \) from \( h \) as follows. For type \( \theta'' \), reduce \( h_j(\theta'') \) and increase \( h_i(\theta'') \), both by a small \( \Delta > 0 \). For type \( \theta' \), reduce \( h_i(\theta') \) and increase \( h_j(\theta') \), both by \( \Delta_1 = \frac{p(\theta')(\theta'' - \rho_j)}{p(\theta')(\theta' - \rho_j)} \Delta > 0 \). Clearly, \( \{ \tilde{h} \}_{i=1,\ldots,k} \) keeps the value of the objective function unchanged. The resource constraint \( j \) continues to be binding because

\[
-\Delta p(\theta'')(\theta'' - \rho_j) + \Delta_1 p(\theta')(\theta' - \rho_j) = 0.
\]

The resource constraint \( i \) is loosened because by simple algebra,

\[
\Delta p(\theta'')(\theta'' - \rho_i) - \Delta_1 p(\theta')(\theta' - \rho_i) = \Delta p(\theta'')(\frac{\rho_j - \rho_i}{\theta'' - \rho_j}) > 0.
\]

Clearly, \( \tilde{h} \) also satisfies the other constraints in Lemma 5.

**Proof of Corollary 4.** From Lemma 4 and Proposition 2, we know that there are types \( \theta_j \geq 1 \) and \( \theta_i \geq 1 \) with reservation prices \( \rho_i = x' \) and \( \rho_j = x'' \), such that \( h_i(\theta') > 0 \) and \( h_j(\theta'') > 0 \). We must have \( x'' \leq x' \) because otherwise \( \theta_i < \theta_j \) and Proposition 3 implies that \( h_j(\theta'') = 0 \), which is a contradiction.

**Lemma A-2** If resources are scarce, the following expressions are well defined:

\[
a_1 = \max \{ \theta \in \Theta : \sum_{\theta} p(\theta)(\rho_k - \theta) > p(\theta_k)(\rho_k - \rho_k) \},
\]

\[
b_1 = 1 - b_1;
\]

and for \( i > 1 \), define recursively \( a_i \) to be the largest type \( \theta' \leq a_{i-1} \), such that

\[
\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\rho_k - \theta) + c_{i-1} p(a_{i-1})(\rho_k - a_{i-1}) > p(\theta_k)(\rho_k - a_{i-1}),
\]

\[
b_i = \frac{p(\theta_k)(\rho_k - a_i) - \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)(\rho_k - \theta) - c_{i-1} p(a_{i-1})(\rho_k - a_{i-1})}{p(a_i)(\rho_k - a_i)},
\]

and \( c_i = \begin{cases} c_{i-1} - b_i & \text{if } a_i = a_{i-1} \\ 1 - b_i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \).

**Proposition A-1** If resources are scarce and \( G_i(\theta) \) is increasing in \( \theta \) for every \( \theta < 1 \) and \( i \in \{1,\ldots,k\} \), the optimal disclosure rule is such that for every \( i \in \{1,\ldots,k\} \),

\[
h_{k+1-i}(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta = \theta_i \text{ or } \theta \in (a_i, a_{i-1}) \\ c_{i-1} & \text{if } \theta = a_{i-1} \text{ and } a_i < a_{i-1} \\ b_i & \text{if } \theta = a_i \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta < a_i \end{cases}
\]

where \( a_i, b_i, \) and \( c_i \) are defined in Lemma A-2.
Online appendix.

In this appendix, we analyze the planner’s problem from Section 4 with the additional constraint that the bank’s equilibrium payoff is weakly increasing in type (as motivated in Section 4.5). We refer to this constraint as the monotonicity constraint and to the solution to the constrained problem as an optimal monotone rule.

Planner’s problem with monotonicity constraint

We first establish that (all proofs are at the end of this appendix):

**Lemma B-1** Lemma 4 continues to hold when we restrict attention to monotone rules.

**Lemma B-2** Suppose $E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1$. Under an optimal monotone rule, if $s' \in S_j$ and $j \in \{1, ..., k\}$, then $x(s') = \rho_j$.

From Lemma B-1, type $\theta$’s expected payoff is $u(\theta)$, as in equation (3). The monotonicity constraint is that for every two types $\theta' < \theta$,

$$u(\theta') \leq u(\theta). \quad (B-1)$$

From Lemma B-2, $u(\theta)$ reduces to

$$u(\theta) = \theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} [\rho_i - \theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)] h_i(\theta), \quad (B-2)$$

which is a linear combination of $\{h_i(\theta)\}_{i \in \{1, ..., k\}}$. The term $\theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)$ in (B-2) is the payoff that type $\theta$ obtains without selling its asset, and the coefficient of $h_i(\theta)$ is the extra payoff from selling at price $\rho_i$.

Hence, the planner’s problem reduces to the problem in Lemma 5, with the additional constraint (B-1), where $u(\theta)$ is given by (B-2). This is a linear programming problem. As in Section 4.1, a solution exists and can be implemented with $k + 1$ scores such that (14) holds.
Optimal monotone rules

In the examples below, we illustrate optimal monotone rules for two special cases. We show that for some parameter values, optimal monotone rules continue to exhibit the two forms of nonmonotonicity discussed in Section 4.4. We also show that for some parameter values, optimal monotone rules do not satisfy the property in Proposition 2.

In the first example, we use the following lemma, which is similar to Proposition 3, but holds under stricter conditions.

**Lemma B-3** Suppose $E(\hat{\theta}) < 1$, and $G_i(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$ when $\theta < 1$ for every $i \in \{1, ..., k\}$. Under an optimal monotone rule, if $\theta'' < 1$, $h(\theta'') < 1$, and type $\theta''$ ever sells its asset at price $x$, then lower types never sell at prices below $x$.

The idea behind Lemma B-3 is that if type $\theta''$ sells at price $x$ and type $\theta' < \theta''$ sells at price $x' < x$, the planner can increase the value of the objective function, as in Proposition 3. This could violate monotonicity because the payoff of type $\theta''$ falls and that of type $\theta'$ increases. But because $G_i(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$ when $\theta < 1$, the planner can restore monotonicity (and increase the value of the objective function even further) by transferring resources from type $\theta'$ to type $\theta''$.

**Example B-1** Suppose there are two types above 1, as in Example 1. We show below that if $p(\theta_3)$ is sufficiently large, there exists a scalar $\bar{\alpha} > 0$ and functions $\gamma(\alpha)$, $\hat{\beta}(\alpha)$, $\Gamma(\alpha)$, which depend on the model parameters, such that the optimal monotone rule is given by

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{score } s_1 \text{ (sell at price } \rho_1) & \gamma(\alpha^*) & \hat{\beta}(\alpha^*) & \alpha^* & \alpha^* & 1 \\
\text{score } s_2 \text{ (sell at price } \rho_2) & & & 1 - \alpha^* & 1 - \alpha^* \\
\text{score } s_0 \text{ (keep asset)} & 1 - \gamma(\alpha^*) & 1 - \hat{\beta}(\alpha^*) \\
\end{array}
\]

where $\alpha^* = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \Gamma(0) > \Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) \\ \bar{\alpha}, & \text{if } \Gamma(0) < \Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) \end{cases}$. (If $\Gamma(0) = \Gamma(\bar{\alpha})$, both $\alpha^* = 0$ and $\alpha^* = \bar{\alpha}$ are optimal.) Moreover, $0 < \hat{\beta}(0) < \hat{\beta}(\bar{\alpha}) < 1$ and $0 < \gamma(\bar{\alpha}) < \gamma(0) < 1$. 
Specifically, let
\[
\bar{\beta}(\alpha) = \frac{\rho_2 + \alpha(p_1 - p_2) - \theta_1 + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta_1)}{\rho_1 - \theta_1 + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_1)},
\]
\[
\tilde{\beta}(\alpha) = \frac{p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) - \alpha[p(\theta_2)(\rho_1 - \theta_2) + p(\theta_3)(\rho_1 - \theta_3)]}{p(\theta_4)(\rho_1 - \theta_4)},
\]
\[
\gamma(\alpha) = \frac{p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) - \alpha[p(\theta_2)(\rho_1 - \theta_2) + p(\theta_3)(\rho_1 - \theta_3)] - \min\{\beta(\alpha), \tilde{\beta}(\alpha)\}p(\theta_4)(\rho_1 - \theta_4)}{p(\theta_5)(\rho_1 - \theta_5)},
\]
\[
\hat{\gamma}(\alpha) = \frac{\rho_2 + \alpha(p_1 - p_2) - \theta_5 + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta_5)}{\rho_1 - \theta_5 + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_5)},
\]
\[
\Gamma(\alpha) = p(\theta_4) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_4)\hat{\beta}(\alpha) + p(\theta_5) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_5)\gamma(\alpha).
\]

Let \(\bar{\alpha}\) be the unique solution to \(\hat{\beta}(\alpha) = \tilde{\beta}(\alpha)\) and \(\bar{\alpha} = \min\{1, \bar{\alpha}\}\). Assume \(\gamma(0) \leq \hat{\gamma}(0)\) (e.g., \(p(\theta_5)\) is sufficiently large). Observe that \(\bar{\alpha} > 0, \hat{\beta}(0) < \hat{\beta}(\bar{\alpha}) < 1\) and \(\gamma(\bar{\alpha}) < \gamma(0) < 1\), where the last inequality follows from equation (17).

The derivation of the optimal monotone rule is as follows:

Since Lemma 4 continues to hold, an \(\alpha \in [0, 1]\) exists such that \(h_1(\theta_1) = 1, h_1(\theta_2) = \alpha,\) and \(h_2(\theta_2) = 1 - \alpha\). From the resource constraint for score \(s_2\), \(h_2(\theta_2)p(\theta_2)(\theta_2 - \rho_2) \geq h_3(\theta_3)p(\theta_3)(\rho_2 - \theta_3)\). From equation (16), \(h_2(\theta_3) \leq 1 - \alpha\).

It is suboptimal to set \(h_2(\theta_3) < 1 - \alpha\), as follows. Suppose to the contrary that \(h_2(\theta_3) < 1 - \alpha\). To satisfy \(u(\theta_3) \leq u(\theta_2)\), we must have \(h_1(\theta_3) + h_2(\theta_3) < 1\), and from the resource constraint for score \(s_2\), \(h_2(\theta) > 0\) for some \(\theta < \theta_3\). Hence, from Lemma B-3, \(h_1(\theta_3) = 0\). That is, if type \(\theta < \theta_3\) sells at price \(\rho_2\), type \(\theta_3\) cannot sell at price \(\rho_1 > \rho_2\). But then \(u(\theta_3) < u(\theta_2)\), and since the gain-to-cost ratio is increasing, the planner can increase the value of the objective by transferring resources from the lowest type that sells with a positive probability to type \(\theta_3\). Hence, a contradiction.

Consequently, \(h_2(\theta_3) = 1 - \alpha\), and from equation (16), types \(\theta_4\) and \(\theta_5\) can obtain only scores \(s_0\) and \(s_1\). Since the gain-to-cost ratio is increasing, it is optimal to set \(h_1(\theta_3) = \alpha\). As for \(h_1(\theta_4)\), the planner would like to set it as high as possible, subject to the monotonicity constraint \(u(\theta_4) \leq u(\theta_3)\) and the resource constraint for score \(s_1\). The monotonicity constraint reduces to \(h_1(\theta_4) \leq \tilde{\beta}(\alpha)\). The resource constraint reduces to \(h_1(\theta_4) \leq \hat{\beta}(\alpha)\). Hence, \(h_1(\theta_4) = \min\{\hat{\beta}(\alpha), \tilde{\beta}(\alpha)\}\). All remain-
ing resources from type $\theta_1$ are allocated to type $\theta_5$ so that the resource constraint for type $\theta_1$ is satisfied with equality. Hence, $h_1(\theta_5) = \gamma(\alpha)$. The monotonicity constraint $u(\theta_5) \leq u(\theta_4)$ reduces to $\gamma(\alpha) \leq \check{\gamma}(\alpha)$ and is not binding, from the assumption $\gamma(0) \leq \check{\gamma}(0)$ and the observation that $\gamma(\alpha)$ is decreasing in $\alpha$ and $\check{\gamma}(\alpha)$ is increasing.

Hence, the planner’s problem reduces to choosing $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ to maximize $p(\theta_4) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_4)h_1(\theta_4) + p(\theta_5) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_5)\gamma(\alpha)$, such that $h_1(\theta_4) = \min\{\check{\beta}(\alpha), \check{\beta}(\alpha)\}$. Since $h_1(\theta_4)$ decreases in $\alpha$ when $\alpha > \bar{\alpha}$, it follows from the linearity of the problem that it is optimal to choose either $\alpha = 0$ or $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$. The result follows. ■

Example B-1 illustrates two properties of optimal monotone rules. First, for some parameter values ($\Gamma(0) > \Gamma(\bar{\alpha})$), lower types continue to sell at higher prices (types $\theta_4$ and $\theta_5$ sell at a price above the one obtained by types $\theta_2$ and $\theta_3$). However, to satisfy the monotonicity constraint, so that high types do not have an incentive to destroy assets, the low types sell with probability that is less than 1. Second, for other parameter values ($\Gamma(0) < \Gamma(\bar{\alpha})$), it is no longer optimal that types above 1 with different reservation prices obtain different scores. Instead it is optimal to pool type $\theta_2$ with type $\theta_1$ so that type $\theta_2$ sells its asset at a price above its reservation price. This increases the payoff for type $\theta_2$, which is beneficial because it relaxes the monotonicity constraint for lower types. In the extreme case $\bar{\alpha} = 1$, all types that sell obtain the same score.

In the next example, optimal monotone rules exhibit the first type of non-monotonicity (in probability of sale).

Example B-2 Suppose there is only one type above 1 and the gain-to-cost ratio is decreasing in type. We show in Proposition B-1 below that under the optimal monotone rule, the probability of selling the asset continues to be nonmonotone in $\theta$: Lower types sell with higher probability than middle type. Relative to the case in which we do not impose the monotonicity constraint, the probability that low

---

26 The result extends to a more general case in which there are two types above 1 and $G_i(\theta)$ is increasing in $\theta$ for every $\theta < 1$ and $i \in \{1, 2\}$. 
types sell is lower, while the probability that types in the middle sell is higher. In other words, the increase in sale probability as type decreases is moderated in order to satisfy the monotonicity constraint, but overall nonmonotonicity in probability of sale remains part of the solution.

**Proposition B-1** Suppose there is only one type above 1, $E(\tilde{\theta}) < \rho_1$, and $G(\theta)$ is decreasing in $\theta$ when $\theta < 1$. Let

$$\delta_\theta(\alpha) = \frac{\theta_m + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta_m) + \alpha[\rho_1 - \theta_m + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta_m)] - [\theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)]}{\rho_1 - \theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta)}$$

and $\alpha^*$ be the (unique) $\alpha$ that solves $p(\theta_1)(\theta_1 - \rho_1) = \alpha p(\theta_m)(\rho_1 - \theta_m) + \sum_{i=2}^{m-1} p(\theta_i)(\rho_1 - \theta_i) \max\{0, \delta_\theta(\alpha)\}$.

(i) Under the optimal monotone rule, type $1$ sells with probability 1, type $m$ sells with probability $\alpha^*$, and type $\theta \in (\theta_m, \theta_2)$ sells with probability $\max\{0, \delta_\theta(\alpha^*)\}$, which is decreasing in $\theta$.

(ii) The probability that low types sell is lower relative to the unconstrained benchmark (i.e., the problem without the monotonicity constraint), while the probability that high types (below 1) sell is higher.

**Proofs**

**Proof of Lemma B-1.** Suppose $(S, g)$ is an optimal monotone rule with equilibrium prices $x(s)$. By Lemma 3, type $\theta$’s expected payoff is

$$\bar{V}(\theta) = \sum_{s: x(s) < \rho(\theta)} [\theta + r \Pr(\tilde{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta)]g(s|\theta) + \sum_{s: x(s) \geq \rho(\theta)} [x(s) + r]g(s|\theta). \quad (B-3)$$

The probability that type $\theta$ sells its asset is $\tilde{h}(\theta) = \sum_{s: x(s) \geq \rho(\theta)} g(s|\theta)$. The price equals the expected cash flow of types purchasing the asset conditional on obtaining the score. Hence, $\sum_{\theta: \rho(\theta) \leq x(s)} p(\theta)[\theta - x(s)]g(s|\theta) = 0$ for every $s \in S$. The monotonicity constraint is that for every two types $\theta' < \theta$, $\bar{V}(\theta') \leq \bar{V}(\theta)$. We prove part 1 below. Parts 2 and 3 follow as in Lemma 4.

Consider a type $\theta_i > 1$. Suppose to the contrary that $\tilde{h}(\theta_i) < 1$. So by Lemma 3, a score $s'$ exists such that $g(s'|\theta_i) > 0$ and $x(s') < \rho_i$. Without loss,
\( \theta_i = \max\{\theta : \tilde{h}(\theta) < 1\} \). If \( \theta_i = \theta_1 \) or \( \tilde{V}(\theta_i) < \tilde{V}(\theta_{i-1}) \), apply the proof of Lemma 4, but the probability that \( \theta_i \) gets its own score must be sufficiently low so that monotonicity is preserved.

The remainder of the proof applies when \( \theta_i < \theta_1 \) and \( \tilde{V}(\theta_i) = \tilde{V}(\theta_{i-1}) \). Let \( \theta_j = \max\{\theta : \tilde{V}(\theta) = \tilde{V}(\theta_i)\} \). Let \( x_{\min} = \min\{x(s) : g(s|\theta_j) > 0\} \). Since \( \tilde{h}(\theta_j) = 1 \), \( \tilde{V}(\theta_j) \geq x_{\min} + r \). Observe that \( x_{\min} + r \geq \rho(x_j) + r \geq \theta_j + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta_j) > \theta_i + r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} \geq 1 - \theta_i) \). Hence, to satisfy \( \tilde{V}(\theta_i) = \tilde{V}(\theta_j) \), there must be scores \( s_i \) and \( s_j \), such that \( g(s_i|\theta_i) > 0, g(s_j|\theta_j) > 0 \), and \( x(s_i) > x(s_j) \geq \rho_j > \rho_1 \), because otherwise \( \tilde{V}(\theta_i) < \tilde{V}(\theta_j) \).

Case 1: \( \theta_i \geq x(s_i) \). Apply the logic from Lemma 4, but to satisfy the monotonicity constraint, reduce \( g(s_i|\theta_i) \) and increase \( g(s_j|\theta_j) \) so that \( \theta_i \)'s payoff is unchanged. To keep prices unchanged, increase \( g(s_i|\theta_j) \) and reduce \( g(s_j|\theta_j) \), so that the resources that type \( \theta_j \) does not provide for score \( s_i \) are provided by type \( \theta_i \), and the resources that \( \theta_j \) does not provide for score \( s_j \) are provided by \( \theta_i \). Formally, for a given \( \Delta > 0 \), let \( \Delta_1 = \frac{p(p_j|\theta_j-x(s_i))}{p(p_i|\theta_i-x(s_i))} \Delta, \Delta_2 = \frac{p(p_j|\theta_j-x(s_i))}{p(p_i|\theta_i-x(s_j))} \Delta, \Delta_3 = \frac{\Delta_1[x(s_i)-\theta_i]-\Delta_2[x(s_i)-\theta_i]}{\Delta_1+\Delta_2}+\Delta_3 = \frac{\Delta_1[x(s_i)-\theta_i]-\Delta_2[x(s_i)-\theta_i]+(\Delta_1-\Delta_2)[r \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1-\theta_1)]}{\Delta_1+\Delta_2+\Delta_3} \). Observe that \( \Delta_1 > \Delta_2 > 0 \) and \( \Delta_3 > 0 \).

Consider \( (\tilde{S}, g) \) defined by \( \tilde{S} = S \cup \{\tilde{s}\} \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta_i) = \begin{cases} g(s|\theta_i) - \Delta_1 & \text{if } s = s_i \\ g(s|\theta_i) + \Delta_2 & \text{if } s = s_j \\ \Delta_3 & \text{if } s = \tilde{s} \\ g(s|\theta) + \Delta_1 - \Delta_2 - \Delta_3 & \text{if } s = s' \\ g(s|\theta) & \text{if } s \notin \{s_i, s_j, s', \tilde{s}\} \end{cases} \), and for \( \theta \notin \{\theta_i, \theta_j\} \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s|\theta) & \text{if } s \neq \tilde{s} \\ 0 & \text{if } s = \tilde{s} \end{cases} \).

If \( \Delta \) is sufficiently small, \( (\tilde{S}, g) \) is a disclosure rule. Clearly, prices for scores \( s \notin \{s', \tilde{s}, s_i, s_j\} \) are the same under \((S, g)\) and \((\tilde{S}, g)\). Prices for scores \( s_i \) and \( s_j \) are also the same under both rules because the average cash flow conditional on obtaining each score and purchasing the asset remains unchanged. Formally, since \( -p(\theta_i|\theta_i-x(s_i))\Delta_1 + p(\theta_j|\theta_j-x(s_i))\Delta = 0 \), it follows that \( \sum_{\theta : p(\theta) \leq x(s_i)} p(\theta)[\theta - x(s_i)]\tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \sum_{\theta : p(\theta) \leq x(s_i)} p(\theta)[\theta - x(s_i)]g(s|\theta) = 0 \), and since \( p(\theta_i|\theta_i-x(s_j))\Delta_2 + p(\theta_j|\theta_j-x(s_j))\Delta = 0 \), it follows that \( \sum_{\theta : p(\theta) \leq x(s_j)} p(\theta)[\theta - x(s_j)]\tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \sum_{\theta : p(\theta) \leq x(s_j)} p(\theta)[\theta - x(s_j)]g(s|\theta) = 0 \).
The price for score \( s' \) remains \( x(s') \) because if \( \Delta \) is sufficiently small, the average cash flow for score \( s' \) remains below \( \rho_i \) even if we include type \( \theta_i \), and so type \( \theta_i \) continues not to sell upon obtaining \( s' \). The price for score \( \tilde{s} \) is \( \Delta_3 \). Type \( \theta_j \)'s payoff increases by \( \Delta[x(s_i) - x(s_j)] \), but if \( \Delta \) is sufficiently small, monotonicity is preserved. Type \( \theta_i \)'s payoff remains unchanged from the definition of \( \Delta_3 \). Clearly, payoffs for all other types remain unchanged. Hence, a contradiction to the optimality of \((S, g)\).

Case 2: \( \theta_i < x(s_i) \). Now type \( \theta_i \) takes resources from \( s_i \), so a higher type exists that provides resources. To satisfy the monotonicity constraint for type \( \theta_i \), we reduce \( g(s_i|\theta_i) \). To keep the price for \( s_i \) unchanged, we reduce the probability that the higher type obtains score \( s_i \). Formally, let \( \theta_z = \max\{\theta : g(s_i|\theta) > 0\} \). So \( \theta_z > x(s_i) \) and \( x(s_i) \geq \rho_z > x(s_i) - r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_z) > \theta_i - r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i) \). For a given \( \Delta' > 0 \), let \( \Delta_4 = \frac{p(\theta_i|x(s_i) - \theta_i)}{p(\theta_i|x(s_i) - \theta_i)} \Delta' \), \( \Delta_5 = \frac{rPr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)+x(s_i)-\theta_i}{rPr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)} \Delta' \), \( \Delta_6 = \frac{rPr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)+x(s_i)-\theta_i}{rPr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)} \Delta_4 \). Then \( \Delta_4 > \Delta_6 > 0 \), \( \Delta' > \Delta_5 > 0 \). Consider \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\) defined by \( \tilde{S} = S \cup \{\tilde{s}_i, \tilde{s}_z\} \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta_i) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} g(s|\theta_i) - \Delta' & \text{if } s = s_i \\ \Delta_5 & \text{if } s = \tilde{s}_i \\ g(s|\theta_i) + \Delta' - \Delta_5 & \text{if } s = s' \end{array} \right. \). Consider \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\) defined by \( \tilde{S} = S \cup \{\tilde{s}_i, \tilde{s}_z\} \), \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta_i) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} g(s|\theta_i) - \Delta' & \text{if } s = s_i \\ \Delta_5 & \text{if } s = \tilde{s}_i \\ g(s|\theta_i) + \Delta' - \Delta_5 & \text{if } s = s' \end{array} \right. \). If \( \Delta' \) is sufficiently small, \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\) is a disclosure rule. The cash flow conditional on score \( s' \) remains below \( \rho_i \) even if we include type \( \theta_i \) and \( \theta_z \), so these types continue not sell upon obtaining score \( s' \), and the price remains \( x(s') \). The price for score \( \tilde{s}_i \) is \( \theta_i \), and the price for \( \tilde{s}_z \) is \( \theta_z \). The prices for all other scores are the same under \((S, g)\) and \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\). For score \( s_i \), this follows because \(-p(\theta_i|x(s_i) - x(s_i))\Delta' - p(\theta_z|x(s_i) - x(s_i))\Delta_4 = 0 \). Type \( \theta_i \)'s payoff remains unchanged because \(-\Delta'[x(s_i) - \theta_i + r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)] + \Delta_5 r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i) = 0 \). Type \( \theta_z \)'s payoff remains unchanged because \(-\Delta_4[x(s_i) - \theta_i + r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i)] + \Delta_6 r \Pr(\bar{e} < 1 - \theta_i) = 0 \). Clearly, payoffs for all types also remain unchanged. The probability that \( \theta_z \) sells
its asset is less than 1 because \( \hat{g}(s'\mid \theta_z) > 0 \). Restart the proof of this Lemma for the problem in which \( \theta_z \) is the highest type above 1 that sells with probability less than 1. Since there is a finite number of types, the process ends in a finite number of steps leading a contradiction to the optimality of \((S, g)\).

**Lemma B-4** Suppose \( E(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \). Under an optimal monotone rule, a type \( \theta_i < 1 \) exists such that \( h(\theta_i) < 1 \) and \( u(\theta_i) < u(\theta_{i-1}) \).

**Proof.** Suppose to the contrary that for every type \( \theta_i < 1 \), either \( h(\theta_i) = 1 \) or \( u(\theta_i) = u(\theta_{i-1}) \). From Lemma B-1, \( h(\theta_i) = 1 \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \). By induction on \( i \), \( u(\theta_i) \geq 1 + r \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \). Hence, \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)u(\theta) \geq 1 + r \). But since the market breaks even, \( \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta)u(\theta) \leq E(\hat{\theta}) + r < 1 + r \). \( \blacksquare \)

**Proof of Lemma B-2.** Consider an optimal monotone rule \((S, g)\) and a score \( s' \in S_j \), where \( j \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \). From Lemmas 3 and B-1, \( x(s') = \mu(s') \geq \rho_j \). Suppose to the contrary that \( \mu(s') > \rho_j \). Let \( \theta_i = \min\{\theta \in \Theta : g(s'\mid \theta) > 0\} \). Without loss, \( g(s'\mid \theta) = 0 \) if \( \theta \notin \{\theta_i, \theta_j\} \). Hence,

\[
p(\theta_i)g(s'\mid \theta_i)[\mu(s') - \theta_i] = p(\theta_j)g(s'\mid \theta_j)[\theta_j - \mu(s')]. \tag{B-4}
\]

Since \( E(\hat{\theta}) < 1 \), a type \( \theta_z < 1 \) exists such that \( h(\theta_z) < 1 \) and \( V(\theta_z) < V(\theta_{z-1}) \) (Lemma B-4). Hence, a score \( s_0 \in S \) exists such that \( g(s_0\mid \theta_z) > 0 \) and \( x(s_0) < \rho(\theta_z) \), so type \( \theta_z \) does not sell upon obtaining \( s_0 \).

Case 1. \( h(\theta_i) < 1 \). Then there exists a score \( \tilde{s}_0 \in S \), such that \( g(\tilde{s}_0\mid \theta_i) > 0 \) and \( x(\tilde{s}_0) < \rho_i \). From Lemma B-1, \( \theta_i < 1 < \theta_j \). We construct an alternate monotone rule that increases type \( \theta_z \)'s payoff and keeps the payoffs of all other types unchanged. Under the alternate rule, the price for score \( s' \) drops to \( x(s') - \varepsilon \), and \( g(s'\mid \theta_z) \) increases. To keep \( \theta_i \)'s payoff unchanged, we increase \( g(s'\mid \theta_i) \), and to keep \( \theta_j \)'s payoff unchanged, we assign it its own score. Formally, for a given \( \varepsilon > 0 \), let \( \Delta \) solve

\[
[g(s'\mid \theta_j) - \Delta][\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon] = g(s'\mid \theta_j)[\theta_j - \mu(s')], \tag{B-5}
\]
Consider an alternate rule \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\), defined by \(\tilde{S} = \{S, \tilde{s}_j\}\), \(\tilde{g}(s'|\theta) = \)

\[
\begin{cases}
  g(s_0|\theta) - \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\
  g(s_0|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \neq \theta_z
\end{cases}
\]

\(\tilde{g}(s_0|\theta) = \)

\[
\begin{cases}
  g(s_0|\theta) - \tilde{\Delta} & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\
  g(s_0|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \neq \theta_z
\end{cases}
\]

and for \(s \notin \{s_0, s_0, \tilde{s}_0, \tilde{s}_j\}\), \(\tilde{g}(s|\theta) = g(s|\theta)\) for every \(\theta \in \Theta\). If \(\varepsilon\) is sufficiently small, \(\Delta_1 > 0\), \(\tilde{\Delta} > 0\), and \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\) is a disclosure rule. From (B-7), the expected cash flow conditional on score \(s'\) is \(\mu(s') - \varepsilon > \rho_j\). Hence, types \(\theta_i, \theta_j, \theta_z\) sell upon obtaining score \(s'\), and the price is \(\mu(s') - \varepsilon\). The price for score \(\tilde{s}_j\) is \(\Delta\). Clearly, prices for all other scores are the same as under \((S, g)\). Type \(\theta_z\)'s payoff increases by \(\tilde{\Delta}_1 \mu(s') - \varepsilon + rF(1 - \theta_z)\), but if \(\varepsilon\) is sufficiently small, monotonicity is preserved. The payoffs for types \(\theta_i\) and \(\theta_j\) remain unchanged by equations (B-6) and (B-5), respectively.

Case 2. \(h(\theta_i) = 1\) and \(u(\theta_i) > u(\theta_{i+1})\). Since maximizing \(\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) h(\theta)\) is the same as maximizing \(\sum_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta) \Pr(\bar{\varepsilon} < 1 - \theta) h(\theta)\), to obtain a contradiction, it is sufficient to construct an alternate monotone rule that increases \(h(\theta_z)\) and for every \(\theta \neq \theta_z\), keeps \(h(\theta)\) unchanged. If \(\theta_j = \theta_i\), then \(\theta_i > 1\), and the alternate rule assigns to type \(\theta_z\) score \(s'\) instead of \(s_0\), with a small probability \(\varepsilon\). Type \(\theta_i\)'s payoff drops by \(\varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i)\), but if \(\varepsilon\) is sufficiently small, monotonicity is preserved. If \(\Delta_1\) solve

\[
[g(s'|\theta_i) + \Delta_1][\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i] + \Delta_1 rF(1 - \theta_i) = g(s'|\theta_i)[\mu(s') - \theta_i],
\]

and \(\tilde{\Delta}\) solve

\[
p(\theta_i)[g(s'|\theta_i) + \bar{\Delta}_1][\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i] + \tilde{\Delta} p(\theta_j)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_j]
\]

Then \(\Delta = \frac{g(s'|\theta_i)\varepsilon}{\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon} > 0\), \(\Delta_1 = \frac{g(s'|\theta_i)\varepsilon}{\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i + rF(1 - \theta_i)}\), and \(\tilde{\Delta} = \frac{p(\theta_i)\Delta rF(1 - \theta_i)}{p(\theta_j)\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_j} 27\).
instead $\theta_j > \theta_i$, define $(\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})$ as in case 1 but set $\Delta_1 = 0$ and $\tilde{\Delta} = \frac{p(\theta_j)g(s'|\theta_i)\varepsilon}{p(\theta_j)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i]}$.

Again, Type $\theta_i$'s payoff drops but monotonicity is preserved.

Case 3. $h(\theta_i) = 1$ and $u(\theta_i) = u(\theta_{i+1})$. Let $\theta' = \min\{\theta : u(\theta) = u(\theta_i)\}$. Suppose the lowest score (that with lowest price) that $\theta_i$ obtains is $s''$ and the the highest score that $\theta'$ obtains is $s'''$. We must have $\mu(s''') \geq \mu(s'')$ because $\mu(s''') < \mu(s'')$ implies $u(\theta') < u(\theta_i)$.

Case 3.1. $\mu(s'') < \mu(s')$, $\theta_i > \mu(s'')$. Then a type $\theta'' < \mu(s'')$ exists such that $g(s''|\theta'') > 0$. Without loss of generality, $g(s''|\theta) = 0$ for $\theta \notin \{\theta_i, \theta''\}$. Hence,

$$p(\theta_i)(s''|\theta_i)[\theta_i - \mu(s'')] = p(\theta'')(s''|\theta'')[\mu(s'') - \theta''] \quad (B-8)$$

As before, construct an alternate monotone rule that reduces $x(s')$. To keep $\theta_i$'s payoff unchanged, increase $g(s'|\theta_i)$ and reduce $g(s''|\theta_i)$. To keep the price for $s''$ unchanged, reduce $g(s''|\theta'')$. To keep the payoff of $\theta''$ unchanged, increase $g(s'|\theta'')$.

We focus on the case in which $\theta_j > \theta_i$. If $\theta_j = \theta_i$, apply the same as if $\theta_j$ does not exist, that is, set $p(\theta_j) = 0$.

Formally, for a given $\varepsilon > 0$, let $\Delta_6 = \frac{\varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i)}{\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i}$, $\Delta_7 = \frac{\varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i) - \mu(s'')}{\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta''}$, $\Delta_8 = \frac{\mu(s'') - \theta'' + rF(1 - \theta'')}{\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta'' + rF(1 - \theta'')}$, and $\Delta_9$ solve

$$p(\theta_i)[g(s'|\theta_i) + \Delta_6][\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i]$$

$$+ \Delta_8 p(\theta'')[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta''] + \Delta_9 p(\theta_i)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta - z]$$

$$= p(\theta_j)[g(s'|\theta_j) - \Delta][\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon],$$

Let $\tilde{S} = \{S, \tilde{s}_j\}$, $\tilde{g}(s'|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta) - \Delta \text{ if } \theta = \theta_j \\ g(s'|\theta) + \Delta_6 \text{ if } \theta = \theta_i \\ g(s'|\theta) + \Delta_8 \text{ if } \theta = \theta'' \\ \Delta_9 \text{ if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s'|\theta) \text{ if } \theta \notin \{\theta_j, \theta_i, \theta_z\} \end{cases}$, $\tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s|\theta) - \Delta_9 \text{ if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s_0|\theta) + \Delta_7 - \Delta_8 \text{ if } \theta = \theta'' \\ g(s|\theta) \text{ if } \theta \notin \{\theta_z, \theta''\} \end{cases}$

$\tilde{g}(\tilde{s}_j|\theta) = \begin{cases} \Delta \text{ if } \theta = \theta_j \\ 0 \text{ if } \theta \neq \theta_j \end{cases}$, $\tilde{g}(s''|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s''|\theta) - \Delta_6 \text{ if } \theta = \theta_i \\ g(s''|\theta) - \Delta_7 \text{ if } \theta = \theta'' \end{cases}$, and for $s \notin \{s', s_0, \tilde{s}_j, s''\}$,

$$\tilde{g}(s'|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta) \text{ if } \theta \notin \{\theta_i, \theta''\} \end{cases}$$

$\tilde{g}(s|\theta) = g(s|\theta)$. Consider $(\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})$. If $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small, $\Delta_6 > 0$, $\Delta_7 > \Delta_8 > 0$, $\Delta_9 > 0$, $\Delta_8 > 0$, $\Delta_7 > 0$, $\Delta_6 > 0$. 

---

$28$ Formally, $g(s''|\theta_i) > 0$, $g(s''|\theta') > 0$; $x(s) \geq x(s'')$ for every $s \in S$ s.t. $g(s|\theta_i) > 0$; and $x(s) \leq x(s'')$ for every $s \in S$ s.t. $g(s|\theta') > 0$. 

---
and \( \Delta_9 > 0 \). Hence, \((\tilde{S}, \tilde{g})\) is a disclosure rule. From equation (B-9), the expected cash flow conditional on score \( s' \) is \( \mu(s') - \varepsilon > \rho_j \). Hence, types \( \theta_i, \theta_j, \theta_z \) sell upon obtaining score \( s' \), and the price is \( \mu(s') - \varepsilon \). The price for score \( \tilde{s}_j \) is \( \Delta \). The price for score \( s'' \) remains \( \mu(s'') \) because \( \Delta \tau_p(\theta'')[\mu(s'') - \theta''] = \Delta \mu_p(\theta_i)[\theta_i - \mu(s'')] \).

Clearly, prices for all other scores remain the same. Type \( \theta_z \)'s payoff increases by \( \Delta \mu_9[\mu(s') - \varepsilon + rF(1 - \theta_z)] \), but if \( \varepsilon \) is sufficiently small, monotonicity is preserved. The payoffs for types \( \theta_i \) and \( \theta'' \) remain unchanged from the definition of \( \Delta_6 \) and \( \Delta_8 \), respectively. Type \( \theta_j \)'s payoff remains unchanged by equation (B-5).

Case 3.2. \( \mu(s'') < \mu(s'), \theta_i \leq \mu(s'') \). The alternate rule is similar to that in case 3.1, but now type \( \theta_i \) takes resources from score \( s'' \), so the keep the price for \( s'' \) unchanged, increase \( g(s''|\theta_z) \). Formally, let \( \Delta_{10} = \frac{p(\theta_i)[\mu(s'') - \theta_i]}{p(\theta''|\mu(s'') - \theta_z)} \Delta_6 \), and \( \Delta_{11} \) solve

\[
p(\theta_i)[g(s'|\theta_i) + \Delta_6][\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i] + \Delta_{11}p(\theta_j)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_z]
\]

\[
= p(\theta_j)[g(s'|\theta_j) - \Delta][\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon],
\]

\[29 \Delta_9 > 0, \text{ as follows. From (B-4) and (B-5), } p(\theta_j)[g(s'|\theta_j) - \Delta][\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon] = p(\theta_i)g(s'|\theta_i)[\mu(s') - \theta_j]. \text{ Hence, (B-9) reduces to}

\[
p(\theta_i)\Delta_6[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i] + \Delta \mu_p(\theta_z)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_j] + \Delta \mu_p(\theta_z)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_j]
\]

\[\mu(s'') - \theta''] = p(\theta_i)g(s'|\theta_i)\varepsilon,
\]

From definition of \( \Delta_6 \),

\[
\varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i) = \Delta_6[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i] + \Delta_6[\theta_i - \mu(s'')]
\]

So

\[\Delta \mu_p(\theta_z)[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_j] = \Delta \mu_p(\theta_z)[\theta_i - \mu(s'')] - \Delta \mu_p(\theta''')[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta''']
\]

To show that \( \Delta_9 > 0 \), we need to show that

\[\Delta \mu_p(\theta_z)[\theta_i - \mu(s'')] > \Delta \mu_p(\theta''')[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta''']
\]

This reduces to

\[
\Delta \tau_p(\theta''')[\mu(s'') - \theta'''] > \frac{\mu(s'') - \theta'''}{\mu(s'') - \varepsilon - \theta'''} \frac{\mu(s'') - \theta'''}{\mu(s'') - \varepsilon - \theta'''} + rF(1 - \theta''') \Delta \tau_p(\theta''')[\mu(s'') - \varepsilon - \theta''']
\]

\[
\frac{\mu(s'') - \theta'''}{\mu(s'') - \varepsilon - \theta'''} > \frac{\mu(s'') - \theta'''}{\mu(s'') - \varepsilon - \theta'''} + rF(1 - \theta''')
\]

which follow since \( \mu(s') - \varepsilon > \mu(s'') \).
If \( \theta_j > \theta_i \), the alternate rule is defined by \( \tilde{S} = \{ S, \tilde{s}_j \} \), \( \tilde{g}(s'|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta) - \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \theta_j \\ g(s'|\theta) + \Delta_6 & \text{if } \theta = \theta_i \\ \Delta_{11} & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s'|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \notin \{ \theta_j, \theta_i, \theta_z \} \end{cases} \),

\[
\tilde{g}(s_0|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s_0|\theta) - \Delta_{10} - \Delta_{11} & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s_0|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \notin \{ \theta_z, \theta'' \} \\
\end{cases}, \quad \tilde{g}(\tilde{s}_j|\theta) = \begin{cases} \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \theta_j \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta \neq \theta_j \\ \end{cases}, \quad \tilde{g}(s''|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s''|\theta) - \Delta_6 & \text{if } \theta = \theta_i \\ g(s''|\theta) + \Delta_{10} & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s''|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \notin \{ \theta_i, \theta_z \} \end{cases}, \]

ignore type \( \theta_j \), that is, set \( p(\theta_j) = 0 \).

Case 3.3. \( \mu(s'') = \mu(s') = \mu(s''') \). First, combine scores \( s' \) and \( s''' \) into one score \( \tilde{s} \). That is, create a rule \( (S, \tilde{g}) \), where \( \tilde{g}(s|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta) + g(s'''|\theta) & \text{if } s = \tilde{s} \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin \{ s', s''' \} \\ g(s|\theta) & \text{if } s \notin \{ \tilde{s}, s', s''' \} \end{cases} \).

Clearly, \( (S, \tilde{g}) \) is an optimal monotone rule, and the average cash flow for score \( \tilde{s} \) is \( \mu(s') \). Since \( \theta' \leq \mu(s') \leq \theta_j \), there is an optimal monotone rule \( (\tilde{S}, \tilde{g}') \) and a score \( s \in \tilde{S} \) with price \( \mu(s') \), such that the only types that obtains that score are \( \theta' \) and \( \theta_j \). We can then apply case 1 or case 2 to obtain a contradiction.

Case 3.4. \( \mu(s'') = \mu(s') < \mu(s''') \). We construct an alternate monotone rule under which the price for score \( s' \) drops to \( x(s') - \varepsilon \), and \( g(s'|\theta_j) \) increases, as in case 1. To keep \( \theta_i \)’s payoff unchanged, we increase \( g(s'''|\theta_i) \) and reduce \( g(s''|\theta_i) \).

To keep prices unchanged, we reduce \( g(s'''|\theta') \) and increase \( g(s''|\theta') \). Formally, for a given \( \varepsilon > 0 \), let

\[
\Delta_2 = \frac{\varepsilon g(s'|\theta)}{\mu(s''') - \mu(s')}, \quad \Delta_3 = \frac{\varepsilon g(s'''|\theta)}{\mu(s''') - \theta_i} \Delta_2, \quad \Delta_4 = \frac{\varepsilon g(s''|\theta)}{\mu(s''') - \theta_i} \Delta_2, \quad \Delta_5 \text{ solve}
\]

\[
(\Delta_3 - \Delta_4) p(\theta') [\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta'] + \Delta_5 p(\theta_z) [\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta'] = (\Delta_3 - \Delta_4) p(\theta_i) g(s'|\theta_i) [\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta_i]
\]

Then \( \Delta_2 > 0, \Delta_3 > \Delta_4 > 0, \text{ and } \Delta_5 > 0 \). 30 Consider an alliterate rule \( (\tilde{S}, \tilde{g}) \), where

30To see why \( \Delta_5 > 0 \) observe that from (B-4) and (B-5),

\[
p(\theta_i) [g(s'|\theta_j) - \Delta][\theta_j - \mu(s') + \varepsilon] = p(\theta_j) g(s'|\theta_j) [\theta_j - \mu(s')] = p(\theta_i) g(s'|\theta_i) [\mu(s') - \theta_i].
\]

Hence,

\[
\Delta_5 = \frac{p(\theta_i) \varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i) - (\Delta_3 - \Delta_4) p(\theta') [\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta']} {p(\theta_z) [\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta']}. \]

52
\[ \hat{S} = \{ S, \tilde{s}_j \}, \hat{g}(s'|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s'|\theta) - \Delta & \text{if } \theta = \theta_j \\ \Delta_3 - \Delta_4 & \text{if } \theta = \theta' \\ \Delta_5 & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s'|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \notin \{ \theta_j, \theta', \theta_z \} \end{cases}, \hat{g}(s_0|\theta) = \begin{cases} g(s_0|\theta) - \Delta_5 & \text{if } \theta = \theta_z \\ g(s_0|\theta) & \text{if } \theta \neq \theta_z \end{cases}, \]

and for \( s \notin \{ s', s_0, \tilde{s}_j, s'', s''' \} \), \( \hat{g}(s|\theta) = g(s|\theta) \). If \( \varepsilon \) is sufficiently small, \(( \hat{S}, \hat{g} )\) is a disclosure rule. From (B-9), the expected cash flow conditional on score \( s' \) is \( \mu(s') - \varepsilon > \rho_j \). Hence, the price for score \( s' \) is \( \mu(s') - \varepsilon \). The price for score \( \tilde{s}_j \) is \( \Delta \). The prices for all other scores under \(( \hat{S}, \hat{g} )\) are the same as under \(( S, g )\).

Proof of Lemma B-3. Consider an optimal monotone rule \(( S, g )\), and two types \( \theta' < \theta'' < 1 \), such that \( h(\theta'') < 1 \). Since \( E(\tilde{\theta}) < 1 \), we know from Lemma B-4, that a type \( \theta_z < 1 \) exists such that \( h(\theta_z) < 1 \) and \( u(\theta_z) < u(\theta_{z-1}) \). It also follows immediately that all resources constraints are binding. Suppose that with a positive probability, \( \theta'' \) sells its asset at price \( x \) upon obtaining score \( s \in S_j \), and \( \theta' \) sells at price \( x' \) upon obtaining score \( s' \in S_j \). From Lemma B-2, \( x = \rho_j \) and \( x' = \rho_i \).

Suppose to the contrary that \( x' < x \) (i.e., \( \rho_i < \rho_j \)). We obtain a contradiction to

\[ \Delta_5 > 0 \] follows because

\[
(\Delta_3 - \Delta_4)h(\theta')[\mu(s') - \varepsilon - \theta'] < \Delta_3 h(\theta')[\mu(s'') - \theta'] - \Delta_4 h(\theta')[\mu(s'') - \theta'] \\
= \Delta_2 h(\theta_i)[\mu(s'') - \theta_i] - \Delta_2 h(\theta_i)[\mu(s'') - \theta_i] = \Delta_2 h(\theta_i)[\mu(s'') - \mu(s'')] = p(\theta_i)\varepsilon g(s'|\theta_i) > 0
\]
the optimality of \((S,g)\) by constructing an alternate monotone rule that increases the value of the objective function. We construct the alternate rule in 3 steps:

Step 1. For type \(\theta''\), reduce \(h_j(\theta'')\) and increase \(h_i(\theta'')\), both by a small \(\Delta > 0\). For type \(\theta'\), reduce \(h_i(\theta')\) and increase \(h_j(\theta')\), both by \(\Delta_1 = \frac{p(\theta') (\theta' - \rho_j)}{p(\theta') (\theta - \rho_j)} \Delta > 0\). From the proof of Proposition 3, we know that resource constraint \(i\) is loosened, while all other resource constraints remain binding. Increase \(h_i(\theta_z)\) until resource constraint \(i\) is binding again. Overall, after these changes, the value of the planner's objective function increases. The payoff for \(\theta_z\) increases, but if \(\Delta\) is sufficiently small, the monotonicity constraint for type \(\theta_z\) is preserved. However, because the expected payoff for \(\theta''\) falls by \(\Delta (\rho_j - \rho_i)\) and the payoff for \(\theta'\) rises by \(\Delta_1 (\rho_j - \rho_i)\), the monotonicity constraint for these types may be violated. If so, proceed to step 2.

Step 2. Reduce \(h_i(\theta')\) by \(\frac{\Delta_1 (\rho_j - \rho_i)}{\rho_i - \theta' + r \text{Pr}(\xi < 1 - \theta')}\) so that the expected payoff for \(\theta'\) returns to where it was before step 1. This loosens constraint \(i\). Increase \(h_i(\theta'')\) as much as possible until either (i) resource constraint \(i\) is binding again or (ii) the expected payoff for \(\theta''\) returns to where it was before step 1. (Recall that \(h(\theta'') < 1\).) If (ii) happens first and resource constraint \(i\) remains loose, increase \(h_i(\theta_z)\) until it is binding again. In this case, we are done because we created an alternate rule that increases the payoff for \(\theta_z\) without violating monotonicity, while keeping the payoffs for all other types unchanged. If (i) happens first, move to step 3. In this case, we know that since \(G_i(\theta)\) is increasing in \(\theta\) when \(\theta < 1\), the value of the objective function increases (using similar arguments as in the proof of Proposition 1).

Step 3. Increase the payoff for type \(\theta''\) to where it was before step 1 by moving resources from the lowest type that sells to \(\theta''\). Specifically, if the lowest type with \(h(\theta) > 0\) is \(\hat{\theta}\), we know that \(h_l(\hat{\theta}) > 0\) for some \(l \in \{1, ..., k\}\). Increase \(h_l(\theta'')\) by \(\Delta_2 = \frac{\Delta (\rho_j - \rho_i)}{\rho_i - \theta'' + r \text{Pr}(\xi < 1 - \theta'')}\) and reduce \(h_l(\hat{\theta})\) by \(\frac{p(\theta'') (\rho_i - \theta'')}{p(\theta) (\rho_j - \theta)} \Delta_2\), so that resource constraint \(l\) remains binding. Again, since \(G_i(\theta)\) is increasing in \(\theta\) when \(\theta < 1\), the value of the objective function increases. So overall after all 3 steps, the value of the objective function increases. If \(\Delta\) is sufficiently small, monotonicity is preserved because the payoff of \(\theta_z\) has slightly increased, the payoff of the lowest type \(\hat{\theta}\) has
slightly fell, and the payoffs of all other types have remain unchanged.

**Proof of Proposition B-1.** From Lemmas B-1 and B-2, type \( \theta_1 \) sells with probability 1, and the sale price is \( \rho_1 \). If the lowest type \( \theta_m \) sells with probability \( \alpha \), the monotonicity constraint (B-1) implies that type \( \theta \in (\theta_m, \theta_2) \) sells with probability of at \( \delta_\theta(\alpha) \). Since \( E(\bar{\theta}) < \rho_1 \) (i.e. resources are scarce) and \( G(\theta) \) is decreasing in \( \theta \) when \( \theta < 1 \), it is optimal that \( \theta \in (\theta_m, \theta_2) \) sells with probability max\( \{0, \delta_\theta(\alpha)\} \). The optimal \( \alpha \) satisfies the resource constraint with equality and is given by \( \alpha^* \). Part (ii) follows because in the problem without constraint (B-1), the optimal rule involves a cutoff, such that types below the cutoff and types above 1 sell with probability 1, and types in the middle sell with probability 0.