THE ALLOCATION OF EF

5.1. Introduction

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Consider the following problems.

(ii) One has a certain sum of money, and a number of projects in which to invest it. The return from each project depends on the amount invested, and the problem is to split the money among projects so as to maximize the total return.

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devoted to it. Split the 24 hours of a day among activities so as to maximize the total return.

3. (iii) The expected return from oil exploration depends on the region explored and the intensity of search effort in that region. Allocate a given total searching effort so as to ú maxámize the expected total return.

4 (iv) The crime rate in an urban district depends on the district and the number of policemen patrolling it. Distribute the police force over Space so as to minimize total crimes.
5. (v) Again there is a range of possible activities. Some are productive, earning money but with a disutility attached to participating in them; some are consumptive, yielding utility for the spending of money. The problem is to maximize total net utility, subject to total spending being equal to total earning.

All of these problems have the following formal structure.

Maximize

$$f_1(x_1) + \ldots + f_n(x_n)$$

subject to

$$x_1 + \dots + x_n = x_n$$
 (2)

(5.1.1)

(51.2)

Here $f_i(x)$ is the return from allocating an amount x to project i. (2) is the fundamental "budget" constraint, stating the total amount one has available to allocate. X can be time, money, effort, resources, etc. The "projects" i = 1, ..., n can be regions of Space, periods of Time, activities, etc. The individual x_i may be required to be non-negative, but not necessarily. In problem (1), for example, one could measure the amount devoted to activity i by the money spent; in the case of productive activities this would be negative. Total spending equal to total earning is then represented as: X = 0. The return functions f_i can also be negative. In problem (11), for example, $f_i(x)$ would be minus the number of crimes in district i with x policemen assigned there.

Problems of the form $(1)_{n}(2)$ are among the simplest and most ubiquitons of all problems. One popular definition of economics, in fact, takes it to be the study of the relationship "... between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses,"¹/ which may be construed as the study of problems involving cong straints of the form (2). Though this seems rather narrow, it indicates the pervasiveness of this condition.

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Our aim in the first part of this chapter is to study problem $(1)_{\overline{N}}^{\prime}(2)$ under conditions of extreme generality. More exactly, we shall assume that the set of possible projects forms a general measure space, and not just a finite set. Such generalization is clearly in order for many problems. The distribution of resources over Space or Time is over a continuum. The number of possible alternative investment opportunities will often be infinite.²

Our results will generalize existing work in several directions:

(i) very weak restrictions on the nature of the payoff functions f_{j}

S(<u>ii</u>) very flexible feasibility conditions, including the possibility of negative investments;

(iii) no restriction that the measure space be over n-space, or that it be non-atomic; no topological or metrical conditions imposed on it; and

>(iv) pseudomeasure-valued utilities.

All of these generalizations are of interest for one application or another.

On the other hand, we use just one constraint, while other formulations allow several.

5.2. Formulating the Problem

We start with the following ingredients: a measure space (A, Σ, μ) , where μ is sigma-finite, and a measurable function

f: $A \times$ reals \rightarrow reals. (where the real numbers are concerned, measurability refers, as always, to the Borel field).)

The problem is to find a measurable function $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals which maximizes the utility function

$$U(\delta) = \int_{\Lambda^{-}} f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da) \qquad (3.7.1)$$

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over a certain feasible set of such functions δ .

The expression (1) is an indefinite integral yielding a signed measure over the space A, or, more generally, a pseudof measure in case (1) is not well defined in the ordinary sense. (1) is always well-defined as a pseudomeasure, because μ is sigma-finite and the integrand f(a, δ (a)) is finite and measurable. (Measurability follows from the fact that it is the composition of two measurable functions: $a + (a, \delta(a))$, and f itself).

We use standard ordering of pseudomeasures to rank alternative functions δ . In the present case, by the standard integral theorem this means that δ_1 is at least as preferred as δ_2 iff

$$\int_{A} \left[f(a, \delta_{1}(a)) - f(a, \delta_{2}(a)) \right] \mu(da) \qquad (5.2.2)$$

is well-defined as an ordinary definite integral, and is ≥ 0 . This is possible even if (1) is not well-defined in the ordinary sense for either δ_1 or δ_2 . If (2) is not well-defined, then δ_1 and δ_2 are not comparable under standard order. The possibility of non+comparability makes it important to recall the distinction between a given feasible δ^* being best ($\delta^* \geq \delta$, for all feasible δ), and being merely unsurpassed (there is no feasible $\delta > \delta^*$). If the integral# (1) are finite for all feasible δ , then standard order reduces to the ordinary comparison of definite integrals, and there is no need to bring in pseudomeasures. (The reader who is troubled by pseudomeasures has the option of adding conditions insuring that (1) is always finite. He will then obtain a special case of most of the following theorems. Here, as elsewhere, the use of pseudoff measures simplifies and generalizes, by enabling us to drop superfluous conditions.)

The utility function (1) of the preceding section is a special case of (1) of this section: Let A consist of just <u>n</u> points, $\Sigma =$ all subsets of A, and μ have the value one on each point (enumeration measures). In this case δ is just an n-tuple $(\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_n), f(a, \delta(a))$ for the 1-th point <u>a</u> may be written $f_i(\delta_i)$, and the integral (1) reduces to the finite sum (1) of section 1.

A, f, μ , and δ may be interpreted as follows: A is the set of alternative "projects" among which we are allocating, and may be a set of locations, times, activities, etc. For fixed a $\in A$, $f(a, \cdot)$ is a real-valued function of a real variable, which gives the "payoff density" yielded from the "investment density" $\delta(a)$ applied to point <u>a</u>. μ may be areal measure over Space, or time-measure over Time, or some other measure such that (1) gives the utility. If it has a positive value at a single point, then in general a non-zero payoff may be obtained from that point. Finally, δ gives the density of the distribu tion of the resource, money, time, effort, etc. over the

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alternatives of A. That is, the distribution of the resource being allocated is given by the indefinite integral over A:

$$\int_{\Lambda} \delta_{\Lambda} \frac{d\mu}{\tau} = \frac{\delta_{1}(2,3)}{\tau}$$

So far we have said nothing about the feasibility conditions for δ (except that it must be real-valued and measurable). We shall always require that (3) be a finite signed measure; that is, any feasible δ satisfies the condition:

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$$\left|\int_{A} \delta_{\lambda} d\mu \right| < \infty$$
(5.2.4)
(5.2.4)
(4)

New consider the apparently much more specialized condition:

$$\int_{A}^{20} \delta_{\Lambda} d\mu = 0.$$
(5.2.5)
(5.2.5)
(5)

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Condition (5) seems very narrow. Only example (5) of the ones we have discussed satisfies it (total earning = total spending, so total net resource endowment $\underline{X} = 0$). The others have positive total resource endowments. However, we now show that any allocation problem satisfying feasibility condition (4) can be converted into another allocation problem satisfying (5).

Theorem: Given A, Σ , μ , f, M, where (A, Σ, μ) is a measure space, μ_{A}° sigma-finite, f: A × reals \rightarrow reals measurable, and M a set of measurable functions $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals, all satisfying (4), the problem being to maximize (1) over $\delta \in M$. Then there exist A', Σ' , μ' , f', M' satisfying the same conditions, and for which (5) is satisfied for all $\delta' \in M'$, such that there is a $1\frac{1}{N}$ correspondence between M and M' which preserves preferability relations.

(That is, if δ_1 , $\delta_2 \in M$ correspond to δ_1' , $\delta_2' \in M'$ respectively, then $\delta_1 \ge \delta_2$ iff $\delta_1' \ge \delta_2'$. Here the preference relation \ge comes from (2), while \ge ' comes from (2) with f', μ ' substituted for f, μ).

Proof: Let
$$\underline{z}_0$$
 be an artificial point not belonging to A. Define
 $(\underline{b}, \underline{A}' = \underline{A} \cup \{\underline{z}_0\}; \Sigma' = \{\underline{G} | \underline{G} \subseteq \underline{A}' \text{ and } \underline{G} \{\underline{z}_0\} \in \Sigma\}_{\hat{\mathbf{j}}}$
 $(\underline{b}, \underline{\mu}' (\underline{G}) = \underline{\mu}(\underline{G}) \text{ if } \underline{z}_0 \notin \underline{G}; \mathcal{T} \quad \text{for all } \underline{G} \in \Sigma';$
 $(\underline{\mu}' (\underline{G}) = \underline{\mu}(\underline{G} \setminus \{\underline{z}_0\}) + 1 \text{ if } \underline{z}_0 \in \underline{G}_1$
 $(\underline{\mu}, \underline{C}) = \underline{\mu}(\underline{G} \setminus \{\underline{z}_0\}) + 1 \text{ if } \underline{z}_0 \in \underline{G}_1$
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 $(\underline{\mu}, \underline{C}) = \underline{\mu}(\underline{G} \setminus \underline{C}) + 1 \text{ if } \underline{C} = \underline{C} + 1 \text{ if } \underline{C} = 1 \text{ if } \underline$

$$(z_0) = -\int_A \delta' A^{d\mu} d\mu d\mu$$
 (5.2.6)

Note that $\delta'(z_0)$ is finite, by condition (4).

Now μ' restricted to A coincides with μ , and $\mu' \{z_0\} = 1$. Hence, for $\delta' \in M'$, $\int_{A} \delta' d\mu' = \int_{A} \delta' d\mu + \delta' (z_0) \mu' \{z_0\} = 0$

from (6). Hence δ' satisfies (5).

The correspondence between δ' and its restriction to A is $1\frac{1}{N}$ between M' and M. The sefinitions of f' and u' imply that preferability is preserved.

Briefly, the new problem is obtained from the old by adding a point z_0 to A, making $\{z_0\}$ measurable, giving it measure one, setting f = 0 on it, and giving any δ a value on z_0 that just concels the surplus or deficit of $\int_{\Lambda} \delta_{\Lambda} d\mu$ on A. (A procedure similar to this is very common in finite problems, where it takes the form of adding "disposal activities", "slack variables", etc.)

This result is very useful, because condition (7) is mathematically convenient. Our standard procedure will be as follows. The heavy mathematical work will be on problems with the special condition (5). Having obtained a result, we then go to the general problem. This is translated into a problem satisfying (5) by means of the recipe in the proof just given. The result is applied to the translated problem, and usually yields a more general theorem for the general problem.

Let us now turn to a more specific system of feasibility conditions. Let two measurable functions, b, c: $A \rightarrow$ extended reals, be given, as well as two numbers, L_o and L⁰, which may also be infinite. In terms of these, the feasible set consists of those functions δ which are measurable, real-valued, which satisfy (4), and which also satisfy the two conditions

5.2.7

 $b \leq \delta \leq c_{1}$



and

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That is, for all $a \in A$, $\delta(a)$ satisfies the double inequality $b(a) \leq \delta(a) \leq c(a)$, and in addition its integral satisfies the double inequality (8). Allowing b, c, L₀ or L⁰ to be infinite is simply a device for removing some of these constraints. For example, setting $L_0 = -\infty$ is the same as simply removing the left thand inequality in (8).

This system of constraints is very flexible. For example, if the density δ must be its nature be non-negative, this may be indicated formally be setting <u>b</u> to be identically zero. On the other hand, if there is no lower limit to δ at any point, set <u>b</u> identically equal to $-\infty$. A total resource constraint that must be satisfied with equality (as in $\frac{1}{2}$) of the proceeding section) is indicated by setting $L_0 = L^0$, and both equal to total available met resources. The function <u>c</u> is an <u>investment capacity</u> constraint, limiting the amount of resource that can be squeezed into the various subsets of <u>A</u>. The function <u>b</u> is an <u>investment requirement</u> constraint, in that it places a lower bound (positive, negative, or zero) on investment over the various subsets of <u>A</u>.

This is the feasibility system which will occupy most of our attention. We now prove a result which specializes the theorem above, showing that this problem can be transformed into one with a simpler system of constraints.

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5.2.8)

Theorem: Given measure space (A, Σ, μ) , μ sigma-finite, measurable

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functions f: $A \times reals \rightarrow reals$, b, c: $A \rightarrow extended reals$, and extended real numbers L, LO, consider the problem of maximizing (1) over those measurable real-valued functions δ which satisfy (4), (7), and (8).

Then there exist A', Σ' , μ' , f', b', c', with analogous properties, from which the following problem is formulated: Maximize (1') over measurable real-valued functions 5' satisfying (5') and (7'). (The primes indicate that f', b', c', etc., is to be substituted for f, b, c, etc.) There is a l_{1} correspondence between the feasible sets of these two problems, which preserves preferability relations.

Before going on the the proof, note the effect of this theorems The constraint (8) is eliminated and replaced by (5), so that, instead of being confined to the interval [Lo, LO], $f_A \delta_d \mu$ must be zero. This is very convenient mathematically.

Proof: Take an artificial point z not belonging to A, and define A', Σ' , μ' , and f' exactly as in the proof of the theorem above. Let b' and c' be the functions which are identical to b and c, respectively, when restricted to A, and for which

$$b'(z_0) = -L^2, \quad c'(z_0) = -L_0$$
 (5.2.9)

We show that with these definitions, the feasible sets of the original and transformed problems are in $1\frac{1}{N}$ correspondence. With each $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals, feasible for the original problem,

associate the function $\delta': A' \rightarrow \text{reals which coincides with } \delta$ on A, and which satisfies (6) for $\delta'(z_0)$. Any such δ' is feasible for the transformed problem. For, (5') follows from (6) just as in the preceding proof. Also, (7') is satisfied for all $a \in A$, and as for z_0 , the condition

$$b'(z_0) \le \delta'(z_0) \le c'(z_0)$$
 (5.2.10)
(5.2.10)

is an immediate consequence of (6), (8) and (9). This proves δ' is feasible for the transformed problem.

Conversely, let δ' be transformed-feasible. Its restriction to A is then feasible for the original problem, since (8) follows from (10) and (5'), and the other feasibility conditions are obviously satisfied. Furthermore, the function $\delta'': (A' \rightarrow reals associated with the restriction of <math>\delta'$ is δ' itself; this follows again from (5'). We have proved that the original feasible set is mapped onto the transformed feasible set.

Finally, if two functions δ_1 and δ_2 , are unequal, their extensions are obviously unequal. This proves we have indeed a 1/1 correspondence. That preferability relations are preserved follows from the way in which f' and μ ' are defined.

One final preliminary point. Given a measure space (A, Σ , μ), recall that a condition is said to hold <u>almost every</u> where, or for <u>almost all</u> $a \in A$, iff there is a set $E \in \Sigma$ of

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measure zero (a <u>null</u> set) such that the condition holds for all a $\not\in E$. (The case $E = \not$ is not excluded; here the condition would hold for all $a \in A(0, 0)$)

Now let δ_1 , δ_2 : $\mathbb{A} \to \text{reals both be feasible, and be equal almost everywhere: <math>\mu\{a|\delta_1(a) \neq \delta_2(a)\} = 0$. One easily sees that

$$\int_{\Lambda} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \delta_1(\mathbf{a})) \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a}) = \int_{\Lambda} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \delta_2(\mathbf{a})) \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a})$$

and

$$\int_{N} \delta_{1} \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} = \int_{N} \delta_{2} \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \frac{1}{(1+1)}$$

(5.2.11)

so that δ_1 and δ_2 yield the same utility function and same resource distribution. In effect, δ_1 and δ_2 are two different representations of the same solution, (11). One could systematically ignore exceptions to rules which occur within null sets only. For example, the constraint (7) could be weakened to:

 $\Rightarrow b(a) \leq \delta(a) \leq c(a)$

for almost all $a \in A$, without altering the problem in any essential way. In any case, one should be prepared to find the following discussion well-seasoned with the phrases "almost everywhere", "almost all".

5.3. Sufficient Conditions for Optimality

A feature that characterizes a very wide class of

optimization problems is the role played by "multipliers" or "shadow prices". These are numbers associated with the constraints of the problem from which special conditions are formed, either necessary or sufficient for optimality, and which sometimes allow one to transform the original problem into a new primpler, problem.

These "prices" are especially useful in economic and social science problems, because they not only expedite the solution, but suggest institutional arrangements which will lead the economy to carry out the solution in practice.

In the resource allocation problem we would expect that a "price" could be associated with the total resource constraint in such a way that someone taking account of the "cost" of the resources allocated to the various projects — (as well as the "payoff" from these projects) — would be led to the optimal solution. In reality a number of qualifications must be added, but this idea is a red thread which runs through the following results.

We first give a very general condition which guarantees that a feasible solution is best. Note that we are dealing with a utility function that is partially ordered, so the conclusion that δ is <u>best</u> is much stronger than the conclusion that it is be merely unsurpassed.

Theorem: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, μ sigma-finite; let $f:A \times reals \rightarrow reals$ be measurable; and let M be a collection

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of measurable function δ : A + reals such that

$$\int_{A} \delta_{1} d\mu = 0$$
 (5.3.1)

for all $\delta \in M$. Let $\delta^{\circ} \in M$ be a function, and p° a real number, such that, for all $\delta \in M$,

$$f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta^{\circ}(a) \geq f(a,\delta(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta(a), \qquad (3.5)^{\circ}$$

for almost all $a \in A$.

Then S° is best for the problem of maximizing

$$\int_{N} f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$
(3.3.3)
(3.3.3)

over $\delta \in M$. (Maximization refers to standard ordering of pseudomeasures, here and throughout this discussion). 1 brackets

Proof: We must show that, for any feasible δ ,

$$\frac{117}{1} \int_{A} \left[f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) - f(a, \delta(a)) \right] \mu(da) \qquad (5.3.4)$$

is well-defined as an ordinary definite integral, and is ≥ 0 . From (2) we have

 $f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) - f(a,\delta(a)) \ge p^{\circ}[\delta^{\circ}(a) - \delta(a)]$

almost everywhere. By (1), the integral of $p^{\circ}[\delta^{\circ}(a) - \delta(a)]$ is zero, and this fact is all we need. \Box

Here pº is the shadow price, and (2) asserts that, for each $a \in A$ (except possibly on a null set), the investment

density $\delta_{-}^{\circ}(a)$ is chosen to maximize $f(a,x) - p^{\circ}x$ over the feasible investment levels x. The first term gives the payoff density, and the second reflects the "cost" of using up the resource. (Note that either f or p° , or both, can be negative).

We can easily derive a generalization of this result.

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Theorem: Let A, Σ , μ , f and M be as above, except that the feasibility condition (1) is replaced by the weaker conditions (5.3.5)(5.3.5)(5.3.5)(5.3.5)

for all $\delta \in M$. Let $\delta \in M$ be a function, and $p \in A$ real number, such that (2) holds, and also

(5.3.6)

 $\left\| \mathcal{T} \right\|_{\mathbf{p}^{2}} = \left\| f \right\|_{\mathbf{A}} \left(\delta^{2} - \delta \right) d\mu \geq 0 \right\|_{\mathbf{A}}$

for all $\delta \in M$. Then δ° is best for the problem of maximizing (3) over $\delta \in M$.

Proof: We take an artificial point \underline{z}_0 and transform this problem into its equivalent on $\underline{A}' = \underline{A} \cup \{\underline{z}_0\}$ (see section 2). This translated problem is in proper form for the theorem just given, and we need merely verify that condition (2) holds almost everywhere on $\underline{A} \cup \{\underline{z}_0\}$. By assumption this is three on \underline{A} . For the point \underline{z}_0 we have that $\underline{f}(\underline{z}_0, \cdot)$ is identically zero, $\delta'(\underline{z}_0) = - \int_{\underline{A}}^{J} \delta d\mu$, and similarly for $\delta^{\underline{c}}'(\underline{z}_0)$. (2) for the point \underline{z}_0 is then precisely the condition (6). The extra condition (6) that is imposed is easy to interpret. If p° is positive, then there is no feasible δ for which $\int_{\underline{A}} \delta \langle \underline{d\mu} \rangle \int_{\underline{A}} \delta^{\circ} \langle \underline{d\mu} \rangle$. In common sense terms, this states that if the resource is valuable, as much of it as possible should be allocated. Similarly, if p° is negative, the "resource" is illth rather than wealth, and as little of it as possible should be used. Finally, if $\int_{\underline{A}} \delta^{\circ} \langle \underline{d\mu} \rangle$ is neither the highest nor the lowest possible value attainable, then (6) implies $p^{\circ} = 0$. In this case the resource is a "free good", and for each $\underline{a} \in \underline{A}$ we simply choose $\delta^{\circ}(\underline{a})$ to maximize $\underline{f}(\underline{a},\underline{x})$ over attainable investment levels x without worrying about resource cost.

We can also find a sufficient condition for δ^2 to be the <u>unique</u> best solution. But one has to be careful in interpreting the concept of "uniqueness" here. According to previous discussion we may identify two functions, δ_1 and δ_2 , which are equal almost everywhere. Let us say that δ_1 and δ_2 are <u>essentially distinct</u> iff $\mu\{a|\delta_1(a) \neq \delta_2(a)\} > 0$. Then, in line with our discussion, we say that δ^2 is the <u>unique</u> best solution iff δ^2 is best and there is no essentially distinct δ which is also best.

There may obviously be more than one best solution. For example, if f is identically zero, then any feasible solution is best.

We now give the uniqueness condition. Going back to the first sufficiency theorem, suppose that all the premises hold, and, in addition, the following: For each $\delta \in M$ which is <u>essentially distinct</u> from δ^2 , there is a set E_{δ} of <u>positive</u>

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measure, such that (2) holds with strict inequality for all $a \in E_{\delta}$. Then δ° is the unique best solution.

The proof is simple. Reasoning just as before, we find that the integral (4) is <u>positive</u>, not merely non-negative. Hence $\delta_{-}^{\circ} > \delta$ for all $\delta \in M$ essentially distinct from δ_{-}° . This uniqueness condition immediately generalizes to the case where (1) is replaced by (5). Let all the premises of the second sufficiency theorem hold, and, in addition, the following: For each $\delta \in M$ which is essentially distinct from δ_{-}° , <u>either</u> there is a set \underline{E}_{δ} as above, <u>or</u> (6) holds with strict inequality (or both). Then δ_{-}° is the unique best solution.

The proof consists in translating this problem into the one in which (1) holds, then applying the E_{δ} condition to this translated problem. In doing so, note that the singleton set $\{\underline{z}_{0}\}$ has positive measure: $\mu'\{\underline{z}_{0}\} = 1$. This shows that strict inequality in (6) for all δ insures uniqueness.

Finally, we mention a much weaker sufficient condition for δ° being best. In the theorem above p° is chosen in advance and (2) must be satisfied for all δ . But it suffices that, for any feasible δ there exist a p° (which may be different for different $\delta^{\circ}s$) such that (2) is satisfied for this p° and δ . This variable p° lacks the appeal of the shadow price interpretation, however.

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5.4. Necessary Conditions for Optimality

The sufficient conditions we have just stated are very convenient to use where they hold. Unfortunately, it is easy to find problems whose optimal solution does not satisfy any such condition; that is, the stated conditions are not always necessary.

Here is a simple example. Let <u>A</u> consist of two points: <u>A</u> = { a_1, a_2 }, Σ = all subsets, μ = 1 on each point; let the payoff function be given by: $f(a_1, x) = x^2$, $f(a_2, x) = -2x^2$; the investment function is given by (x_1, x_2) , with the constraint $x_1 + x_2 = 0$. Thus the problem is of the finite form $(1) \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n}$ of section 1:

-Maximize

$$x_1^2 - 2x_2^2$$

subject to

 $x_1 + x_2 = 0$ (5.4.2) (2)

(541)

The unique best solution is obviously $\underline{x}_1 = \underline{x}_2 = 0$. Now the sufficient condition (3.2) of section 3 requires that there be a real number p^o such that (for point a_1)

for all real x. Obviously there is no such p^o. (On the other hand, this example does not violate the weaker condition mentioned at the end of the preceding section.)

 $\int 0 > x^2 - p^2 x$

We shall now investigate necessary conditions for optimality. Broadly speaking these have been found more useful than sufficient conditions, because it is hard to find simple sufficient conditions which cover a very wide range of problems. Also, establishing necessary conditions is, by and large, much more difficult than establishing sufficient conditions. (Compare the length of proofs in this section with that preceding).

The classical example of a necessary condition is that a function maximized in the interior of a domain have a derivative of zero at the maximizing point, if it is differentiable there. Necessary conditions in general are used just as this one is, wy, Namely, one narrows the search for an optimal solution to those (hopefully few) points which satisfy the necessary condition, and then tries by other means to test these directly for optimality.

We shall concentrate on the special class of allocation problems discussed above, where the feasible solutions are those which lie between two functions, b, c: $A \rightarrow$ extended reals, and which integrate to zero. Afterwards, some of the key results will be generalized to the problem where the constraint

replaces the condition that the integral be zero.

A number of preliminary concepts and lemmas will be needed before we can get down to serious business.

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Recall that

, The supremum of a set of extended real numbers, it will be recalled, is the smallest extended real number not less than any of the numbers in the set (it is the "least upper bound" of the set). The supremum of a function, $g:A \rightarrow$ extended reals, is defined to be the supremum of its range, $\{g(a) \mid a \in A\}$.

Let us use the notation $g \models to$ represent the restriction of g to the subdomain $E \subseteq A$. The supremum of $g \models is$ less than or equal to the supremum of g itself. Now suppose the domain A of g is the universe set of a measure space (A, Σ, μ) . We consider all possible restrictions $g \models such that \mu(A \models) = 0$ and take the supremum of each one. The infimum of the resulting set of extended real numbers is called the <u>essential supremum</u> of g. To put it another way, the essential supremum of g is the largest extended real number x such that $x \le \sup \{g(a) \mid a \in E\}$ for all $E \in \Sigma$ such that $\mu(A \models) = 0$.

One special case may be noted. If μ is the identically zero measure, <u>A</u> itself is a null set, and we may take <u>E</u> = \emptyset . The range of <u>g</u> <u>E</u> is then the empty set \emptyset . Applying the definition of supremum literally yields sup $\emptyset = -\infty$. Thus the essential supremum of any function g is / in this case, $-\infty$.

The essential infigum of a function $g: A \rightarrow$ extended reals, with respect to (A, Σ, μ) , is defined analogously. Just switch the words "supremum" and "infimum", and the words "greatest" and "least", in the preceding discussion. Or, equivalently, we could define it by the rule:

essential infimum of g = -essential supremum (-g) ~ [

We shall use the standard abbreviations "ess sup", and "ess inf" for these concepts.

The following result, whose proof is omitted, with be needed later.

Lemma: Given measure space (A, Σ, μ) and function g: $A \rightarrow$ extended reals, let $\{A, A_1, \ldots\}$ be a countable measurable partition (or even just a covering) of A. Then

ess sup $g = \sup\{ess \sup(g|A_n) | n = 0, 1, ...\}$

ess inf g = inf{ess inf(g|A_n) | n = 0, 1,...} (5.4.4) (4)

Here ess $\sup(g|A_n)$ refers to the function $g|A_n$ and the measure space (A_n, Σ_n, μ_n) , which is the restriction of (A, Σ, μ) to A_n , Similarly for ess $\inf(g|A_n)$.

It will be noted that measurability of g is nowhere mentioned. Indeed, these concepts are perfectly well-defined, and the lemma correct, for any function g, measurable or not. This is important, because the functions g and h which we define below, are not necessarily measurable.

Next, let f be a real-valued function whose domain is an interval of real numbers, [b,c]. (The endpoints of the interval may or may not be included, and we may have b = c). f is <u>continuous</u> at the point $x_0 \in [b,c]$ iff, for any sequence x_1, x_2, \ldots of points of [b,c] whose limit is x_0 , and any number $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an integer N such that, for all n > N.

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$-\varepsilon < f(x_0) - f(x_n) < \varepsilon$

(514.5)

(5)

Now (5) is a double inequality. If we drop the left-hand inequality in (5), keeping everything else the same, we get a weaker concept. f is then said to be lower semi+continuous at the point x. Intuitively, lower semi-continuity at x allows f to take a "sudden" jump downward, but not upward, at x. (Continuity prohibits "sudden" jumps in either direction).)

- Function f is continuous, or lower semi-continuous, iff it is continuous, or lower semi-continuous, at every point of its domain, respectively.

There is another way to characterize lower semi-continuity which is more useful (though less intuitive) then the defini tion just given. An open interval of real numbers is an interval not containing its endpoints (this is the same as an open disc on the real line). An open set on [b,c] is the interf section of [b,c] with any union of open intervals. Then f: [b,c] + reals is lower semi-continuous iff $\{x | f(x) > y\}$ is an open set on [b,c], for all real numbers y. We omit the proof that the two lower semi-continuity concepts are the same. We shall need the following result.

Lemma: Let $f: [b,c] \rightarrow reals$ be lower semi-continuous, with b < c. Then (5.4.6)

 $\sup f = \sup(f|E)$

where E is the set of rational numbers in [b,c].

<u>Proof</u>: Obviously, $\sup f \ge \sup(f|E)$. Conversely, for any number y < $\sup f$, the set {x|f(x) > y} is open and non-empty; hence there is a rational number x belonging to it: $f(x_0) > y$.

Next, we need several concepts related to, but more general than, the concept of derivative of a function. Let $f: [b,c] \rightarrow$ reals again have a real interval domain which may or may not include its endpoints, and let x be a point of the domain $\neq c$.

Definition: The lower right derivate of f at the point x is the limit, as goes to zero from above, of

$$\inf \left\{ \left[f(x+y) - f(x) \right] / y \quad | \quad 0 < y < \varepsilon \right\}.$$

(7)

That is, given $\varepsilon > 0$, we find for each point y in the open interval $(0,\varepsilon)^3$ the value of [f(x+y) - f(x)]/y - which is theaverage slope of f from x to <math>x + y - and take the infimum of this set of values. Having done this for each $\varepsilon > 0$, we take the limit as $\varepsilon \Rightarrow 0$.

This concept is well-defined for any real-valued function, and any domain point except the right endpoint, c, but it may take on an infinite value. For, first of all the infimum of any set of real numbers is some extended real number, so (7) is well-defined for fixed $\varepsilon > 0$. Furthermore one sees that (7) is non-decreasing as $\varepsilon + \theta$, hence has a limit in the extended real numbers. This of course contrasts with differentiability, which is not a universal property. We shall use the notation $D_{+}f(x)$ for the lower right derivate of f at x. If the right endpoint, c, is part of the domain, we shall make the convention that $D_{+}f(c) = -\infty$.

Similarly, for all domain points, x, other than the left endpoint, b, we have the following.

Definition: The upper left derivate of f at the point x is the limit, as ε goes to zero from above, of

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$$\sup \left\{ \left[f(x) - f(x-y) \right] / y \ \left| 0 < y < \varepsilon \right\} \right\}$$

An argument similar to the one just given shows that this is always well defined in the extended real numbers. We shall use the notation $D^{-}f(x)$ for the upper left derivate of f at x. If the left endpoint, b, is in the domain, we make the convention that $D^{-}f(b) = +\infty$.

(One may also define the upper right derivate: replace "inf" by "sup" in (7); and the lower left derivate: replace "sup" by "inf" in (8) but we do not need these concepts. A function is <u>differentiable</u> at interior point x iff all four of these quantities are equal; their common value is then the <u>derivate</u> of f at x).

Next, we need the following result concerning atomic measures.

Lemma: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ atomic; let $(f_1, f_2, ...)$ be a sequence of measurable functions on A, taking

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values in the extended real numbers. Then there is exactly one sequence of extended real numbers $(x_1, x_2, ...)$ satisfying

 $\mu \left\{ a = f_n(a) = x_n^{\ D} \text{ for all } n = 1, 2, \dots \right\} \neq 0, \quad (5, 4, 6)$

Proof: By definition of "atomic", exactly one of the two numbers, $\mu(E)$, $\mu(A \setminus E)$ is zero, for any choice of $E \in \Sigma$. It is clear that there can be at most one sequence of numbers satisfying (9), hence we must show there is at <u>least</u> one. Take any measurable function f, and consider the

supremum, x, of the set of numbers x satisfying

 $\mu{a|f(a) < x} = 0,$ (5.4.10) (10)

If $\underline{x}_0 > -\infty$, take a sequence (\underline{x}_n) rising to \underline{x}_0 . Since (10) holds for each \underline{x}_n , it holds for \underline{x}_0 itself. It also obviously holds if $\underline{x}_0 = -\infty$. Now consider the condition

 $\mu\{a|f(a) > x\} = 0$ (5.4.11) (11)

This obviously holds for x_0 if $x_0 = \infty$. If $x_0 < \infty$, take a sequence (x_n) decreasing to $x_0 > 1$ (11) holds for each such $x_n > x_0$ (since the complement of the set in (11) has positive measure). Hence (11) holds again for x_0 . We have thus shown that

 $\mu\{a|f(a) \neq x_0\} = 0.$ (12)

(5.4.12)

Now for each \underline{f}_n let \underline{x}_n be the corresponding number satisfying (12). The set $\{a \mid f_n(a) \neq \underline{x}_n \text{ for at least one} \\ n = 1, 2, ... \}$ is the union of the countable collection of null sets $(\{a \mid f_n(a) \neq \underline{x}_n\}), n = 1, 2, ..., hence its itself has$ measure zero. Therefore its complement is not a null set. But this is exactly the statement (9). $\mu \mu \eta \mu$

Let us now get down to business. The allocation problem will be determined by the measure space (A, Σ, μ) , the payoff function $f:A \times reals \Rightarrow$ reals, and the lower and upper capacity functions, b, c:A \Rightarrow extended reals.

We make the following convention. If a specific point $a \in A$ is chosen, $f(a, \cdot)$ is a function of a real variable. In referring to it, we shall always take this function to be restricted to the interval [b(a), c(a)]. (The endpoint b(a)is to be included iff it is finite, and similarly for c(a)). Thus the statement that $f(a, \cdot)$ is lower semi-continuous refers to this function with the domain [b(a), c(a)], Similarly for derivates of this function; in particular we have at the end? points that $D^{-}f(a, b(a)) = +\infty$ and $D_{+}f(a, c(a)) = -\infty$.

To explain the formulation of the following result, recall that, since μ is signa-finite, there is a countable measurable partition \mathcal{A}_{Θ} , \mathcal{A}_{1} ,...} of \mathcal{A}_{A} , such that μ restricted to \mathcal{A}_{A} is non-atomic, while each \mathcal{A}_{n} , n = 1, 2, ..., is an atom (that is, μ restricted to \mathcal{A}_{n} is atomic). \mathcal{A}_{A} is the <u>non-atomic</u> part of \mathcal{A}_{A} , and \mathcal{A}_{A} the <u>atomic part</u>. This partition is unique up to null sets. (We do not assume that atoms are simply concentrated, Doing so would simplify some of The following proofs.)

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We postulate that the given feasible density δ^{\bullet} is unsurpassed in the allocation problem. Note that this is a weaker assumption, and therefore yields a stronger result, than if we postulated that δ° were best.

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(13)

The following is called a lemma rather than a theorem because it lacks immediate intuitive appeal. The result is quite powerful, however, and implies all the other results we obtain in this section.

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Lemma: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite; let $f: \bigcirc A \times reals \rightarrow reals$, and b, c: $A \rightarrow extended reals$, be measurable functions. Let feasible δ^2 be unsurpassed for the problem of maximizing

$$f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$
 (5.4.13) (13)

subject to $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals being measurable, and satisfying

(5.4.14) b

s

s

c (14) 84] [s, au = 0.2 (5.4.15) (15)

Let A, $A \setminus A$ be the non-atomic and atomic parts of A, respectively. Let f(a, .) be lower semi-continuous for all a e A

Define two functions g, h: A + extended reals as follows: For a E A 12 pt strekets farens $g(a) = \sup \{ [f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a) + y) - f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))] / y \},$

(2 pt prochetst (5.4.17) (17) the supremum being taken over all yin the open interval $(0, c(a) - \delta^{\circ}(a));$

$$h(a) = \inf \{ [f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) - f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a) - y)] / y \}$$

the infimum being taken over all y in the open interval $(0, \delta^{2}(a) - b(a)).$ For a E ALA

$$g(a) = D_{f}(a, \delta^{2}(a))$$
 (18)

(5.4.19)

$$h(a) = D^{-}f(a, \delta^{2}(a))$$
 (5.4.19)

Then, for any pair of disjoint sets G, $H \in \Sigma$, we have

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ess sup(g|G)
$$\leq$$
 ess inf(h|H). (20)

Proof: It suffices to prove (20) for the special case where $G \subseteq A_m$, $H \subseteq A_n$, for some m, n = 0, 1, 2, ... For, suppose this has been proved, and let G, H be any disjoint measurable sets. By assumption, we have

$$\operatorname{ess \, sup}\left[g \mid (G \cap A_{m})\right] \leq \operatorname{ess \, inf}\left[h \mid (H \cap A_{n})\right]$$

for all m, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ Then, by (3) and (4), $\frac{1}{46} \operatorname{ess sup}(g|G) = \frac{12}{m} \operatorname{ess sup}(g|(G \cap A_m))]$ $\leq \inf_{n} \left[ess \inf(h|(H \cap A_n)) \right] = ess \inf(h|H)$ Since $(G \cap A_m)$, $m = 0, 1, ..., partitions G, and <math>(H \cap A_n)$, n = 0, 1, ..., partitions H. Thus (20) would be proved in general. There are four cases to consider: $18(i) \quad G \in A_0, \quad H \in A_0;$

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{I} & (\underline{i}) & G \subseteq \underline{A}_{\theta}, & \underline{H} \subseteq \underline{A}_{\theta}; \\ (\underline{i}\underline{i}) & G \subseteq \underline{A}_{m}, & \underline{H} \subseteq \underline{A}_{n} & \text{for } \underline{m}, & \underline{n} \neq 0; \\ \hline & (\underline{i}\underline{i}\underline{i}) & G \subseteq \underline{A}_{m}, & \underline{H} \subseteq \underline{A}_{\theta} & \text{for } \underline{m} \neq 0; \\ \hline & \uparrow_{b}(\underline{i}\underline{v}) & G \subseteq \underline{A}_{\theta}, & \underline{H} \subseteq \underline{A}_{n} & \text{for } \underline{n} \neq 0. \end{array}$

(I) G C A, H C A;

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In each case we shall assume that (20) is false, and show that there is a feasible δ which surpasses δ^2 , giving a cong tradiction.

$$g_{y}$$
 For each positive real number y define the functions
 g_{y} , h_{y} : $A \rightarrow$ extended reals by
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 f_{y} , h_{y}

$$g_{y}(a) = \left[f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a) + y) - f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))\right]/y, f(a)$$

if $c(a) - \delta^{\circ}(a) > y; = -\infty$ otherwise;

$$h_{y}(a) = [f(a, \delta^{o}(a)) - f(a, \delta^{o}(a) - y)]/y \rightarrow (5.4.22)$$
if $\delta^{o}(a) - b(a) > y; = +\infty$ otherwise.
$$(5.4.22)$$

(5.4.21)

5.4.23

These are all measurable functions, since f, b, c, and δ^2 are all measurable. Furthermore, when restricted to A_0 ,

$$g = \sup_{y \to y} g_{y}$$
 $h = \inf_{y \to y} h_{y}$

the sup and inf being taken over all positive real y.

We now show that, when restricted to (23) remains true even if y merely ranges over the positive rational numbers. Take a point $a \in A_{q'}$ and consider $g_{y}(a)$ as a function of \underline{Y}_{r} with domain the open interval (0, $c(a) - \delta^{o}(a)$). Since f is lower semi-continuous, it follows easily that the y-function $g_y(a)$ is lower semi-continuous \mathcal{N} (#se the definition given by the right half of (5)). If $c(a) > \delta^{2}(a)$, it follows from (6) that (23) is true for g when the supremum is taken over the positive rational values of y. If $c(a) = \delta^{2}(a)$, this is still true, the two suprema both being $-\infty$. This proves the contention for g.

As for h(a), we consider $h_y(a)$ as a function of y, with domain (0, $\delta^{\circ}(a) - b(a)$). One then verifies that minus $h_{v}(a)$ is lower semi-continuous. The then verifies as above that $\sup (-h_y(a))$ is the same whether taken over positive real y or positive rational y. But $\sup (-h_y(a)) = -\inf (h_y(a)) = -h(a)$, which proves the contention for h.

Now, assuming that (20) is false, choose a real number x satisfying

ess sup(g|G) > x > ess inf(h|H),
$$(24)$$

an

$$\frac{1}{1} = \begin{bmatrix} G \cap \{a | g(a) > x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}, f(H) = H \cap \{a |$$

for all positive real y.

Since we are operating within \underline{A}_{0} , (23) is true for \underline{y} ranging over the positive rationals. Hence

the union taken over the positive rationals. G' and H', as unions of a countable number of measurable sets, are themselves measurable. Also $\mu(G') > 0$, $\mu(H') > 0$; for if not, (24) would be false. It follows that there must be positive (rational) numbers, y_1 and y_2 , such that

$$\mu(G_{y_1}) > 0 \ \mu(H_{y_2}) > 0 \ (5.4.26)$$

(5.4.26)

(26)

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4,27)

5.4.28

since a countable union of null sets is a null set.

Now μ , being sigma-finite, and non-atomic on G_{y_1} , takes on all values between 0 and $\mu(G_{y_1})$ on this set, similarly for H_{y_2} . Hence, from (26), we can find measurable subsets $\underline{G^*} \subseteq \underline{G}_{y_1}$ and $\underline{H^*} \subseteq \underline{H}_{y_2}$ such that

$$y_1 \mu(G^*) = y_2 \mu(H^*)$$
 (27)
value being positive and finite Mart

with this common value being positive and finite.

We are now ready to construct another feasible density, $\delta^{\circ\circ}$, which will surpass δ° . Let

$$\delta^{\circ\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + y_{1}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + y_{2}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - y_{2}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - y_{2}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + \delta^{\circ}(a) + \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + \delta^{\circ}(a)$$

Note that this is well-defined, since G and H, hence G" and H") are disjoint. First we verify that $\delta^{\circ\circ}$ is feasible. It is real-valued and measurable. Also,

$$\int_{\underline{A}} (\delta \circ \circ - \delta \circ) d\mu = \underline{y}_{1} \mu (\underline{G}^{"}) - \underline{y}_{2} \mu (\underline{H}^{"}) = 0,$$

from (28) and (27). Thus it satisfies condition (15).

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Next, if $a \in G^{"}$, then $g_{Y_{1}}(a) > x > -\infty$, by (25). Hence $Y_{1} < c(a) - \delta^{\circ}(a)$, by (21). This means that adding Y_{1} to $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ on G" does not violate the feasibility condition $\delta(a) \leq c(a)$. Similarly, if $a \in H^{"}$, then $h_{Y_{2}}(a) < x < \infty$, by (25). Hence $Y_{2} < \delta^{\circ}(a) - b(a)$, by (22), so that subtracting Y_{2} on H''_{1} does not violate the feasibility condition $\delta(a) \geq b(a)$. Thus (14) remains satisfied, and $\delta^{\circ\circ}$ is feasible.

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rom (28), (21), and (22), $\int_{\mathbf{G}^{"}} \mathbf{y}_{1} \mathbf{x} d\mu - \int_{\mathbf{H}^{"}} \mathbf{y}_{2} \mathbf{x} d\mu$

since $\underline{G}^{"} \subseteq \underline{G}_{Y_{1}}$ and $\underline{H}^{"} \subseteq \underline{H}_{Y_{1}}$ and $\mu(\underline{G}^{"}), \mu(\underline{H}^{"})$ are positive,

 $= x y_1 \mu(G^*) - x y_2 \mu(H^*) = 0$

from (27). Thus $\delta^{\circ\circ}$ is preferred to δ° under standard ordering

premise that δ^{\bullet} is unsurpassed. This establishes (20) for $G \subseteq A_0$, $H \subseteq A_0$. $f_{ave}(u)$. $(11)_A G \subseteq A_m$, $H \subseteq A_n$, where m, $n \neq 0$: $(11)_A G \subseteq A_m$, $H \subseteq A_n$, where m, $n \neq 0$:

of pseudomeasures. The denial of (20) thus contradicts the

As above, we assume (20) is false, so that

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ess sup (g |G) > ess inf (h |H)

For this to hold, <u>G</u> and <u>H</u> must have positive measure, so that they are atoms. Applying (9) to the function $c=\delta^2$ restricted to <u>G</u>, there must be a unique constant, ε_0 , such that

$$\mu\left[\underline{G} \cap \{\underline{a} \mid \underline{c}(\underline{a}) - \underline{\delta}^{\circ}(\underline{a}) = \varepsilon_{g}\}\right) > 0. \qquad (5.4.30)$$
(30)
(30)

(5.4,29)

(29)

Since $c-\delta^{\circ}$ is non-negative, $\varepsilon_{\Theta} \ge 0$. In fact, $\varepsilon_{\Theta} \ge 0$. For if $c(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a)$, then $g(a) = D_{+}f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) = -\infty$; hence $\varepsilon_{\Theta} = 0$ would imply ess sup $(g|G) = -\infty$, contrary to (29). A similar argument shows that there is a unique positive constant, η_{Θ} such that

 $\mu \left[\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left\{ a \right\} \left\{ \delta^{2}(a) - b(a) = n_{0}^{3} \right\} > 0.$ (5.4.31)
(31)

Label the sets in (30) and (31) by G', H', respectively. These are subatoms of <u>G</u> and H.

A measure which is atomic and sigma-finite is bounded, so that

 $\gg \infty > \mu(\mathbf{G}^{i}) > 0, \infty > \mu(\mathbf{H}^{i}) > 0.$

Now take two sequences of positive numbers, beginning with ε_{0} , not respectively, and decreasing to zero:

$$\varepsilon_{\Theta} > \varepsilon_1 > \varepsilon_2 > \dots, \lim_{n \to \infty} \varepsilon_n = 0$$

and chosen so that

$$\varepsilon_n \mu(G') = \eta_n \mu(H')$$

(5,4,32) -(32)

for all n > 0.

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Consider the sequence of functions g_{ϵ_n} , $\underline{n} = 1, 2, ...,$ given by (21), all restricted to the domain G'. The condition $\epsilon_n < \epsilon_0$ guarantees that these are all finite. Similarly, consider the sequence \underline{h}_n , $\underline{n} = 1, 2, ...,$ given by (22), all restricted to the domain H'. These are also all finite, since $\eta_n < \eta_0$.

Applying (9) once again, we find there must be two unique sequences of constants, say c_1, c_2, \ldots and b_1, b_2, \ldots such that

$$\mu[\underline{G}' \cap \{\underline{a} | \underline{g}_{n}(\underline{a}) = \underline{c}_{n} \\ \uparrow for all n = 1, 2, ... \} > 0, \frac{(5.4.33)}{(33)}$$

and

$$\mu \left[H' \cap \{a \mid h_n(a) = b_n, \text{for all } n = 1, 2, ... \} \right] > 0.$$
(5.4.34)

These constants must be finite.

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Label the sets in (33) and (34) by G", H", respectively. Also let

$$c_{o} = \lim \inf c_{n} = \lim \inf g_{\varepsilon_{n}}(a), \text{ and} \qquad (35)$$

$$f_{o} = \lim \sup b_{n} = \lim \sup h_{\eta_{n}}(a), \qquad (5.4.36)$$

$$(5.4.36)$$

(35) is valid for all $\underline{a} \in \underline{G}^{"}$, (36) for all $\underline{a} \in \underline{H}^{"}$. We also have

$$\lim \inf g_{\varepsilon_n}(a) \ge D_+ f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)), \text{ and } (37)$$

and

and

$$\lim \sup h_{\eta_n}(a) \leq \underline{D} f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)),$$

for $a \in G^{"}$, $a \in H^{"}$, respectively. (37) results from the fact that D_{+} is the limit of infima taken over entire intervals, while the left side of (37) is the limit of infima taken over subsets of these intervals (namely, the points ε_{n}). A similar argument establishes (38).

Now the right-hand sides of (37) and (38) are nothing but g and h, respectively. Hence

$$c_{o} \geq ess sup (g|G") = ess sup (g|G)$$

> ess inf (h|H) = ess inf (h|H") > bo

from (35), (37), (29), (36), and (38).

(5.4.38)

514.39) (39)

(5.4.37)

Since $c_0 > b_0$, there must exist an n' such that $c_n > b_n$. We are now ready to construct a feasible density $\delta^{\circ\circ}$ which surpasses δ° . Let

 $\delta^{\circ\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + \epsilon_{n'} \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + \epsilon_{n'} \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - \eta_{n'} \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - \eta_{n'} \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - \eta_{n'} \delta^{\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}($

(5.4.40) (40)

This is feasible. First of all,

$$\int_{\underline{A}} (\delta^{\underline{\circ}} \circ - \delta^{\underline{\circ}}) d\mu = \varepsilon_{\underline{n}} \cdot \mu (\underline{G}^{"}) - \eta_{\underline{n}} \cdot \mu (\underline{H}^{"})$$

$$=\varepsilon_{n} \cdot \mu(\mathbf{G}') - \eta_{n} \cdot \mu(\mathbf{H}') = 0,$$

from (32). Secondly, for $a \in G^{"}$, $\delta^{\circ}(a) + \epsilon_{n} < \delta^{\circ}(a) + \epsilon_{0} = c(a)$, so the upper bound constraint $\delta \leq c$ remains satisfied. Similarly, $\delta^{\circ}(a) - n_{n} > \delta^{\circ}(a) - n_{0} = b(a)$, for $a \in H^{"}$, so the lower bound constraint $\delta \geq b$ remains satisfied. This proves feasibility.

Comparing utilities, we obtain

$$\int_{A} \left[f(a, \delta^{\circ\circ}(a)) - f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) \right] \mu(da) = \int_{G^{\circ}} \varepsilon_{n} \cdot g_{\varepsilon_{n}} d\mu - \int_{H^{\circ}} \eta_{n} \cdot h \eta_{n} \cdot d\mu$$
from (40), (21), and (22).

$$= \varepsilon_{n} \cdot c_{n+\mu} (G^{*}) - \eta_{n} \cdot b_{n+\mu} (H^{*})$$
from (33) and (34),

>
$$b_{n} \cdot [\epsilon_{n} \cdot \mu(G'') - \eta_{n} \cdot \mu(H'')] = 0,$$

since $c_n > b_n + \mu(G^*) = \mu(G^*), \mu(H^*) = \mu(H^*)$, and all terms are positive. Thus $\delta^{\circ\circ}$ is preferred to δ° under standard ordering of pseudomeasures. The denial of (20) again leads to contradiction.

$$\Box \Box \bullet G \subseteq A_m, H \subseteq A_q, m \neq 0$$

The proof for this case combines the techniques of the two preceding parts, and we shall just outline the procedure. As before, we assume (20) is false. Let x be a real number satisfying

ess sup
$$(g|G) > x > ess inf (h|H)$$
.

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Reasoning as in $\frac{racl}{part}$ (i), we can find a positive (rational) number y_2 such that $\mu(H_y) > 0$, where $H_y = H \cap \{a | h_y(a) < x\}$, and h_y is given by (22).

Next, we find the number ε_{0} and the set G' as in part (ii), (30), and again take a positive sequence decreasing to zero:

$$\varepsilon_{\Theta} > \varepsilon_1 > \varepsilon_2 > \dots; \lim \varepsilon_n = 0.$$

As in (ii), we find a unique sequence of real numbers, c_1, c_2, \ldots , such that $\mu(G^*) > 0$, where

$$\underline{G}^{"} = \underline{G}^{'} \cap \{\underline{a} | \underline{g}_{\varepsilon_{\underline{n}}}(\underline{a}) = \underline{c}_{\underline{n}} \text{ for all } \underline{n} = 1, 2, \dots \}$$

(cf. (33)). Continuing, we find that (cf. (39))

$$\lim \inf c_n \ge ess \sup (g|G) \longrightarrow (42)$$

Now choose n' so large that

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$$\underline{n} < \underline{y}_2 \mu (\underline{H}_{-\underline{y}_2}) / \mu (\underline{G}^{"})$$
 (43)

15.4.42)

for all n > n'. This can always be done, since $\lim_{n \to n} \varepsilon_n = 0$, and the right side of (43) is positive: $(\mu(G^*))$ is finite, since μ is sigma-finite and atomic on G^*). (42) and (41) imply that there is an $n^* > n'$ for which

$$n^{*} > x_{*}$$
 (44)

Since μ is sigma-finite, and non-atomic on $\frac{H}{Y_2}$, it takes on all values between 0 and $\mu(\frac{H}{Y_2})$. Hence there is a measurable subset H" $\subseteq \frac{H}{Y_2}$ such that

 $\varepsilon_{n^{n}\mu}(\underline{G}^{n}) = y_{2}\mu(\underline{H}^{n}) - (45)$

since ε_{n} , satisfies inequality (43). The common value in (45) is positive and finite.

We now construct a new feasible density δ^{22} as follows:

$$\delta^{\circ\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) + \varepsilon_{n''3} \quad \text{if } a \in G'';$$

$$\delta^{\circ\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) - Y_2 \quad \text{if } a \in H'';$$

$$\delta^{\circ\circ}(a) = \delta^{\circ}(a) \quad \text{if } a \notin G'' \cup H''.$$

To show feasibility, we have, first, of all,

$$g_{4}$$
 $\int_{A} (s_{2} \circ - s_{2}) d\mu = \epsilon_{M^{m}} \mu(G^{m}) - y_{2} \mu(H^{m}) = 0,$

from (45). Arguments already given in $\frac{caster}{parts}$ (i) and (ii) show that the bounding constraints $b \leq \delta \leq c$ remain valid for $\delta^{\circ\circ}$. Hence, it is feasible. Comparing utilities,

$$= \int_{A}^{220} [f(a, \delta^{20}(a)) - f(a, \delta^{0}(a))] \mu(da) = \int_{G''}^{21} \varepsilon_{n'''} g_{en'''}^{32} \frac{44}{d\mu} - \int_{H'''}^{22} y_{2}^{30} \frac{26}{d\mu}$$

>
$$\varepsilon_{n} = C_{n} = \mu(G^{*}) - Y_{2} \times \mu(H^{*})$$

> $\chi = [\varepsilon_{n} = \mu(G^{*}) - Y_{2}\mu(H^{*})] = 0$

from (21), (22), (25), (44), (45). Hence $\delta^{\pm 0}$ is preferred to δ^{\pm} under standard ordering of pseudomeasures. This contradiction establishes (20) for part (iii).

(iv) G = A, H = An, n ≠ 0 : 5

I This is completely symmetric with part (iii): One finds a set G_{y_1} as in part (i), a sequence b_1, b_2, \dots as in part (ii), etc. Details are left as an exercise.

Thus (20) has been verified in all four special cases. By the argument which begins this proof, (20) is now established in general. The proof is complete. This has been a long and tedious proof, and the result itself does not look prepossessing. A few intuitive rematts may be in order, then, to indicate that the lemma says, and why it "should" be true.

The function g represents, roughly, the return per unit increase in investment at various points of A. The function h represents, again roughly, the loss in return per unit dist investment. If (20) is violated for a pair of disjoint sets G, H, this means there are subsets G', H', of positive measure such that g on G' is higher than h on H'. Then, if we transfer some mass from H' to G', the net gain on the latter set outweighs the net loss on the former, resulting in a new feasible density which surpasses δ^2 . The main burden of the proof just given, in fact, is to find the appropriate subsets, and the appropriate mass to transfer.

We stress the generality of this result. The only special conditions imposed on A, Σ , μ , b, c, or f, aside from measurability, are that μ be sigma-finite, f real, and $f(a, \cdot)$ lower semifcontinuous for $a \in A_0$. These are very weak conditions, and will nearly always be satisfied in practice.

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Our aim now is to use this result to derive the extetence of a number that behaves somewhat like a shadow price.

Lemma: Let (A, Σ, μ) , f, b, c, and δ° satisfy the conditions of the preceding lemma, with δ° unsurpassed for the problem of maximizing (13) subject to (14) and (15). Let the functions g, h: A + extended reals be defined, as above, by $(16) \frac{1}{N}(19)$.

Then there exists an extended real number, p° , and a set $E \in \Sigma$, such that (1) E is either an atom or a null set, and (5.4.46) (46)

for all $a \in A \setminus E$.

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(This may be expressed by the statement: Except for at most one atom, (46) is true almost everywhere

<u>Proof</u>: Let $\{\underline{A}_{0}, \underline{A}_{1}, \ldots\}$ be the decomposition of <u>A</u> into nonatomic part <u>A</u> and atoms <u>A</u>₁, <u>A</u>₂,... Let $\underline{g}^{n} = \underline{ess} \sup \underline{g} | \underline{A}_{n} \land$ $\underline{h}^{n} = \underline{ess} \inf \underline{h} | \underline{A}_{n}$, for $\underline{n} = 0, 1, \ldots$. The preceding lemma then states that

$$g_{-}^{m} \leq h_{-}^{m}$$

for all \underline{m} , $\underline{n} = 0$, 1,... such that $\underline{m} \neq \underline{n}$. It gives no information if $\underline{m} = \underline{n}$, since then there is no disjointness of $\underline{A}_{\underline{m}}$, $\underline{A}_{\underline{n}}$. First let us suppose that

 $\sup g^{\underline{m}} \leq \inf h^{\underline{n}} \cdot \qquad (5.4.48)$

(5,4.47)

Choose any number \underline{p}° between these bounds. Then (46) is true for all $\underline{a} \in \underline{A}_n$ except possibly for a null set $\underline{E}_n \subseteq \underline{A}_n$, all $\underline{n} = 0, 1, \ldots$. Hence (46) is true everywhere except for the set $\underline{E} = \bigcup \underline{E}_n$. Since \underline{E} is a null set, the lemma is established if (48) is true.

Now let (48) be false. There must be a pair of indices, m' and n' for which $g^{m'} > h^{n'}$. By (47), these indices must be equal: m' = n'. But then, for all $m \neq n'$, $n \neq n'$, we have

$$g^{\underline{m}} \leq h^{\underline{n}'} < g^{\underline{n}'} \leq h^{\underline{n}}$$

by (47) again. Hence, if we exclude the set $A_n \ll (48)$ will be re-established for the rest of A. Thus (46) will be true almost everywhere on $A \land A_n$.

5.4.49)

It remains to prove only that the anomalous A_n , must be an atom, that is, that $n' \neq 0$. Suppose on the contrary that $g^0 > h^0$. Choose two real numbers, x, y, so that

 $> g^{\Theta} > x > y > h^{\Theta}$

and let

$$G = A_0 \cap \{a | g(a) > x\}, \quad H = A_0 \cap \{a | h(a) < y\}.$$

As in part (i) of the preceding proof we conclude that G and H are measurable sets. If $\mu(G \cap H) = 0$, then

ess sup
$$[g|(G\backslash H)] = g^{0} > h^{0} = ess inf [h|(H\backslash G)].$$
 (5.4.50)

The first equality in (50) is obtained by noting that the essential supremum of g on A is the same as on $\frac{G}{2}$, since $\frac{g^{0}}{2} \times x$. This in turn is the same as on $G\setminus H$, since this just removes a null set, similarly for the last equality in (50). But (50) contradicts the preceding lemma, since $G\setminus H$ and $H\setminus G$ are disjoint.

If $\mu(G \cap H) > 0$, we can split $G \cap H$ into two pieces of positive measure, F_1 and F_2 , since μ is non-atomic on A_1 . But then

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ess sup
$$(g|F_1) \ge x > y \ge ess inf (h|F_2)$$

This again contradicts the preceding lemma, since F_1 and F_2 are disjoint. Hence n' $\neq 0$, and the offending set A_n must be an atom.

The exceptional case, where (46) fails for some A_n will be referred to as the case of the <u>anomalous atom</u>. Here is a trivial problem in which it arises. Let A consist of just one point: $A = \{a_0\}$, of measure <u>one</u>; let the payoff function for this point be f(x) = |x|; the bounds satisfy b < 0 < c. Because of the integral constraint (15) there is just one feasible - hence optimal - solution; namely $\delta(a) = 0$. The space consists of one atom, and one verifies easily that $g(a_0) = +1$, $h(a_0) = -1$, so (46) cannot be true for a_0 .

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The anomalous atom situation is related to, but not identical with, the well-known case in which there can be "increasing marginal returns" on (at most) one alternative project at the optimal allocation.⁵ This occurs in the example beginning this section, $(1)\frac{f}{N}(2)$, in which the second derivative is positive on point a_1 . But this latter situation involves "second-order" conditions, while the anomalous atom involves "first-order" conditions.

The number <u>p</u> of this lemma will turn out to behave much like a shadow price. In this connection it is desirable that it be finite. This is not guaranteed, and is not always

possible to find a finite p satisfying (46), but there are several simple conditions which imply that there is such a real number.

One such sufficient condition is that the anomalous atom case occur. For then the inequalities (49) let in daylight between $\sup g^n$ and $\inf h^n$ (both \sup and \inf over $n \neq n$), and allow us to pick a real number between them.

A second condition which insures that the p in (46) be finite is that

That is, there is a non-atomic set of positive measure on which S° is strictly below its upper bound, and a similar set on which S° is strictly above its lower bound. For, from their definitions, $g > -\infty$ on the set in (51), and $h < \infty$ on the set in (52). Hence

$$-\infty < g^{0} \leq p \leq h^{0} < \infty$$

and p is finite.

and

Let us now introduce a differentiability condition. We make the following convention. First, let $b(a) < \delta^{2}(a) < c(a)$ for a certain point $a \in A$. $f(a, \cdot)$ is said to be <u>differentiable</u> at the point $\delta^{2}(a)$ iff

12 plans hachets $\frac{\lim_{y \to 0} \left[f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a) + y) - f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) \right] / y}{y \to 0}$

(5-4-53)

(53)

exists. (This is the usual definition, except that the values + are possible. These occur with a vertical tangent at $\delta^{\circ}(a)$, $+\infty$ if f(a, \cdot) is increasing at $\delta^{\circ}(a)$, $-\infty$ if it is decreasing.) Next, if $\delta^{\circ}(a) = c(a)$ we say that $f(a, \cdot)$ is differentiable at $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ iff the limit (53) exists when y+0 through negative values, and this limit = $-\infty$. Finally, if $\delta^{\circ}(a) = b(a)$ we say that $f(a, \cdot)$ is differentiable at $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ iff the limit exists when y+0 through positive values, and this limit = $+\infty$. When f is differentiable the value of the limit in (53) is called the derivative, and denoted D $f(a, \delta^{o}(a))$.

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The next result seems sufficiently interesting to be labeled a theory.

Given measure space (A, Σ, μ) , μ sigma-finite, and Theorem: measurable functions f: $A \times$ reals \rightarrow reals, b, c: $A \rightarrow$ extended reals, with f(a, .) lower semi-continuous on the non-atomic part of A. Let δ° be unsurpassed for the problem of maximizing

 $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$

over measurable functions $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals which satisfy

 $\int_{\mathbf{A}} \delta_{\mathbf{A}} d\mathbf{\mu} = \mathbf{0}.$

G And

b
b
d<c

Let g, h: A + extended reals be defined as usual by $(16)\frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}$ In addition, let there be a set E of positive measure such that $f(a, \cdot)$ is differentiable at $\delta^{\circ}(a)$, for all $a \in E$. Then

 $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ is equal to a constant, p^o, almost every where on E, and

(i) p° is the unique number which satisfies

 $g(a) \leq p \leq h(a)$

almost everywhere.

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<u>Proof</u>: Let $\{\underline{A}_{0}, \underline{A}_{1}, \underline{A}_{2}, \ldots\}$ be a decomposition of A, with μ nonatomic on \underline{A}_{0} , and atomic on \underline{A}_{n} , $\underline{n} = 1, 2, \ldots$. Since $\mu(E) > 0$, $\mu(E \cap \underline{A}_{n}) > 0$ for at least one value of $\underline{n} = 0, 1, \ldots$.

First take the case when $\mu(E \cap A_n) > 0$ for some $n' \neq 0$. Then, for any $a \in A_n$, for which $\bigoplus f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ exists, we have

 $g(a) = D_{+}f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) = \oint f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) = h(a), \frac{(5.4.55)}{(55)}$

from the definitions of these functions. (If $\delta^{\circ}(a) = c(a)$, the common value in (55) is $-\infty$; if $\delta^{\circ}(a) = b(a)$, the common value is $+\infty$).

Now $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$, as a function of <u>a</u> with domain <u>E</u>, is measurable, since it is the limit of a sequence of measurable functions g_{Y_1} (given by (21)) (or <u>h</u> given by (22)) as $y_1 \neq 0$ through positive values. Also A_n , hence $E \cap A_n$, is an atom. Invoking the lemma (9), we find that $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ (hence g and <u>h</u> is equal to a constant, <u>p</u>, almost everywhere on $E \cap A_n$). It follows that

ess sup
$$(g|A_n) = ess inf (h|A_n) = p^{\circ}$$

Using the abbreviations $g^n = ess \sup_{\substack{(g|A_n), h^n = ess inf(h|A_n), h^n = ess inf(h|A_n), h^n = ess inf(h|A_n), it follows from (20) that, for all <math>n_1 \neq n'$, $n_2 \neq n'$, 158/ 144 n' 1004

$$n_1 \le h^{n'} = p_2^{o} = g^{a'} \le h^{2}$$
, (5.4.56)
(55.4.56)

so that

$$\sup g^n = p^\circ = \inf h^n$$
(5.4.57)
(5.7)

and (54) is true almost everywhere.

Next take the case when $\mu(E \cap A_0) > 0$. For any $a \in A_0$ for which Df(a, $\delta^{\circ}(a)$) exists we have

 $g(a) \ge Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) \ge h(a)$ (5.4.58) (5.9.58)

For, on A_0 , g is the supremum of the functions g_y , while Df is is their limit as $y \neq 0$; and h is the infimum of the functions h_y , while Df is again their limit as $y \neq 0$. It follows from (58) that $g^0 \ge h^0$. But from the preceding lemma (46), the opposite inequality is also true, so $g^0 = h^0$ (= p^0 , say). It then follows from (58) that Df(a, δ^0 (a)) = p^0 almost everywhere on A_0 .

Also, the same argument (56) establishes (57) again. Hence (57) is established in all cases for a unique number \underline{p}° , and (54) is true for this number. The arguments just given show that $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ is equal to this number \underline{p}° almost every \subseteq where on $E \cap A_n$ for all $n = 0, 1, \ldots$, hence almost everywhere

Note that the anomalous atom case cannot arise here. It is precluded by the condition of differentiability on a set of positive measure. This theorem yields a third simple sufficient condition for \underline{p}° to be finite, namely, that there be a set of positive measure on which $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ exists and is finite. For $Df(a, \delta^{\circ}(a)) = \underline{p}^{\circ}$ almost everywhere, and the condition just given insures that \underline{p}° is finite.

Finally, we want to show that p^2 acts as a shadow price that is, that $\delta^2(a)$ maximizes

(5, 4.59) **759)**

$$E(a,x) = p^{2}x$$

over all real x satisfying $b(a) \le x \le c(a)$, for almost all $a \in A$. Here (59) may be interpreted as giving the "payoff density" f(a,x) minus the "resource cost", p²x.

We make a special convention as to the meaning of "maximization" in case p° is infinite in (59). Namely, if $p^{\circ} = -\infty$, then "maximizing" is to mean taking x as large as possible, so that x = c(a) is the maximizer of (59) (if c(a)is finite). And if $p^{\circ} = +\infty$, then x must be taken as small as possible, so that, if b(a) is finite, then x = b(a) is the maximizer.

For finite p° , the condition that $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ maximize (59) will be recognized as the <u>sufficient</u> condition for optimality given by (3,2) of section 3, specialized to the particular feasibility conditions of the problem we are studying in this section.⁶

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This suggests the question: does (2) of section 3 still suffice for "bestness" if the p^o appearing in it is infinite, and we interpret "maximization" according to the convention just mentioned? The answer is yes, for any arbitrary feasibility conditions that include

$$\int_{A} \delta_{\eta} d\mu = 0$$
 (5.4.60)
(5.4.60)
(60)

Let us demonstrate this. The feasible set, M, consists of measurable functions $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals, all of which satisfy (60). The sufficient condition is that, for all δ ,

$$f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta^{\circ}(a) \ge f(a,\delta(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta(a)$$
 (5.4.61)

for almost all $a \in A$. Using our convention, if $p^{\circ} = +\infty$, (61) reduces to

$$\delta^{\circ}(a) \leq \delta(a)$$
, (62)

But (60) implies that

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$$\int_{A}^{2^{\circ}} (\delta - \delta^{\circ}) d\mu = 0$$
(6 + 63)
(6 + 63)

and this together with (62) means that $\delta = \delta^{\circ}$ almost everywhere. Hence δ° is best because the feasible set is trivial: <u>Apart</u> from null sets, δ° is the only feasible solution. Similarly, if $p^{\circ} = -\infty$, (61) reduces to (62) reversed, and the same argument applies. This completes the demonstration.

We are thus on the verge of establishing a necessary and sufficient condition for optimality. One consequence of this will be that "unsurpassed" and "best" solutions coincide for this problem. For, starting from an unsurpassed δ° we derive a condition which suffices for δ° to be best.

Now to establish the shadow price condition (59). For this we need an extra condition on the atoms of μ . The trouble is that g and h are defined on the atoms in such a way that they depend only on the immediate neighborhood of $\delta^{\circ}(a)$, whereas (59) asserts something about the entire range [b(a), c(a)]. The assumption of concavity will bridge the gap.

We define this abstractly. Let f be a real-valued function whose domain is a real interval [b,c] (Endpoints may or may not be included, and b = c is possible); f is said to be <u>concave</u> iff, for any numbers x, y in its domain, and any number t in the interval [0,1], we have

 $\int f(t)x + (1-t)y) \ge t f(x) + (1-t)f(y) = \int$

A concave function may be shown to be continuous, except possibly at the endpoints of its domain, where a "sudden" down? ward jump is possible. Thus a concave function (defined on an interval) is always <u>lower semi</u>-continuous. We also state without proof the following well-known facts about concave functions:

$$\underbrace{\frac{f(x+y_1) - f(x)}{y_1} \leq D_+ f(x) \leq D^- f(x) \leq \frac{f(x) - f(x-y_2)}{y_2}}_{(64)}$$

for any positive, real y_1 , y_2 and real x such that $x - y_2$, x, and $x + y_1$ are in the domain of f. (Our special conventions concerning D_+ and D^- insure that (64) holds even if x is an endpoint of the domain.)

Let us return to the problem in hand. In stating that $f(a, \cdot)$ is concave, we follow our standing convention of taking the domain of this function to be restricted to [b(a), c(a)], (b(a) to be included iff it is finite, and similarly for c(a). The following theorem may be taken to be the main result

of this section.

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<u>Theorem</u>: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite; let f: $A \times$ reals \rightarrow reals, b, c: $A \rightarrow$ extended reals be measurable; let f(a, \cdot) be lower semi-continuous on the non+ atomic part of A, and concave on the rest of A; let $\delta^{\textcircled{o}}$ be feasible for the problem of maximizing

$$\int f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$
(5.4.65) (5.4.65)

over measurable functions $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals which satisfy

 $\frac{b \le \delta \le c}{\int_{A}^{0} \delta_{\mu} = 0},$ (5.4.66) (6.4.67) (6.4.67) (67)

Then the following conditions are logically equivalent: $\delta^{(i)}$ δ° is unsurpassed for this problem; (ii) δ° is best for this problem; T (iii) there is an extended real number, p², and a null set E, such that $\delta^{2}(a)$ maximizes

$$(a,x) - p^{o}x$$
 (5.4.68)

over all real x in the closed interval [b(a), c(a)], for all $a \in A \setminus E$.

Proof: (iii) implies (ii) is already contained in the sufficiency (3.1) (3.3) (a.1) (3.3) (b) of section 3, plus the argument of (61) (63). (ii) implies (i) by definition. It remains to show that (i) implies (iii).

Let $\{\underline{A}, \underline{A}_1, \ldots\}$ be a decomposition, so that μ is nonatomic and follower semi-continuous on \underline{A}_{0}^{μ} , while μ is atomic and f concave on each \underline{A}_{n} , $\underline{h} \neq 0$.

(29M)

First we show that concavity precludes the occurrence of an anomalous atom in (46). Choose any atom A. First of all, <u>This follows from the fact that</u>, by concavity, $g|A_n$ is measurable; (g is given by (16), (18)). g_y (a) given by (21) is non-increasing in y, for fixed $a \in A_n$. Hence the lower right derivate $D_+f(a,\delta^2(a))$, which is g(a), is the limit of any sequence $g_{y_i}(a)$, y_i going to zero through positive values. $g|A_n$ is thus the limit of a sequence of measurable functions $g_{y_i}|A_n$, and so is itself measurable. A similar argument establishes the measurability of $h|A_n$ (h is given by (17)) (19)).

The lemma (9) then implies that g and h are constant almost everywhere on A_n . These constants must equal g_n^n , the essential supremum of $g|A_n$, and h^n , the essential infimum of $h|A_n$.

There is a point $a \in A_n$ such that $g(a) = g_n^n$ and $h(a) = h_n^n$, since these relations hold almost everywhere on A_n , and $\mu(A_n) > 0$. But g(a) and h(a) equal $D_{+}f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$ and $D_{-}f(a, \delta^{\circ}(a))$, the spectively. (64), middle, then implies that $g_n^n \leq h^n$.

This true for every n = 1, 2, ... We also have $g^{0} \le h^{0}$ from (46), and $g^{n} \le h^{n}$ for all $n_{1} \ne n_{2}$, from (20). Hence sup $g^{m} \le \inf h^{n}$ (both taken over all m, n = 0, 1...), and (46) is true almost everywhere. There is no anomalous atom.

Thus there is an extended real number, p°, such that

 $g(a) \leq p^{\circ} \leq h(a)$

(5.4.69)

for almost all $\underline{a} \in \underline{A}$. We now show that this \underline{p}^2 satisfies the condition (<u>iii</u>) almost everywhere.

qa'

9 First suppose $p^{\circ} = -\infty \cdot f$ Then $g = -\infty$ almost everywhere, from (69). Let $g(a) = -\infty$ for some $a \in A \land A_{\Theta}$. $f(a, \cdot)$ is then concave, and it follows that there cannot be any positive y_1 satisfying (64), left. That is, $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ is at the upper limit: $\delta^{\circ}(a) = c(a)$. If $g(a) = -\infty$ for some a in the non-atomic part A_{Θ} , then it follows from the definition of g, (16), that $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ is again at the upper limit. Thus $\delta^{\circ} = c$ almost everywhere. But, by our convention for p° infinite, this is precisely the condition that δ° maximize (68) for $p^{\circ} = -\infty$, almost everywhere. Hence (iii) is established in this case. Next, suppose $p^{\circ} = +\infty$. Then $h = +\infty$ almost everywhere. An argument similar to the one just given shows that $\delta^{\circ} = b$ almost everywhere, which is the condition for (111) to be satisfied when $p^{\circ} = +\infty$.

It remains to establish (iii) when p^2 is finite. In this case, the condition that $S^2(a)$ maximize (68) is equivalent to the following double inequality:

 $\frac{f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a) + y_{1}) - f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a))}{y_{1}} \leq \underline{p}^{\circ} \leq \frac{f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a)) - f(a,\delta^{\circ}(a) - y_{2})}{y_{2}} (5,4,70)$

which must hold for all positive y_1 such that $\delta^{\circ}(a) \neq y_1 \leq c(a)$, and for all positive y_2 such that $\delta^{\circ}(a) - y_2 \geq b(a)$. We now show that (69) implies (70). If $a \in A \setminus A_0$, then $f(a, \cdot)$ is conf cave, and the implication follows at once from (64).

Finally, let $a \in A_{0}$; g(a) is defined by (16) as the supremum of the left terms in (70), as y_{1} varies over the open interval (0, $c(a) - \delta^{\circ}(a)$). Similarly, h(a) is, by (17), the infimum of the right terms in (70), as y_{2} ranges over $(0, \delta^{\circ}(a) - b(a))$. (69) then implies that (70) holds for all interior points of [b(a), c(a)]. But it must then hold for the endpoints as well, because $f(a, \cdot)$, being lower semicontinuous, makes no sudden upward jump at b(a) or c(a). This establishes the implication in general.

Since (69) holds for almost all $a \in A$, so does (70). This completes the proof that condition (i) implies condition (111).

Thus, under the special assumptions made concerning \underline{f} , a necessary and sufficient condition that feasible δ ° be un surpassed, or best, for the problem of maximizing (65) subject to (66) and (67), is that there exist a "shadow price", p°, unter under which (except for a null set), for each "project" $a \in A$ separately, $\delta^2(a)$ is chosen to maximize the "payoff" $\underline{f}(a,x)$, net of the "resource cost" p°x.

This result is important. First of all, it suggests an efficient method for finding an optimal solution (if there is one). Namely, choose an arbitrary number p, and, for each $a \in A$, choose $\delta^{2}(a)$ to maximize f(a,x) - px over the feasible interval [b(a), c(a)], disregarding the total resource constraint (67). If, by chance, (67) is satisfied by this process, we have found an optimal solution. If not, adjust p to a new value, p', and try again.

How should p be adjusted? It is easily seen from (68) that the maximizing value of x is a non-increasing function of p. (We are implicitly assuming, for simplicity, that there is a unique maximizer of (68) for each p and $a \in A$). Hence, if total resource availability is exceeded by the trial solution, raise the tentative shadow price, p, and lower it in the opposite case. This simple monotonic relation between p and total resource demand makes it easy to "zero in" on the proper p (again, assuming that there is an optimal solution). The necessity of the shadow price condition also guarantees that we will not overlook the optimal solution by this procedure. Furthermore, the shadow price condition suggests institutional arrangements for arriving at an optimal solution. For example, if one overall organization is responsible for this allocation, separate divisions might be responsible for separate subsets of pojects $a \in A$. The "head office" might dictate the tentative shadow price to the divisions, note the consequent resource demand, adjust the price accordingly, etc. Going a step further, the free market itself is an institutional mechanism for carrying out the price-adjustment process discussed above.

Two special cases in which the results of the preceding theorem are valid may be noted. The first is when μ is nonatomic (as well as sigma-finite), and $f(a, \cdot)$ is lower semicontinuous for all $a \in A$. The second is when $f(a, \cdot)$ is concave for all $a \in A$ (with no assumptions on μ other than sigmafiniteness). The validity of the first case is obvious: Since μ has no atomic part, no concavity assumption is needed. The validity of the second follows from the fact that a concave function is lower semi-continuous, so that if $f(a, \cdot)$ is concave everywhere, the premises of the theorem are certainly fulfilled.

Finally, we recall that the condition (67) is much less narrow than it appears. We can in fact formulate an apparently much more general theorem, which falls out as an immediate corollary.

Theorem: Let all the premises of the preceding theorem be fulfilled, except that the frasibility condition (67) is replaced by $L_0 \leq \int_{\underline{A}} \delta_{\Lambda} d\mu \leq \underline{L}^{\circ}$.

(Here \underline{L}_{0} and \underline{L}^{0} are two extended real numbers. $\int_{\underline{A}} \delta_{\underline{A}} d\mu$ is still required to be finite, however). Then the following are equivalent:

18 (i) | 8° is unsurpassed for this problem;

(ii) δ° is best for this problem;

T

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(iii) there is an extended real number, p° , and a null set E, such that $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ maximizes

over all real x in the closed interval [b(a), c(a)], for all $a \in A \setminus E$. Furthermore, if $\int_{A}^{\infty} \delta \cdot d\mu > L_{0}^{\infty}$, then $p^{\circ} \ge 0$; and if $\int_{A}^{\delta} \delta \cdot d\mu < L^{\circ}$, then $p^{\circ} \le 0$.

Proof: (ii) implies (i) by definition, and (iii) implies (ii) by a sufficiency theorem already given (cf. (5) + (6) of section 3). To show that (i) implies (iii) we add a point z_0 to A and transform this problem into one of the preceding type by the recipe given above in section 2.

The singleton set $\{z_0\}$ is an atom, since $\mu'\{z_0\} = 1 > 0$. $f(z_0, \cdot)$ is identically zero, and this is a concave function, so the premises are fulfilled on A' = A U $\{z_0\}$. By the preceding theorem, there exists a number, p^2 , such that $\delta^{2'}(a')$ maximizes (71), for almost all $a' \in A'$. In particular, it must maximize (71) for $a' = z_0$, since $\mu\{z_0\} > 0$. Since $f(z_0, \cdot)$ is identically zero, (71) reduces to:

-pex.

Now, if $p^{\circ} > 0$, then the maximizer of (72) is as small as possible: $\delta^{\circ'}(z_0) = b^{\circ}(z_0)$. But, recalling the translation recipe, (2) of section 2, this is simply:

 $-\int_{A} \delta^{0} d\mu = -I^{0}$. (5.4.73)

(5.4.72)

(72)

Similarly, if $p^{\circ} < 0$, then we must have $\delta_{\circ}^{\circ}(z_{0}) = c'(z_{0})$, which is to say, by $(2)^{\circ} \circ f$ section f°_{2} again, $19^{\circ} \circ f = 5$ (5.4.74) $-\int_{A} \delta_{\circ}^{\circ} d\mu = -L_{0}^{\circ}$ (5.4.74)

(73) and (74) give the two extra conditions on p°. Hf 170

Thus, if δ° is optimal for this more general problem, we get a shadow price condition of the same type as above, with an extra sign condition on p° , depending on where $\begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ f_A \end{pmatrix} \delta^{\circ} d\mu$ is located in the interval $[L_0, L^{\circ}]$. The economic interpretation of these sign conditions is the same as in section 3.

5.5. Existence of Feasible Solutions

Up to now we have been examining conditions which imply, or are implied by, the fact that a given feasible solution δ^2 is optimal. We now take up a different task, that of proving that an optimal solution exists for a given problem. First, we start with the simpler task (simpler, that is, for a given problem) of proving that at least one feasible solution exists. Even this is by no means trivial for the problem with which we have been dealing, characterized by constraints $\begin{pmatrix} 4,66 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 4,67 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$ of the preceding section.

Theorem: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite; let b, c:A \rightarrow extended reals be measurable functions. The following conditions are logically equivalent: 54 243

 $\int_{\mathbf{A}}^{20} \int_{\mathbf{A}} \delta_{\mathbf{A}} d\mathbf{\mu} = 0$

(i) There exists a measurable function $\delta: \underline{A} \rightarrow reals$ such that

and

(5.5.2)

(5.5.1)

(iii) $b \leq c, b < \infty, c > -\infty, and$ $15 \int_{A}^{20} & 90 \leq \int_{A}^{20} c_A du. \qquad (5.5.3)$ (5.5.3)

<u>Proof</u>: That (i) implies (ii) is obvious. Conversely, assume (ii). First, because μ is sigma-finite, there exists a positive measurable function k:A \rightarrow reals such that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{10^{4}} \frac{1}{\underline{A}} \frac{$$

5.5.4)

If $\mu = 0$, take k = 1 everywhere. Otherwise, let $\{G_1, G_2, \ldots\}$ be a countable measurable partition with $\infty > \mu(G_n) > 0$ for all n. On G_n let k be equal to the constant $1/[2^n\mu(G_n)]$. This function fulfils the stated conditions.

Next, define the <u>median function</u>, <u>m</u>, as the one which picks the middle in size order of three extended real numbers; thus $m(3, -2, \infty) = 3$, $m(-\infty, \infty, 17) = 17$, etc.

Next, for each real number x, define the function $m_x: A \rightarrow$ extended reals by

$$m_{x}(a) = m(b(a), c(a), xk(a)).$$

Because $b \leq c$, one finds that

 $m_{\underline{x}} = \max[b, \min(c, \underline{xk})] = \min[\max(b, \underline{xk}), c].$ (5.5.5)

 m_x is thus measurable, and also real-valued, since b(a) and c(a) are never both infinite of the same sign. We now show that, if $\frac{2^{\circ}}{10}$ $\frac{79}{10}$ $\frac{2^{\circ}}{10}$ $\frac{2^{\circ}}{10}$ $\frac{5.5.6}{10}$

$$\int_{\underline{A}} \tilde{p} d\mu < 0 < \int_{\underline{A}} c d\mu$$

then $\underline{m}_{\underline{x}}$ will be a feasible solution for (1) and (2), for some real number \underline{x} . (If (6) is false, then either $\int_{\underline{A}} \underline{b} d\mu = 0$, or $\int_{\underline{A}} \underline{c} d\mu = 0$.

(If (6) is false, then either $|f_{\underline{A}}| \stackrel{b}{=} d\mu = 0$, or $|f_{\underline{A}}| \stackrel{c}{=} d\mu = 0$. In either case we get an immediate feasible solution. In the first case, for example, set $\delta(a) = b(a)$ whenever $b(a) > -\infty$; and, on the null set where $b = -\infty$, choose $\delta = \min[c, 0]$. Hence finding a feasible solution in case (6) will prove the theorem). First of all, by (5), $b \le m_x \le c$.

Next we show that $\int_{A}^{12} m_{x^{A}} d\mu$ exists and is finite for all real x. We have

 $-(c^{-} + |xk|) \leq \min(c, xk) \leq m_x \leq \max(b, xk) \leq b^{+} + |xk|$

49 $\int_{A}^{15} (c^{-} + |xk|)_{d\mu} > -\infty$, and $\int_{A}^{15} (b^{+} + |xk|)_{d\mu} < \infty$

because of (3) and (4), which shows that $\int_A m_X d\mu$ is finite. Next we show that $\int_A m_X d\mu$, as a function of $x_{1/2}$ is continuous. Let x_1, x_2, \dots be a sequence, either increasing or decreasing, whose limit is the real number x. By the monotone convergence theorem we have

16-2 proving continuity.

If x_1, x_2, \dots is a sequence increasing to $+\infty$, then m_x increases to c, so

$$\sum_{\mu=1}^{23} \sum_{\mu=1}^{20} \frac{1}{20} \frac{1}{100} = \int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{1}{100} \sum_{\mu=1}^{20} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100} = \int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{1}{100} \sum_{\mu=1}^{20} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100} = \int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{1}{100} \sum_{\mu=1}^{20} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{10$$

If x_1, x_2, \ldots is a sequence decreasing to $-\infty$, then m_x decreases to b, so

$$\int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{2^{3}}{\sum_{\mathbf{A}}} \int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{m_{\mathbf{X}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{A}}} \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} = \int_{\mathbf{A}} \frac{b}{b} d\mu < 0,$$

(Both these results are again by monotone convergence. The inequalities are from (6).) Hence for sufficiently large real x, $\int_{A}^{1} m_{x} d\mu$ is positive; and for sufficiently small real x, it is negative. Since it is continuous, there must then be an x-value for which, 234

$$A_{\mathbf{x}} d\mu = 0$$
, and this $m_{\mathbf{x}}$ is feasible. Hence (ii)/implies
(i). $\mu = 0$

As usual, this theorem has an immediate generalization: As usual, this theorem has an immediate generalization: Theorem: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite, let b,c:A \rightarrow extended reals be measurable, and let L₀, L² be two extended real numbers. The following are equivalent: 393(i) There exists a measurable function $S:A \rightarrow$ reals, such that

$$\frac{\delta}{A} = \frac{\delta}{A} = \frac{\delta}$$

This is an easy corollary of the preceding theorem, by the now familiar procedure of transforming this problem into one for which (2) holds. We leave the details as an exercise.

5.6. Existence of Optimal Solutions

We now come to the much more difficult problem of proving the existence of optimal solutions. A number of assumptions will be made which are more resprictive than those made up to now. In particular, the bounding functions, <u>b</u> and <u>c</u>, will have <u>finite</u> integrals, and the payoff functions $f(a, \cdot)$ will be <u>continuous</u> (as usual, this refers to the interval [b(a), c(a)]). Even so, much work is involved.

We shall first prove existence under the assumption that μ is non+atomic. The basic procedure is to find functions satisfying the sufficient condition for optimality, and then show that one of these is feasible. Next we go to the opposite case where μ is sigma-atomic, using an entirely different procedure. Finally, we combine these results to prove existence under general (sigma-finite) μ .

Standard ordering of pseudomeasures is still used for ordering utilities, and existence is proved for best solutions.

<u>Theorem</u>: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite and <u>non+atomic</u>; let b,c:A + reals, and f:A × reals + reals, be measurable; let f(a,.) be continuous for all a \in A. Assume

$$b \leq c, \text{ and let } \underline{L} \text{ be a real number such that}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} (5, (b, 1)) \\ -\infty \leq \int_{A}^{2} b_{1} d_{2} \leq \underline{L} \leq \int_{A}^{2} c_{1} d_{2} < \infty \qquad (5, (b, 1)) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$$
Then the problem! Maximize
$$\int \underline{f}(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$
over measurable functions $\delta: A + \text{ reals}, \text{ subject to}$

$$b \leq \delta \leq c_{4} \qquad (5, (b, 2)) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$$
and to
$$b \leq \delta \leq c_{4} \qquad (5, (b, 2)) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$$
has a best solution.
$$f(a, x) = b$$

$$f(a, x) = b$$
for each $\underline{a} \in A$, and each extended real number \underline{p} , let
$$= a_{1}p$$
be the set of real numbers \underline{x} which maximize the expression
$$f(a, x) = b$$
for each interval $[b(a), c(a)]$. By our convention concerning infinite \underline{p} -values, we have $\underline{E}_{\underline{a}, p} = (b(a))$, and
$$= a_{1} - (c(a))$$
Since (4) is continuous in \underline{x} (for finite \underline{p}), and the maximization is over a closed bounded interval, the sets $\underline{E}_{\underline{a},p}$ are in all cases non-sempty, closed and bounded.
Hence they themselves have a minimum value and a maximum value for all $(\underline{a}, \underline{p})$. Define the functions $\beta, \gamma: A \times$ extended reals +

reals by

$$\beta(a,p) = \min E_{a,p}$$

5.6.5)

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Let $\infty < p_1 < p_2 < \infty$. We have the following chain of relations:

$$f(a) = \gamma(a, -\infty) = \beta(a, -\infty) \ge \gamma(a, p_1) \ge \beta(a, p_1)$$

$$f(a, p_2) \ge \beta(a, p_2) \ge \gamma(a, \infty) = \beta(a, \infty) = b(a)$$

The equalities in (6) follow from $E_{a,\infty} = \{b(a)\}$, $E_{a,-\infty} = \{c(a)\}$. The middle inequality in (6) is the only one that needs proving. In fact, from the definition of $E_{a,p}$ we have

 $f(a,\beta(a,p_1)) - p_1\beta(a,p_1) \ge f(a,\gamma(a,p_2)) - p_1\gamma(a,p_2),$ and

$$f(a, \gamma(a, p_2)) - p_2 \gamma(a, p_2) \ge f(a, \beta(a, p_1)) - p_2 \beta(a, p_1)$$

Adding these two inequalities and simplifying, we get $\beta(a,p_1) \ge \gamma(a,p_2)$. This establishes (6). Thus, for fixed $a \in A$, $\beta(a, \cdot)$ and $\gamma(a, \cdot)$ are non-increasing functions.

Next, we show that $\gamma(a, \cdot)$ is <u>continuous from the left</u>; that is, if p_1 , p_2 ,... is an <u>increasing</u> sequence whose limit is p_0 (possibly $+\infty$), then the limit of $\gamma(a, p_n)$ is $\gamma(a, p_0)$. First let p_0 be finite. The sequence $y_n = \gamma(a, p_n)$ is nonincreasing, hence it has a limit $y_0 \ge \gamma(a, p_0)$. We must show that this is an equality; and to do this it suffices to prove that y_0 maximizes (4), since $\gamma(a, p_0)$ is the largest number that

which does so. No.

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Now (4) is jointly continuous in x and p ($a \in A$ is fixed), hence

$$\frac{24}{\lim_{n \to \infty} [f(a, y_n) - p_n y_n]} = f(a, y_0) - p_0 y_0$$
(5.6.7)
(7)

For any $x \in [b(a), c(a)]$ we have $f(a, y_n) - p_n y_n \ge f(a, x) - p_n x$, since y_n maximizes h. Hence, by (7),

$$f(a, y_0) - p_0 y_0 \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} [f(a, x) - p_n x] = f(a, x) - p_0 x_0$$

Thus y_0 maximizes (4) for $p = p_0$, so $\gamma(a,p)$ is continuous from the left for any finite p.

Next let $p_0 = +\infty$. Since $f(a, \cdot)$ is continuous on the closed bounded interval [b(a), c(a)], it has a finite upper bound, N. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, choose p finite, and greater than $[N - f(a, b(a))]/\varepsilon$. Then for any $c(a) \ge x \ge b(a) + \varepsilon$, we have

 $p[x - b(a)] \ge p\varepsilon > N - f(a,b(a)) \ge f(a,x) - f(a,b(a))$

so that

Inequality

f(a,b(a)) - pb(a) > f(a,x) - px (5.6.8)

(8) shows that no such x can maximize (4), hence $\gamma(a,p) < b(a) + \varepsilon$. Thus if p_1, p_2, \ldots increases without bound, $\gamma(a, p_n)$ approaches $b(a) = \gamma(a, \infty)$. This proves that $\gamma(a, \cdot)$ is continuous from the left. A similar argument shows that $\beta(a, \cdot)$ is continuous from the right.

Next, we show that, for fixed p, $\gamma(a,p)$ is a <u>measurable</u> function of <u>a</u>. We split <u>A</u> into two measurable pieces and consider each separately. On the set $\{a \mid b(a) = c(a)\}, \gamma(\cdot,p) =$ b = c for any p, and so is measurable.

New consider the complementary set $E = \{a \mid b(a) < c(a)\}$. To show that $\gamma(\cdot, p)$ is measurable, it suffices to show that the sets $E \cap \{a \mid \gamma(a, p) < y\}$ are all measurable as y ranges over the <u>rational</u> numbers. Now, for fixed a, p, (4) is a continuous, hence lower semi-continuous, function of x. Hence its supremum on any interval [b,c] (with or without the endpoints, and b < c) equals its supremum over the <u>rational</u> numbers on $(A \in C) = (A \cap C) = (A \cap C)$ (with or without the endpoints, that interval, One then verifies that, for any rational y,

$$E \cap \{a | \gamma(a,p) < y\} =$$

$$E \cap \{a | \gamma(a,p) < y\} =$$

$$E \cap \{a | \sup\{f(a,x) - px | x \text{ rational}, x < y\}$$

$$F \cap \{a | y = y | x \text{ rational}, x < y\}$$

$$F \cap \{a | y = y | x \text{ rational}, x < y\}$$

$$F \cap \{a | y = y | x \text{ rational}, x < y\}$$

$$F \cap \{a | y = y | x \text{ rational}, x < y\}$$

In (9) <u>a</u> and <u>p</u> are held fixed, and the two sups are taken over x as indicated. For this formula only, we define f(a,x)to be - ∞ if x is not in the closed interval [b(a), c(a)]; and we note that, for fixed x, the function $f(\cdot,x)$ thus defined is measurable. In verifying (9) there are five cases to consider, depending on whether y is in the interval [b(a), c(a)], at an endpoint, or on either side of it. Note that this interval is non-degenerate for $a \in E$, hence always contains a rational point. We omit details. Since the rational numbers are countable, the two sups in (9) are over a countable number of measurable functions, hence, are themselves measurable functions of <u>a</u> on <u>E</u> (p,y fixed). Hence the right side of (9) is a measurable set. This proves $\gamma(\cdot,p)$ is measurable. A similar argument proves that $\beta(\cdot,p)$ is measurable.

Next, consider the integral $\int_{A}^{b} \gamma(a,p)\mu(da)$ as a function of p. For any $-\infty \leq p \leq \infty$ this is well-defined, and in fact finite, by (6) and (1). It is also non-increasing in p, since $\gamma(a,p)$ is non-increasing for each $a \in A$. Using the monotone convergence theorem, it follows from the left-continuity of $\gamma(a, \cdot)$ that $\int_{A}^{b} \gamma(a, \cdot)\mu(da)$ is also left-continuous. (Take a sequence p_1 , p_2 ,... increasing $tp p_0$; then $\gamma(a, p_n) + \gamma(a, p_0)$ by left-continuity; monotone convergence then yields $\int_{A}^{b} \gamma(a, p_n)\mu(da) + \int_{A}^{b} \gamma(a, p_0)\mu(da)$.) A similar argument shows that $\int_{A}^{b} \beta(a, \cdot)\mu(da)$ is finite, non-increasing, and right-continuous.

We are now ready to construct the optimal solution. Let

 $p^{\circ} = \sup_{A} \left\{ p \mid \int_{A} \gamma(a, p) \mu(da) \geq L \right\}, \qquad (5.6.10)$ $36 \mid 5 \quad \gamma(a, \cdot) \mu(da) \text{ is continuous from the left, it}$ follows that $15 \quad \left| \int_{A} \gamma(a, p^{\circ}) \mu(da) \geq L, \qquad (5.6.10) \quad (5.6.10) \quad$

if $\underline{p}^{\circ} > -\infty$. (11) is also true if $\underline{p}^{\circ} = -\infty$, by (6) and (1). Mext, we show that

$$\int_{A} \beta(a,p^{\circ}) \mu(da) \leq L_{\bullet}$$

If $\underline{p}^{\circ} = +\infty$, then (12) follows from (6) and (1). If $\underline{p}^{\circ} < \infty$, then, for every $p > p^{\circ}$ we have

$$\int_{\underline{A}}^{20} \beta(\underline{a},\underline{p}),\mu(\underline{d}\underline{a}) \leq \int_{\underline{A}}^{20} \gamma(\underline{a},\underline{p}),\mu(\underline{d}\underline{a}) \leq L,$$

from (10). (12) then follows from the right-continuity of $\int_{A} \beta(a, \cdot) \mu(da)$.

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This p° turns out to be the shadow price of the optimal solution.

Now consider the indefinite integral

$$\int [\gamma(a,p^{\circ}) - \beta(a,p^{\circ})] \mu(da) , \qquad (5.6.13)$$

5.6.12) (12)

This is finite. Also, since μ is non-atomic, (13) is a nonatomic measure. Hence it takes on every value between 0 and its value on A, inclusive of these bounds. Now

 $\frac{18^{1}}{L} - \int_{A}^{20} \beta(a,p^{\circ})\mu(da) \qquad (5.6.14) \qquad (14)$

lies between these bounds, from (11) and (12). Hence there is a measurable set F such that (14) equals the value of (13) at F. This yields

$$\int_{F} \gamma(a, p^{o}) \mu(da) + \int_{A \setminus F} \beta(a, p^{o}) \mu(da) = L.$$
(5.6.15)
(5.6.15)

We now claim that the function $\delta^{\circ}:A \rightarrow \text{reals which coincides}$ with $\gamma(\cdot,p^{\circ})$ on F, and with $\beta(\cdot, p^{\circ})$ on A F, is best. For, it is measurable and satisfies (2), since both $\gamma(\cdot,p^{\circ})$ and $\beta(\cdot, p^{\circ})$ satisfy these conditions. Also it satisfies (3), by (15). Hence δ° is feasible. Also it satisfies the sufficient condition for "bestness", since both $\gamma(a,p^{\circ})$ and $\beta(a,p^{\circ})$ maximize (4) for $p = p^{\circ}$.

We now remove the condition that μ is non-atomic. In its place, however, we are obliged to add a further condition on f, namely that $|f(a,x)| \leq \theta(a)$, where θ is some function with a finite integral. One consequence of this new condition may be noted: It guarantees that the utility function is a finite signed measure for all feasible δ . Hence standard ordering of pseudomeasures reduces to the ordinary comparison of definite integrals, and the distinction between "best" and "unsurpassed" disappears. To emphasize this point, we shall write the utility functions in the following theorem and proof in the form of <u>definite</u> integrals.

<u>Theorem</u>: Let $(\underline{A}, \Sigma, \mu)$ be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite; let b,c:A + reals, and f:A × reals + reals, be measurable; let f(a,) be continuous for all a $\in A$. Assume b \leq c, and

$$-\infty < \int_{\underline{A}} \underline{b}_{A} d\mu \leq 0 \leq \int_{\underline{A}}^{20} c_{A} d\mu < \infty.$$
 (5.6.16)
(16)

Also assume there is a measurable function $\theta:A \rightarrow$ reals such that $\int_{A} |\dot{\beta}_{A} d\mu$ is finite, and

$$|f(a,x)| \leq \theta(a),$$
 (17)

for all $x \in [b(a), c(a)]$, $a \in A$. Then the problem, Maximize

(165

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$$\int_{A}^{20} f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$
(5.6.18)
(18)

over measurable functions $\delta: A \rightarrow$ reals, subject to

$$b \leq \delta \leq c \qquad (5.6.19)$$

$$(19)$$

$$\int_{\underline{A}} \delta_{\underline{A}} d\mu = 0 \qquad (20)$$

and to

θ

has best solution.

Proof: This proof is divided into two parts. In the first, we assume that μ is sigma-atomic; that is, there is a countable measurable partition $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots\}$ such that μ restricted to each A_n is atomic. Since μ is also sigma-finite, it must be bounded on each A_n .

First we show that total utility depends only on how mass is distributed <u>among</u> the atoms, and, given this, is independent of how mass is distributed <u>within</u> the atoms. That is, suppose δ_1 and δ_2 are two densities such that

$$\int_{A_{n}} \delta_{1} d\mu = \int_{A_{n}} \delta_{2} d\mu = \lambda_{n}$$
(5.6.21)
(21)

say, for all
$$\underline{n} = 1, 2, ...$$
 Then
 $\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & &$

To show this, we invoke the lemma, (9) of the preceding section, stating that δ_1 and δ_2 must each be equal to constants almost everywhere on any atom: say $\delta_1 = \frac{d_{1n}}{d_{1n}}, \delta_2 = \frac{d_{2n}}{d_{2n}}$ on A_n almost everywhere. From (21) we obtain $d_{1n}\mu(A_n) = (d_{2n}\mu(A_n) = \lambda_n$ which means that $d_{1n} = d_{2n}$ for all n. Hence $\delta_1 = \delta_2$ almost everywhere, so that (22) is of course correct. Thus utility depends only on the sequence $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots)$, and is in fact given by

$$g_1(\lambda_1) + g_2(\lambda_2) + \dots$$

(5.6.23)

5.6.24

(23)

where

$$g_n(\lambda_n) = \int_{A_n} f(a, \lambda_n/\mu(A_n)) \mu(da)$$

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This reduces the problem to two simpler issues. First, for what sequences $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots)$ are there feasible densities δ such that (21) is satisfied for all n = 1, 2,...? Second, among these feasible sequences is there one that maximizes (23)?

The first question is easily answered. Integrating the constraint (19) over A_n , we obtain
for all n, where
$$b_n = \int_{A_n}^{b_n} \frac{d_n}{d_n} \frac{d$$

 $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots = 0$

(5.6.25)

(26)

(25) and (26) give necessary conditions for any feasible sequence $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...)$. Conversely, they are also sufficient for there to exist a feasible δ yielding this sequence. For if (25) is satisfied, one easily sees that some weighted average $\underline{t}_{\underline{n}\underline{b}} + (1-\underline{t}_{\underline{n}})\underline{c} = \delta$ with satisfy (21) for <u>n</u>. The δ thus constructed automatically satisfies (19), and satisfies (20) because of (26).

We have thus reduced the problem to one with a countable number of unknowns: Maximize (23) over real sequences $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2,...)$ satisfying (25) and (26).

Let $\lambda^{\underline{k}} = (\lambda_{\underline{1}}^{\underline{k}}, \lambda_{\underline{2}}^{\underline{k}}, \ldots), \underline{k} = 1, 2, \ldots$, be a sequence of these feasible sequences, such that the value of (23) approaches its supremum as $k \rightarrow \infty$. We first give a standard argument to show that there is a subsequence $\lambda^{\underline{k_1}}, \lambda^{\underline{k_2}}, \ldots$, such that, for all $\underline{n} = 1, 2, \ldots$, the sequence $\lambda_{\underline{n}}^{\underline{k_1}}, \lambda_{\underline{n}}^{\underline{k_2}}, \ldots$ has a limit $\lambda_{\underline{n}}^{\underline{\circ}}$.

First, the sequence λ_1^1 , λ_1^2 ,... is all contained in the closed, bounded interval $[b_1, c_1]$. Hence there is a con \mathfrak{t} vergent subsequence. By the same argument, there is a sub \mathfrak{t} sequence of this subsequence such that the λ_2 values converge.

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Continuing, we get a sequence of sequences, each a subsequence of its predection, the n+th subsequence having convergent λ_n values. Finally, one takes the "diagonal": the q+th term of the q+th subsequence. This yields a subsequence converging for all n = 1, 2,... ()

We now show that the resulting limiting sequence $(\lambda_1^{\circ}, \lambda_2^{\circ}, \ldots)$ is optimal. First we prove feasibility. (25) is satisfied by λ_n° , since it is the limit of a sequence in that interval $[b_n, c_n]$. Next, we must show that

$$\lambda_{1}^{\circ} + \lambda_{2}^{\circ} + \dots = 0.$$

Let λ^{k_1} , λ^{k_2} ,... be the subsequence converging to $\lambda^{k_2} = (\lambda^{k_1}, \lambda^{k_2}, \ldots)$. Think of

 $\lambda_1^{\mathbf{k_1}} + \chi_2^{\mathbf{k_1}} + \dots$

as the integral of a function $\lambda^{k_1}: \{1, 2, ...\} \rightarrow \text{reals}$, all subsets of the positive integers being measurable, and having the enumeration measure: $v\{n\} = 1$ for all n = 1, 2, ... We also have, for all 1 and all n,

 $\left| \lambda_{n}^{k_{1}} \right| \leq \left| b_{n} \right| + \left| c_{n} \right|_{2}$

by (25); and the sum over all <u>n</u> of $|\underline{b_n}| + |\underline{c_n}|$ is finite, by (16). Hence we may invoke the dominated convergence theorem, and assert that the limit of the sums in (28) as $\underline{k_i} \rightarrow \infty$ is the sum of the limits. But all sums in (28) equal zero, by (26).

(5.6.27)

Hence (27) is true. This proves that λ° is feasible.

It remains to show that $(\lambda_1^{\circ}, \lambda_2^{\circ}, ...)$ maximizes (23) over the set of feasible sequences, $(25)\frac{1}{N}(26)$. First we show that the function g_n given by (24), over the domain (25), is <u>continuous</u>. Let $\lambda^1, \lambda^2, ...$ be a sequence of numbers with limit λ , all satisfying (25). Since $f(a, \cdot)$ is continuous,

 $\lim_{k \to \infty} f(a, \lambda^k/\mu(A_n)) = f(a, \lambda/\mu(A_n)),$

for all $a \in A_n$. Also $|f(a, \lambda^k/\mu(A_n))| \leq \theta(a)$, and

 $\left[\begin{array}{c} 6 \end{array}\right] \int_{A} \theta_{n} d\mu = \theta_{n} < \infty$

by (17). Hence we may invoke the dominated convergence theorem again, and assert that

Hence g_n is continuous for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Next, for each i think of the sum

$$g_1(\lambda_1^{k_1}) + g_2(\lambda_2^{k_1}) + \dots$$
 (5.6.30)
(30)

(5,6,29) (29)

as the integral of a function with domain {1, 2,...}, the measure on this space being the enumeration measure, as in (28). We have, for all i and all n, $g_n(\lambda_n^{k_1}) \leq \theta_n$, from (24) and (29). Also,

$$\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \dots = \int_A \theta_A d\mu < \infty$$

Hence we may invoke dominated convergence yet a third time, and assert that the limit of the sums in (30) as $k_1 \not\sim \infty$ is the sum of the limits. Now $\lambda_n^{\underline{k_1}} \rightarrow \lambda_n^{\underline{o}}$ for all n, as $k_1 \not\sim \infty$. By the continuity of g_n it follows that

 $[59] \frac{\lim_{k_{i} \to \infty} g_{n}(\lambda_{n})}{\lim_{k_{i} \to \infty} g_{n}(\lambda_{n})} = g_{n}(\lambda_{n}),$

for all n = 1, 2,... Hence the limit of the sums in (30) is $g_1(\lambda_1^o) + g_2(\lambda_2^o) + \dots + g_2(\lambda_2^o) + \dots$

But the limit of the sums in (30) is also the supremum of (23) over all feasible $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...)$, by the construction of the original sequence of sequences, λ^1 , λ^2 ,.... Hence (31) is the maximum of (23), and $(\lambda_1^0, \lambda_2^0, ...)$ is optimal. Any feasible δ yielding this sequence via (21) is then a best solution. This completes the first half of the proof.

We now drop the restriction that μ be sigma-atomic. Since μ is sigma-finite, there is a countable measurable partition $\{A_{\Theta}, A_{1}, \dots\}$ such that μ is non-atomic on A_{Θ} , and atomic on each A_{n} , $n = 1, 2, \dots$ Let $B_{\Theta} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{\Theta} & b \end{bmatrix} d\mu$ and $c_{\Theta} = \begin{bmatrix} B_{\Theta} & 2D^{5} \\ A_{\Theta} & c \end{bmatrix} d\mu$ be a number with

Consider the problem of maximizing (18), with A in place of A, over measurable functions $\delta:A$ + reals satisfying (19) and $\int_{A}^{2} \int_{A}^{2} \delta_{A} d\mu = \lambda_{0}$. (5.6.33) (33)

The preceding theorem (page) states that there exists a best solution, δ° , to this problem, since μ restricted to A is non-atomic. For this best solution the utility function has the value

$$\int_{A} f(a, \delta^{2}(a)) \mu(da) .$$
(5.6.34)
(34)
(34)

Now δ' , hence (34), depends on λ_{0} . Let us write $g_{0}(\lambda_{0})$ for the value (34) as a function of λ_{0} . The domain of g_{0} is $[b_{0}, c_{0}]$. Also, because of the special assumption (17), we interpret (34) as a (finite) definite integral, hence g_{0} is real-valued, rather than pseudomeasure-valued as in the general case.

Consider now the problem of maximizing

$$g_{0}(\lambda_{0}) + g_{1}(\lambda_{1}) + \dots$$
 (35)

over all sequences $(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots)$ satisfying

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 $b_n \leq \lambda_n \leq c_n$

(5.6.36)

(5.6.35)

(5.6.32)

(32)

for all n = 0, 1, 2, ..., and

stress

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 $\lambda_{0} + \lambda_{1} + \dots = 0.$

(5.6.37)

Here λ_n , b_n , c_n , and g_n for n = 1, 2, ... have exactly the same meanings as before, while λ_0 , b_0 , c_0 , and g_0 have just been defined.

If $(\lambda_{\underline{0}}^{\circ}, \lambda_{\underline{1}}^{\circ}, \ldots)$ is an optimal solution to $(35)\frac{1}{N}(37)$, we can construct an optimal solution, δ^{2} , to the original problem $(18)^{\prime}_{\overline{N}}(20)$ as follows. On A₀, let δ^{2} coincide with the optimal solution to the non-atomic problem $(32)^{\prime}_{\overline{N}}(33)$, with parameter $\lambda_{\underline{0}} = \lambda_{\underline{0}}^{\circ}$. On A_n, for <u>n</u> > 0, choose any feasible δ satisfying (21) for $\lambda_{\underline{n}}^{\circ}$. The resulting function δ^{2} is clearly feasible. It is also optimal, since the utility function (18) for any feasible δ does not exceed (35), where the $\lambda_{\underline{n}}$'s are determined from δ by (21); for $\delta = \delta^{2}$, the utility function is equal to (35), which is the maximum of its possible values.

It suffices, then, to show that $(35)\frac{1}{N}(37)$ has an optimal solution. Now this is of exactly the same form as the problem of maximizing (23) subject to (25) and (26), with one possible exception: We do not know whether the function g_{0} is <u>continuous</u>. If this could be shown, then the first half of this proof demonstrates the existence of an optimal $(\lambda_{0}^{2}, \lambda_{1}^{2}, \ldots)$, and we would be finished.

We now show that g is continuous. As a first step we show it is concave⁸. Let L_1 , L_2 , L_3 satisfy

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0^{L_0} \end{bmatrix}_{A} \stackrel{b}{\rightarrow} \stackrel{d\mu}{\rightarrow} \stackrel{\leq}{=} \stackrel{L_1}{=} \stackrel{\leq}{=} \stackrel{L_2}{=} \stackrel{\leq}{=} \stackrel{L_3}{=} \stackrel{\leq}{=} \stackrel{c}{\rightarrow} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{\rightarrow} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{d\mu}{=} \stackrel{e}{=} \stackrel{e}{$$

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and let $\delta_{1:-0}^{\circ} \Rightarrow$ reals be the optimal solution for the parameter L_{i} (i = 1, 2, 3). The proof of the preceding theorem shows that these optimal solutions have shadow prices. Hence for δ_{2}° there exists an extended real number, p° , such that $\delta_{2}^{\circ}(a)$ maximizes

$$f(a,x) - p^{e_x}$$

Sover $x \in [b(a), c(a)]$, for almost all $a \in A_0$. p^2 must be finite; for if $p^2 = +\infty$, then $\delta_2^2 = b$ almost everywhere on A_0 , which contradicts (38); similarly, $\delta_2^2 = c$ almost everywhere on A_0 if $p^2 = -\infty$, again contradicting (38). It follows that

$$(a, \delta_2^{\circ}(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta_2^{\circ}(a) \ge f(a, \delta_1^{\circ}(a)) - p^{\circ}\delta_1^{\circ}(a)$$

almost everywhere on A (i = 1,3). Integration over A yields

$$g_{0}(L_{2}) - g_{0}(L_{1}) \geq p^{\circ}(L_{2} - L_{1})$$

(i = 1, 3), so that

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$$-\frac{g_{0}(L_{2}) - g_{0}(L_{1})}{L_{2} - L_{1}} \ge p^{\circ} \ge \frac{g_{0}(L_{3}) - g_{0}(L_{2})}{L_{3} - L_{2}}$$

for all $E_1 < L_2 < L_3$, a condition equivalent to concavity. Since a concave function is continuous at all interior points, the only thing left to prove is that g_0 is continuous

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(5.6.38) (38) at the endpoints, b and c. Because g_{0} is concave, to establish continuity at b it suffices to prove that

$$g_{\Theta}(b_{\Theta}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} g_{\Theta}(L_k)$$

5.6.39)

(5.6.40)

for any one sequence L1, L2,... converging to b9.

 $\int_{\mathbf{A}} \gamma(\underline{a}, \underline{p}) \mu(\underline{d}\underline{a}),$

Now we re-introduce the function $\gamma(a,p)$ given by (5). In the preceding proof it was established that, for fixed $a \in A$, $\gamma(a,p)$ has the limit b(a) as $p \rightarrow \infty$. Also, for fixed p, $\gamma(\cdot,p)$ is measurable, and

as a function of p, approaches

$$\frac{1}{10} \int_{A_0} \gamma(a, \infty) \mu(da) = \int_{A_0} b_n d\mu = b_0$$

as p→∞.

Now let p_1 , p_2 ,... be a sequence increasing without bound, and define L_1 , L_2 ,... by

$$\mathcal{T}_{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathbf{L}} = \int_{\mathbf{A}} \gamma(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{k}}) \mu(\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a}) \dots$$

The sequence L_1 , L_2 ,... then converges to b_0 . Also, $g_0(L_k) = \int_A f(a, \gamma(a, p_k)) \mu(da)$. This follows from the fact that the function $\delta_{\underline{k}}^{\circ}(a) = \gamma(a, p_{\underline{k}})$ has the shadow price $p_{\underline{k}}$, and satisfies the resource constant (40) hence it is optimal for $\underline{L}_{\underline{k}}$. Now for each $a \in \underline{A}_{0}$

$$\frac{1}{k+\infty} f(a, \gamma(a, p_k)) = f(a, b(a))$$

by the continuity of $f(a, \cdot)$. Hence, by (17), we may apply the dominated convergence theorem, and conclude that

 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} 23 \\ 1 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \lim_{k \to \infty} g \\ \end{array} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} g \\ \varphi \end{array} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \left(L_k \right) \end{array} = \int_{A} f(a, b(a)) \mu(da) = g \\ \begin{array}{c} g \\ \varphi \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \left(b \\ \varphi \end{array} \right) \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \end{array}$

This proves (39) for the sequence L_1, L_2, \ldots , and establishes the continuity of g_0 at b_0 . Continuity of g_0 at c_0 is proved by a similar argument, with $\beta(a,p)$ in place of $\gamma(a,p)$, and $p \neq \infty$.

This supplies the missing link in the proof, and we conclude that a best solution δ° exists in the general case.

(5.6.41)

As usual, there is an immediate generalization. If (20) in the preceding theorem (or (3) in the one before that) is replaced by the condition

 $|qq\rangle = L_0 \leq \int_A \delta_A d\mu \leq L^0$

with $\frac{f_{A} \delta_{A} d\mu}{A}$ required to be finite, and (16) in the preceding Stet theorem (or (1) in the one before that) is replaced by the condition

$$\left[\prod \right] \xrightarrow{4}_{-\infty} < \left[\prod_{A}^{17} \right]_{A} \frac{119}{b_{A}d\mu} - \underline{L}^{\circ} \leq 0 \leq \left[\prod_{A}^{17} \right]_{A} \frac{101}{b_{A}d\mu} - \underline{L}^{\circ} \leq 0 \leq \left[\prod_{A}^{17} \right]_{A} \frac{101}{b_{A}d\mu} - \underline{L}^{\circ} \leq \infty,$$

then there still exists a best solution in these respective cases.

The proof which consists as always in transforming this problem into an equivalent one in which (20) and (16) (or (3) and (1)) hold is left as an exercise.

We now give an example of a problem not having an optimal solution. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}, \Sigma = \text{all subsets}, \mu$ the counting enumeration measure; b(n) = 0 and c(n) = 1 for all n = 1, 2, The payoff function is: $f(n,x) = -x/n^2$. The density function, in addition to satisfying $0 \le \delta(n) \le 1$ for all n, must satisfy

 $\delta(1) + \delta(2) + ... = 1.$

One easily verifies that all of the premises of the preceding theorem are satisfied (take $\theta(n) = 1/n^2$ in (17); $L_0 = L^0 = 1$ in (41)), with one exception: $\int_A cd\mu = c(1)$ $+ c(2) + \dots = \infty$.

There is no optimal solution to this problem, since any given feasible solution can be improved. To see this, let δ be feasible, and choose any n for which $\delta(n) > 0$. Alter δ by replacing $\delta(n)$ by 0, and $\delta(n+1)$ by $\delta(n+1) + \delta(n)$, everything else the same. This remains feasible, and the change in the

utility function is $\delta(n)$ $\frac{1}{n^2}$ $\frac{1}{(n+1)^2} > 0$, so δ is non-optimal.

This example gives a certain insight into the role of the finiteness condition on J_A b du and J_A c du.

5.7. Uniqueness of Optimal Solutions

By "uniqueness" we mean the property that there is at <u>most one</u> optimal solution. (The ordinary word "uniqueness" sometimes carries the connotation of "exactly one"; but we are not here concerned with existence, only with "non-duplication" of solutions).

As in our previous discussion, we identify any two densities which are unequal only on a null set. Thus, to say that there is at most one optimal solution is to say: If δ_1 and δ_2 are both optimal solutions, then $\mu\{a|\delta_1(a) \neq \delta_2(a)\} = 0$. We need two new concepts for the following result.

Definition: f:reals \Rightarrow reals is strictly concave iff, for any two distinct real numbers, x, y, and any 0 < t < 1,

f(tx + (1-t)y) > tf(x) + (1-t)f(y). (3.7.1)

This is a bit stronger than concavity per se, because of the strict inequality in (1). A linear function is concave but not strictly concave.

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Definition: Let M be a set of real-valued functions, all with domain A. M is convex iff, for any δ_1 , $\delta_2 \in M$, and any 0 < t < 1, the function $t\delta_1 + (1-t)\delta_2$ belongs to M.

For example, the feasible sets we have been dealing with throughout sections 4, 5, and 6 are all convex.

Utility ordering is still that of standard ordering of pseudomeasures. The distinction between <u>best</u> and <u>unsurpassed</u> must again be stressed, because it is critical in the following result.

<u>Theorem</u>: Let (A, Σ, μ) be a measure space, with μ sigma-finite. Let f:A × reals + reals be measurable, and such that, for all a $\in A$, f(a, \cdot) is strictly concave. Let M be a convex set of real-valued measurable functions.

Then the problem: Maximize

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$$\int f(a, \delta(a)) \mu(da)$$

(5.7.2)

(5.7.3)

over $\delta \in M$, has at most one best solution.

<u>Proof</u>: Let δ_1 and δ_2 both be best. Then, for any $\delta \in M$ we have

 $[08] \int_{A} \left[f(a, \delta_{i}(a)) - f(a, \delta(a)) \right] \mu(da) \ge 0 / \delta$

(i = 1, 2). Adding these two inequalities, we get $J_A \left[f(a, \delta_1(a)) + f(a, \delta_2(a)) - 2f(a, \delta(a)) \right] \mu(da) \ge 0$. Now consider the function $\delta = \frac{1}{2}\delta_1 + \frac{1}{2}\delta_2 \cdot \sqrt{\delta} \in M$, by convexity. For this δ , the integrand in (3) is never positive, and is in fact negative on the set $\{a \mid \delta_1(a) \neq \delta_2(a)\}$, by strict concavity. Hence this set has measure zero, which establishes uniqueness.

It is not true that there must be at most one <u>unsurpassed</u> solution, as the following counterexample shows.

Let (A, Σ, μ) be Lebesgue measure on the real line. Let $f(a,x) = -x^2 + 2x$ if $a \ge 0$; $f(a,x) = -x^2 - 2x$ if a < 0; and let M be the set of <u>constant</u> functions whose single value lies in the closed interval [-1,1]. M is obviously convex, and one successily verifies that $f(a, \cdot)$ is strictly concave for all $a \in A$.

Now let x_1 , x_2 be two numbers in [-1,1], with $x_1 > x_2$, and let ψ_1 , ψ_2 be the pseudomeasures obtained by substituting the corresponding functions in (2). If (a, \cdot) is increasing for $a \ge 0$ and decreasing for $a < 0_A$ hence $(\psi_1 - \psi_2)^+$ is a multiple of Lebesgue measure truncated to the positive half-line, while $(\psi_1 - \psi_2)^-$ is a multiple of Lebesgue measure truncated to the negative half-line. It follows that

 $(\psi_1 - \psi_2)^+(A) = (\psi_1 - \psi_2)^-(A) = \infty.$ (4)

Hence all feasible solutions are unsurpassed, because, by (4), no two of them are comparable ()

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Police, Criminals, and Victims

We shall now apply the preceding theory to the problem of the spatial distribution of crime. Actually, the present section goes beyond the simple optimization framework of the rest of this chapter, in that several different populations, with diverse motives, are interacting. Thus we are in a "game" situation, and what is optimal for one agent may not be optimal for another.

There is a population of potential <u>victims</u>, a population of potential <u>criminals</u>, who commit crimes upon the victims when the opportunity presents itself, and a population of <u>policemen</u>, who try to prevent criminals from perpetrating their misdeeds.

The three populations inhibit the measure space (S, Σ, α) , α being ideal area over Space, S. If v, c, and p are the densities of the three respective populations (density with respect to α), the <u>density of crimes</u> at location <u>s</u> is given by a function

f(v(s), c(s), p(s))

(5.8.1)

and total crime is then given by $\int_{S}^{4} f d\alpha$. We would expect f to be an increasing function of v and c, and a decreasing function of p.

Consider, for illustrative purposes, the crime function $f(v,c,p) = vce^{-p}$. (5.8.2) (2)

A semi-plausible rationalization for (2) might run as follows. For p = 0, a crime occurs if there is an "encounter" between a potential victim and criminal, and, with "random" movements, the frequency of encounters should be proportional to the product of the densities, vc.⁹ Next, suppose that the commisS sion of a crime is inhibited if a policeman is present within a certain "surveillance radius". If policemen are randomly distributed, the probability of no policeman being present within the critical radius declines exponentially with police density, and this gives (2). (Units of measurement for v, c, and p may be chosen to avoid multiplicative constants, as in (2) \int_{Δ}

Whatever one thinks of such arguments, it is still illuminating to discuss the consequences of (2), or, more generally, (1), under various behavioral assumptions. We assume that victims and police distribute themselves over Space so as to reduce crimes, while criminals distribute themselves so as to increase crimes.

One further objection to this set+up should be mentioned. Shouldn't these population distributions be integer-valued, or finitely concentrated? - in which case they are unlikely to have density functions. The answer is that c, v and p are best thought of, not as densities for cross-sectional distributions, but for the time-averages arising from the random perambulations of the populations. Thus a measure μ , where $\mu(E)$ is the expected number of people of a certain type in

region E, can very well have an areal density.

Before launching into details, let us briefly consider t some specific interpretations of this general model. "Crime" is a rather heterogeneous category, and not all types of crimes would be well-represented by the model. In the first place, there are numerous "crimes without victims"¹⁰: gambling, traffic in drugs, prostitution, etc. In some of these cases the frequency might be described by (1) and (2). For example, "random" encounters with streetwalkers) - but one would not expect the "victims" to be motivated to reduce the incidence of such "crimes". Secondly, there are crimes which do not require a specific "encounter" for their commission, counter: feiting, or anti+trust law violation, for instance.

Burglary, larceny, robbery, and rape are examples of types of crime which do not have these disqualifying features, and their incidence might be approximately represented by a function of the form (1). One might want to re-interpret v, c, or p in some of these cases. For example, in burglary the spatial distribution of (movable) wealth would seem more relevant than the spatial distribution of people, so y should perhaps be taken as wealth density rather than population density.

Certain non-crime situations may also be represented by this model. Consider military attacks against targets (installations, opposing forces, civilians, etc.). Letting <u>v</u>

be the density of targets, <u>c</u> the density of, say, bombing, and <u>p</u> the density of "defense equipment", the above model might then predict the volume of destruction in terms of these three distributions. The controllers of <u>p</u> and <u>v</u> are motivated to reduce destruction, the controllers of <u>c</u> to increase it. Hence we might expect to find the spatial distributions here similar to those which result from crime incidence.

Again, consider the following "imitation-snob" situation. There is a "high-prestige" and a "low-prestige" population. The high-prestigers want to avoid contacts with the lowprestigers, while the latter want to increase contacts with the former. Interpreting "ciminals" and "victims" to be the lowand high-prestige populations, respectively, and "crimes" to be contacts between the two populations, we get something like the model above. (The police might enter as harassers of the low-prestige population in its attempts to increase contacts).

As throughout this book, our aim is to develop and explore theoretical models, not to tailor them closely to any particular real-world situation. (For crimes such an attempt would in any case be difficult, because of the spotty quality of most crime data).¹¹

We now return to the formal model, which has not yet been completely specified. For simplicity we assume that the three populations are mutually exclusive, and that no transformation from one to the other is possible. Thus we ignore the possibility that victims themselves can inhibit crimes by

surveillance, the possibility that some criminals can be v fictimized by other criminals, etc.)

Two cases will be explored. In the first there are no police (the anarchistic, or "Wild West" case) and the two populations, victims and criminals, are freely mobile over Space. In the second case, the distribution of victims is <u>fixed</u>, and the remaining two populations are freely mobile. (This might occur, for example, if crime is of minor importance so that it exerts no locational pull on the population at large. Another interpretation is that the population distribue tion of victims adjusts very slowly compared to the other two populations, so that it may be considered fixed in the short run.)

A given population tries to reduce $\frac{1}{4}$ or increase $\frac{1}{3}$ crime. What does this mean? There are (at least) two interpretations: the <u>individualistic</u>, and the <u>collusive</u>. If criminals act collusively, for example, the entire body of criminals distributes itself so as to maximize total crime; if they act individualistically, then they will move from places where the density of crimes <u>per criminal</u> is low to where it is high. Similarly, if victims coll $\frac{1}{92}$ de they will distribute themselves to minimize total crime; if they are individualists, they move from places where the density of crimes <u>per victim</u> is high to where it is low. For some crime functions <u>f</u> the resulting distributions are the same under either assumption, but in general they will differ.

For the police the most plausible assumption is collusion: They are distributed by central headquarters to minimize total crime. For victims the individualistic assumption is more plausible: Each potential victim moves to reduce the incidence of crime on himself. For criminals, both possibilities are plausible, depending on whether crime is "petty", or "organized" by some criminal mastermind.

We shall analyze just three of the many possible combinations:

(i) no police, both victims and criminals are individualists;

> (ii) no police, both victims and criminals collude;

 \mathcal{W} \mathcal{W} $f:reals^2 \rightarrow reals$, namely, f(v,c) is the crime density at a location, if victim density there is v and criminal density c. All functions are assumed to be measurable, $\frac{finite}{real-valued}$, and non-negative. We also assume that

f(0,c) = f(v,0) = 0,

and that the right-hand partial derivatives $D_1 f(0,c)$ and $D_2 f(v,0)$ exist for all $c, v \ge 0$. (We are using the notation $\sqrt{60} + \sqrt{60} + \sqrt{25} + \sqrt{10} \sqrt{10}$ $D_1 f(0,c) = \lim_{v \to 0^+} [f(v,c) - f(0,c)]/v$, and similarly for $D_2 f(v,0)$.) $P_2 f(v,0) = \lim_{c \to 0^+} [f(v,c) - f(v,0)]/c$. To avoid trivialities, we assume that the total population of victims, V, and criminals, C, are fixed positive real numbers, as is the total available area, $\alpha(S)$. The constraints on the density functions, v and c, is that they be non-negative real measurable, and satisfy

$$\frac{1}{12} \int_{S} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d\alpha}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d\alpha}} \int_{S} \frac{59}{\sqrt{d\alpha}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(3)}}$$

Definition: The pair of feasible densities \underline{v}° , $\underline{c}^{\circ}:S \rightarrow$ reals is an <u>individualistic equilibrium pair</u> iff there is a null set $\underline{E} \in \Sigma$, and two real numbers, \underline{k}_{v} , $\underline{k}_{c} \geq 0$, such that, for all $\underline{s} \in \underline{S} \setminus \underline{E}$,

$$\frac{f(v^{\circ}(s), c^{\circ}(s))}{v^{\circ}(s)} = k_{v}, \text{ if } v^{\circ}(s) > 0, \qquad (5.8.4)$$

$$\frac{f(v^{\circ}(s), c^{\circ}(s))}{c^{\circ}(s)} = k_{c}, \text{ if } c^{\circ}(s) > 0, \qquad (5.8.5)$$

$$D_{1}f(0, c^{\circ}(s)) \ge k_{v}, \text{ if } v^{\circ}(s) = 0, \qquad (5.8.6)$$

$$D_{2}f(v^{\circ}(s), 0) \le k_{c}, \text{ if } c^{\circ}(s) = 0, \qquad (5.8.7)$$

$$(5.8.7)$$

$$(7)$$



The intuitive meaning of $(4)_{R}^{\prime}(7)$ is as follows. We interpret the "incidence of crime" on any victim at location <u>s</u> to be the <u>crimes per victim</u> at that point, which is the left side of (4), if v(s) > 0. If v(s) = 0, the natural interpretation is $D_1 f(0, c(s))$, which is what crimes per victim would be for a "low-density" migration there. (4) and (6) are then precisely the conditions under which no potential victim can, by moving, reduce the incidence of crime on himself. Similarly, we take the "gain from crime" for any criminal at location <u>s</u> to be the <u>crimes per criminal</u> at that point, which is the left side of (5) or (7), for c(s) > 0, c(s) = 0, respectively. (5) and (7) are then the conditions that no criminal can gain from moving. As usual, we allow exceptions on a set of measure zero. Two density functions, v_1 and v_2 , which differ only on a null set, are taken to be identical, and similarly for c_1 and c_2 .

action. The set of feasible densities is gain given by (3).

Definition: The pair of feasible densities, v°, c°, is a collusive equilibrium pair iff

 $f(v^{\circ}, c^{\circ})d\alpha$ is unsurpassed in the set of pseudomeasures $f(v^{\circ}, c)d\alpha$, c ranging over the feasible criminal densities and 337 $f(v^{\circ}, c)d\alpha$, c ranging over the feasible criminal densities and 337 $f(v^{\circ}, c^{\circ})d\alpha$ is unsurpassed in the set of pseudomeasures $f(v^{\circ}, c^{\circ})d\alpha$

- $f(v, c^{\circ})d\alpha$, v ranging over the feasible victim densities.

That is, given the distribution v° , criminals arrange themselves over Space so that no other arrangement of criminals leads to a distribution of total crimes surpassing the one resulting from c° ; conversely, given c° , v° is chosen so that minus the distribution of total crimes is not surpassed by that resulting from any other victim distribution. The reason for the "minus" is of course that victims are trying to reduce total crime, which is equivalent to trying to increase minus total crime.

One has to invoke pseudomeasures only if the total crime integral can be unbounded. For the present application we may safely assume that, for any f arising in practice, all integrals are finite. Nonetheless we give the more general definition above because the results obtained are valid for it, and no extra work is involved.

If all integrals are finite, the above definition may be restated in simpler form: The feasible pair (v°, c°) is a collusive equilibrium pair iff

$$n^{\nu} \bigvee_{s}^{2S} \underbrace{f(v^{\circ}, c)d\alpha}_{s} \leq \bigvee_{s}^{2S} \underbrace{f(v^{\circ}, c^{\circ})d\alpha}_{s} \leq \bigvee_{s}^{2S} \underbrace{f(v, c^{\circ})d\alpha}_{ts} \qquad (5.8.8)$$

for all feasible v, c. The left inequality in (8) states that,⁶ given v^o, c^o is chosen to maximize total crime; the right inequality states that,⁶ given c^o, v^o is chosen to minimize total crime.

(8) is precisely the saddlepoint condition which constitutes an equilibrium in two-person zero-sum games. Since both sides are colluding, we have, in effect, just two decision makers; and the whole problem may be thought of as a game between a maximizing player, Grime and a minimizing player,

C.rim,

Vic, the payoff to Crim under the strategy pair (v, c) being

36 25 f (v, c) da.

The difference between $(4)\frac{1}{2}(7)$ on the one hand, and (8)on the other, is that in the former the individual victim or criminal does not take account of the effects of his moves on the gains or losses of his "colleagues". In this respect, the difference is vaguely similar to that of a competitive vs. monopolistic industry, respectively. To put the matter in a slightly different, and slightly inaccurate, way, under individualism <u>average</u> gains or losses are equated over <u>Space</u>, while under collusion <u>marginal</u> gains or losses are equated.

Consider the very simple crime function

$$f(v,c) = vc$$

(which is (2) with p set equal to zero). One easily verifies that the pair of uniform distributions:

$$\underline{v}^{\circ}(s) = V/\alpha(s), \quad c^{\circ}(s) = C/\alpha(s)$$
 (5.8116)
(10)

5,8.9

(almost everywhere) is an equilibrium pair under both definitions. $(k_v = C/\alpha(S), k_c = V/\alpha(S), (6)$ and (7) are satisfied with equality, and (8) is satisfied with equality for any feasible v, c, total crime being $VC/\alpha(S)$.

One also suspects that (10) is the only equilibrium pair under either definition. A non-rigorous argument would go as follows. Suppose, say, that \underline{v} were not constant almost everywhere. Then the criminals would all crowd into the region where \underline{v} was densest. But then victims would not be in equilibrium, since they could move into the region vacated by criminals. A similar argument applies if \underline{c} were not constant almost everywhere.¹²

Our aim now is to generalize this argument and make it rigorous. We prove this separately for the individualistic and collusive cases. Each of these cases has its own appropriate class of functions for which the statement is proved, and (9) belongs to both classes.

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Theorem: Given measure space (S, Σ, α) , with $\infty > \alpha(S) > 0$, positive real numbers, V and CA and a measurable function f:nonnegative reals² + non-negative reals which satisfies: (i) f(v,c) = 0 iff either v = 0 or c = 0 (or both); (ii) the right-hand partial derivatives $D_1 f(0,c)$ and $D_2 f(v,0)$ exist for all real $v, c \ge 0$, and, if v > 0, then $D_2 f(v,0) > 0$; (iii) f(Vx, Cx)/x is a strictly increasing function of x (x > 0).

WF Then (10) is the unique individualistic equilibrium pair.

Proof: One verifies at once that (10) satisfies (4) $\frac{1}{n}$ (7) almost everywhere: (4) $\frac{1}{n}$ (5) follows from the constancy of v° and c° , while (6) $\frac{1}{n}$ (7) are trivial because v° and c° are positive. Hence it remains only to show the uniqueness of this solution. Let (v°, c°) be an individualistic equilibrium pair, and let $\mathbf{E} = \{s | v^{\circ}(s) > 0\}, \mathbf{F} = \{s | c^{\circ}(s) > 0\}$. Suppose first that $\underline{k}_{c} = 0$. It follows that $\alpha(\mathbf{E} \cap \mathbf{F}) = 0$, for otherwise (5) would be violated, since f(v,c) > 0 if v > 0 and c > 0. Also we must have $\alpha(\mathbf{E} \setminus \mathbf{F}) = 0$; for otherwise (7) would be violated, since $\underline{D}_{2}f(v,0) > 0$ on this set. But this means that $\alpha(\mathbf{E}) = 0$, which implies the feasibility condition (3) is violated for \underline{v}° , since V > 0. We have a contradiction, and it follows that $\underline{k}_{c} > 0$.

This implies that $\alpha(F \setminus E) = 0$; for otherwise (5) would be violated, since f(0,c) = 0. Hence $\alpha(E \cap F) > 0$; for otherwise $\alpha(F) = 0$, violating (3) for c^2 . Now for almost all points, s, of $E \cap F$ we have

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$$k_{y}v^{\circ}(s) = f(v^{\circ}(s), c^{\circ}(s)) = k_{c}c^{\circ}(s)$$
 (11)

from (4) and (5). Since $\alpha(E \cap F) > 0$, there exists <u>s</u> satisfying (11). Hence $k_V > 0$. It follows that $\alpha(E \setminus F) = 0$; for otherwise (4) would be violated, since f(v, 0) = 0. Also $\alpha(A \setminus (E \cup F)) = 0$; for otherwise (6) would be violated, since $D_1 f(0, 0) = 0$.

We have now shown that $\underline{v}^{\circ} > 0$ and $\underline{c}^{\circ} > 0$ almost every where hence (11) is valid almost everywhere. Integrating (11) over S, we find, from (3), that $\underline{Vk}_{v} = \underline{Ck}_{c}$. Hence (5.8.12)

$$v^{\circ}/V = c^{\circ}/C$$
 (12)

almost everywhere. Letting x(s) be the common ratio in (12) at the point s, we find from (11) that

$\underline{\mathbf{V}}_{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{s}))}{\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})} = \underline{\mathbf{C}}_{\mathbf{k}},$

almost everywhere. The middle term in (13) is strictly increasing in x, hence there is just one solution x° : v° and c° must be constant almost everywhere, which yields (10).

5.8.13)

We now give the corresponding result for collusive equilibrium. The uniqueness, rather than the existence, of equilibrium is the more interesting condition, and that is what is established in the following theorem.

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<u>Theorem</u>: Let (S, Σ, α) be a measure space, with $\infty > \alpha(S) > 0$, and α non-atomic; let V and C be positive real numbers; let measurable function f:non-negative reals² \rightarrow reals satisfy (i) for any fixed real $c \ge 0$, f(v, c) is continuous in v, and differentiable with respect to v for v > 0 (notation: $D_1 f(v, c)$)

(ii) for any fixed real $v \ge 0$, f(v,c) is continuous in c, and differentiable with respect to c for c > 0 (notation: $D_2f(v,c)$)

(iii) for any fixed real c > 0, $D_2f(v,c)$ is strictly increasing in v_j

(iv) for any fixed real v > 0, $D_1 f(v,c)$ is strictly increasing in c.

Then (10) is the only possible collusive equilibrium pair.

<u>Proof</u>: Let v° , c° be a collusive equilibrium pair. c° is then unsurpassed for the problem of maximizing

$$\int f(y^{2}(s), c^{2}(s)) d(ds) = (5, 8.1)$$
(5, 8.1)
(14)

over the non-negative densities $c:S \rightarrow reals$ satisfying $\int_{S} c_{A} d\alpha = C$. Since α is non-atomic and $f(v, \cdot)$ is continuous, all $v \ge 0$, we have as a necessary condition for this that there exist an extended real number, k, and a null set $E \in \Sigma$, such that, for all $s \in S \setminus E$, $c^{\circ}(s)$ maximizes

$$(v^{o}(s), x) - kx$$
 (15)

(5,8.15)

5.8.16)

over non-negative real x (section 4 above).

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The "shadow-price" k must, in fact, be real. For if $k = -\infty$, (15) has no maximizer; while if $k = +\infty$, c² would be zero almost everywhere, which violates $\int_{S} c^{2} d\alpha = C > 0$.

We now show that, if $s_1, s_2 \in S \setminus E$, and $\underline{v}^{\circ}(s_1) > \underline{v}^{\circ}(s_2)$, then

either
$$c^{\circ}(s_1) > c^{\circ}(s_2)$$
, or $c^{\circ}(s_1) = c^{\circ}(s_2) = 0$.

Condition (16) will be demonstrated by eliminating two possibilities. $f(s_1) = c^{\circ}(s_2) > 0$. Since (15) is differentiable in x, the derivative must be zero at these respective points, That is,

 $D_2 f(v^o(s_i), c^o(s_i)) = k$ (5.7.17)

(i = 1,2). But $D_2f(\cdot,c')$ is strictly increasing (c' being the common positive value of $c^{\circ}(s_1) = c^{\circ}(s_2)$). Hence at least one of the two equations in (17) must be invalid. \bigcirc possibility (ii): $c^{\circ}(s_2) > c^{\circ}(s_1)$. Consider

$$f(v^{e}(s_{1}), x) - f(v^{e}(s_{2}), x)$$
 (18)

as a function of the non-negative real variable x. (18) is continuous, and has a positive derivative for all x > 0. Hence — using the mean value theorem — (18) is strictly increasing in x. It follows that

Also, since $c^{\circ}(s_{i})$ maximizes (15) for $s = s_{i}$ (i = 1, 2), we get

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$$f\left\{v^{\circ}(s_{1}), c^{\circ}(s_{1})\right\} - kc^{\circ}(s_{1}) \ge f\left\{v^{\circ}(s_{1}), c^{\circ}(s_{2})\right\} - kc^{\circ}(s_{2}), \frac{(5.8.20)}{(20)}$$

and also (20) with subscripts 1 and 2 interchanged. Adding these three inequalities $(19)_{N}$ (20) and simplifying, we get the contradiction 0 > 0. This eliminates possibility ($\frac{13}{14}$) and establishes (16).

This entire argument may now be repeated with the rôles of \underline{v}° and \underline{c}° interchanged, the only difference being that \underline{v}° is maximizing the <u>negative</u> of (14). Since $D_1[-f(v,c)]$ is strictly <u>decreasing</u> in c, we obtain the analog of (16) again, but with

one inequality sign reversed:

S If $s_1, s_2 \in S \setminus E'$ (E' being a certain null set) and $c^2(s_1) > c^2(s_2)$, then

either
$$\underline{v}^{\circ}(\underline{s}_1) < \underline{v}^{\circ}(\underline{s}_2)$$
, or $\underline{v}^{\circ}(\underline{s}_1) = \underline{v}^{\circ}(\underline{s}_2) = 0$. (21)

Finally, suppose there are two points s_1 , $s_2 \in S \setminus (E \cup E')$, and suth that $v^{\circ}(s_1) > v^{\circ}(s_2)$. We cannot also have $c^{\circ}(s_1) > c^{\circ}(s_2)$, for then (21) would lend to a contradiction. Hence $c^{\circ}(s_1) =$ $c^{\circ}(s_2) = 0$, by (16). For any other point $s \in S \setminus (E \cup E')$, choose s_1 or s_2 , depending on which s_1 satisfies $v^{\circ}(s_1) \neq v^{\circ}(s)$. The argument just given then shows that $c^{\circ}(s) = 0$. Hence, if v° is not constant on $S \setminus (E \cup E')$, c° is identically zero on this set. Since $E \cup E'$ is a null set, this gives the contradiction

Hence v° is constant almost everywhere. A similar argument shows that c° is constant almost everywhere. This completes the proof. If T

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 $0 = \int_{S} c^{2} d\alpha = c > 0.$

This does not prove that the pair of uniform densities (10) is a collusive equilibrium pair: There is the possibility that no such pair exists. To test whether, in fact, (10) is a collusive equilibrium pair is not difficult. Note that, under the premises of this theorem, the shadow price conditions are both necessary and sufficient for equilibrium (page 000).

(5.8.2.1)

Hence (10) is such a pair iff there are numbers k_1 and k_2 such that $c/\alpha(S)$ maximizes

$$E(V/\alpha(S), x) - k_1 x$$
 (22)

(69.22)

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(5.8.24)

over $x \ge 0$, and $V/\alpha(S)$ maximizes

$$-f(x, C/\alpha(S)) - k_2 x$$
 (23)

over $x \ge 0$. If these conditions (22) and (23) are added to the premises, we may assert that the pair of uniform distributions is the unique collusive equilibrium pair.

There are some real-world situations which illustrate these results, at least approximately. The policy of dispersing population to reduce losses from air attack is an example. If carried out to the limit, both targets and attackers would be uniformly distributed. In a uniform environment, a predator and a prey species would tend to become uniformly distributed. The distribution of Christians and tions in the Roman arena must have been roughly uniform. (iii) Now we introduce police. The distribution of victims is given and fixed, while police and criminals are freely mobile. The former try to reduce, the latter increase, total crimes. As the crime density function we take

$$f(v, c, p) = g(v) ce^{-p}$$

where g is strictly increasing, non-negative and real-valued. This is just a elight generalization of (2). One can obtain results for more general functions, but (24) leads to a very simple and elegant equilibrium with some provocative implications.

In the following result, premise (26) is introduced to avoid an uninteresting complication; it is quite weak. Also premise (25) could have been deduced from rather weak assumptions, but we take the simpler course of assuming it outright. All logarithms are to base e.

<u>Theorem</u>: Let (S, Σ, α) be a measure space, with $\infty > \alpha(S) > 0$; let C and P be positive real numbers; let v:S \Rightarrow non-negative reals be measurable, with $\int_{S}^{0.55} v d\alpha > 0$ (i.e. there are some victims); let g:non-negative reals \Rightarrow non-negative reals be strictly increasing. Assume:

(ii) there is exactly one number L satisfying $\begin{array}{c}
(\underline{i}) \\ (\underline$

Then there is <u>exactly one</u> collusive equilibrium pair (c^o,p^o) for the problem, Maximize over c, minimize over p:

 $\int g(v(s))c(s)e^{-p(s)}\alpha(ds).$

Here c:S + reals and p:S + reals must be non-negative measurable, and satisfy

$$\int_{S} c_{A} d\alpha = c_{A} \int_{S} p_{A} d\alpha = P_{A}$$
(5.8.57)
$$\int_{S} \frac{c_{A} d\alpha}{(27)} = c_{A} \int_{S} p_{A} d\alpha = P_{A}$$

Apart from a null set, cº and pº have the following form: AF

$$Xf g(v(s)) \leq L$$
, then $c^{\circ}(s) = p^{\circ}(s) = 0$. (28)

If g(v(s)) > L, then

$$C^{2}(s) = C/\alpha\{s | g(v(s)) > L\}$$
 (a constant), (5.8.29)
(29)

Vand

$$p^{o}(s) = \log \left[g(v(s))/L \right],$$
 (5.8.30)
(30)

<u>Proof</u>: Let g(v(s)) = h(s). First we show that (28) - (30) is the only possible collusive equilibrium pair. Let c^2 , p^2 be such a pair. The conditions for the existence of shadow prices are satisfied, since $b(s) \times e^{-p^2(s)}$ is concave in x, and $-h(s)c^2(s)e^{-X}$ is concave in x. Hence there are extended real numbers, k_c and k_p , such that (except on a null set), $c^2(s)$ maximizes

108 $h(s)e^{y^3} - p^{\circ}(s)_{x - o k_{c}x}$ (5.8.31) (31)

over x > 0, and p²(s) maximizes

$$-h(s)c^{2}(s)e^{-x} - k_{p}x$$

(5,8.32)

over x > 0.

We shall once and for all exclude the null set on which (31) or (32) is not maximized. Thus, "all s" means "all s in the complement of this set"; "there is a point" refers to the

complement, etc.

First, $k_c < \infty$; for if not, then $c^{\circ}(s) = 0$, all s, violating (27). Similarly, $k_c < \infty$.

Next, $k_c > 0$. To see this, note that the assumptions on v and g imply that $\{s | h(s) > 0\}$ has positive measure. If $k_c \le 0$, then on this set (31) would be strictly increasing in x, hence have no maximizer.

Next, $k_p > 0$. For, first of all, if h(s) = 0, then $c^{\circ}(s) = 0$, since $k_c > 0$ in (31). From (27), there is a point s_1 for which $c^{\circ}(s_1) > 0$; hence also $h(s_1) > 0$. Now if $k_p \le 0$, then for point s_1 (32) would be strictly increasing, hence have no maximizer.

If $c^{\circ}(s) = 0$, then $p^{\circ}(s) = 0$. This follows from k > 0in (32). If $c^{\circ}(s) > 0$, then (32) is strictly concave in x and hence has (at most) one maximizer. This maximizer is zero iff the slope at x = 0 is non-positive. Thus we have

$$\mathbf{p}^{\circ}(\mathbf{s}) = 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{c}^{\circ}(\mathbf{s}) \leq \mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{p}} \qquad (5.8.33)$$

the slope at X = 0 is positive, If (33) fails, the maximizer of (32) is obtained by setting the derivative equal to zero. We find that, if $h(s)c^{2}(s) > k_{p}$, then

$$p^{\circ}(s) = \log \left[h(s)c^{\circ}(s)/k_{p} \right]^{\circ}$$
 (5.8.34)
(34)

Now the set $\{s | p^{\circ}(s) > 0\}$ has positive measure from (27). Hence $c^{\circ}(s)$ maximizes (31) on this set. Substituting from (34) into (31), we find that $c^{\circ}(s)$ maximizes

over $x \ge 0$, for any <u>s</u> such that $p^{\circ}(s) \ge 0$. Since $c^{\circ}(s) \ge 0$, the bracketed expression in (35) must be zero:

$$c^{\circ}(s) = k_p/k_c$$
 (5.8.36)
(36)

(5.8.35) (35)

so that c^o is constant on the set $\{s | p^o(s) > 0\}$.

Next, the two sets $\{s | p^{\circ}(s) > 0\}$ and $\{s | h(s) > k_p/c^{\circ}(s)\}$ are the same. Hence, from (34) and (2/),

 $\frac{109}{109} \int \frac{109}{(h(s)c^{2}(s)/k_{p})\alpha(ds)} = P.$ (5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)
(5.8.37)

From (37) and (25) we obtain $k/c^{\circ}(s) = L$, if $p^{\circ}(s) > 0$, so that, from (36),

 $k_c = L.$ (5.8.38) (38)

Substituting (38) and (36) into (34), we obtain

 $p^{\circ}(s) = \log(h(s)/L)$ (5.9.34) (39)

wherever $p^{\circ}(s) > 0$ (so that h(s) > L on this set).

Now consider the maximization of (31). If $c^{\circ}(s) = 0$, then $p^{\circ}(s) = 0$, and the fact that x = 0 maximizes (31) implies $h(s) \leq k_c$. Hence, from (38),

 $if c^{\circ}(s) = 0$, then $h(s) \leq L$.

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Next let $\underline{c}^{\circ}(\underline{s}) > 0$. The case where $\underline{p}^{\circ}(\underline{s}) > 0$ also has already been discussed, yielding (35) and (36). Suppose $\underline{p}^{\circ}(\underline{s}) = 0$. The fact that $\underline{x} > 0$ maximizes (31) yields $\underline{h}(\underline{s}) = \underline{k}_{\underline{c}} = \underline{L}$. But from (26) this occurs only on a set of measure zero. $\underline{E} = \frac{1}{2}$

We are now finished, For the two sets, $(s|p^{\circ}(s) > 0, \land c^{\circ}(s) > 0)$ and $s|p^{\circ}(s) = 0, c^{\circ}(s) = 0$ together exhaust S, except for a null set. On the latter, $g(v(s)) = h(s) \le L$, and on the former, g(v(s)) > L. (30) is the same as (39). Also, c° is constant on the set $\{s|g(v(s)) > L\}$, and zero off it, so (29) follows from (27).

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To show that $(28)_{N}^{L}(30)$ actually gives an equilibrium pair, one need only verify the shadow price conditions (31) and (32) for some k_{c} , k_{p} , since these are sufficient for unsurpassedness (in fact, for bestness). (c^o, p^o) given by $(28)_{N}^{L}(30)$ do indeed maximize (31), (32), respectively, for $k_{c} = L$, $k_{p} = LC/\alpha\{s|g(v(s)) > L\}$. Verification is left as an exercise.

The equilibrium solution $(2\theta) - (3\theta)$ may be characterized as follows. There are two radically different regimes, a <u>highdensity</u> regime, I (characterized by victim densities satisfying g(v) > L), and a <u>low-density</u> regime, II. In regime II there are no police, no criminals and no crimes. In regime I, while density of police rises with that of victims, the density of criminals is uniform; so is the density of crimes, as one verifies by substituting (29) and (30) into (24). This leads to the surprising conclusion that the most crime-ridden victims are those living at <u>intermediate</u> densities. For, since crime is uniformly distributed in regime I, crimes <u>per victim</u> must be inversely proportional to the density of victims. Starting at the highest victim densities, crimes per victim rise as victim density falls, reaching a peak and then suddenly falling to zero as the critical density is passed and regime II is entered.

Here is another slightly paradoxical implication. Suppose there is an anti-crime drive, and the total police force P, is expanded. Since the integrand in (25) is non-increasing in L, the new equilibrium L must be lower. Total crime - which equals CL - does indeed fall. But in the process the critical victim density falls, and regime I - which is $\{s | g(v(s)) > L\} +$ expands at the expense of regime II. People who were living at densities just below the old critical density will suddenly find themselves engulfed in a crime wave, crimes per victim jumping from zero to the highest level in the system. All this is the result of increased law enforcement!

The explanation, of course, is that the increased "heat" on criminals in the old regime I induces them to disperse into the "greener pastures" of regime II.

The "spillover" effect of law enforcement in one community on the crime rate in neighboring communities has been recognized. It is sometimes claimed that better law enforce ment decreases crime in neighboring communities.¹³ This may
be true with respect to the <u>apprehension</u> of wanted criminals. But insofar as the police serve the function of <u>deterring</u> potential criminals from committing crimes, the argument just given indicates that better law enforcement may well <u>increase</u> crime in the environs.

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This sort of two-régime equilibrium is by no means unusual in game theory.¹⁴ But we would expect any such effect to be blurred when applied to the real world. In general one does not find the intermediate density peaking of crimes per victim as predicted by this model (bank robbery may conform to this pattern, if one defines "victim" density properly). Instead, the usual pattern is for crimes per victim to rise with size of place, and to be inversely related to distance from central city. There are, however, many exceptions, and different types of crime have distinct patterns.¹⁵

There are, of course, any number of ways in which the preceding model could have gone wrong. The three populations are not fixed in size and not homogeneous. The crime function may be misspecified. Movement costs have been ignored. Finally, the motivations of the three populations may have been misspecified. In particular, it is not at all clear that police are allocated to minimize (an index of) total crime. $\frac{16}{3}$

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L. Robbins, <u>An Essay on the Nature and Significance of</u> Economic Science (Macmillan, London, 2nd ed, 1952), page 16.

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²Some work has been done in generalizing $(1)\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(2)$ to a continuum. The calculus of variations may be applied in some special cases. Work beyond this point was begun by Bernard Koopman in 1956. See J. DeGuenin, "Optimum Distribution of Effort : An Extension of the Koopman Basic Theory", Operations Research, 9:1-7, January-February, 1961). Another exposition may be found in S. Karlin, Mathematical Methods and Theory in Games, Programming, and Economics (Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass., 1959), Volume 2, Chapter 8, where the connection with the Neyman-Pearson lemma is stressed. Also see M. E. Yaari, "On the Existence of an Optimal Plan in a Continuous-Time Allocation Process, Econometrica, 32:576-590, October, 1964. For some more recent work on the Neyman-Pearson problem, see R. L. Francis, "On Relationships Between the Neyman-Pearson Problem and Linear Programming", pages 259-279 of Optimizing Methods in Statistics, J. S. Rustagi, editor (Academic Press, New York, 1971), 1

³To be precise, we never choose ε larger than <u>c-x</u>. This insures that x + y remains in the domain of f, so f(x + y) is well-defined.

COTNOTES - CHAPTER 5

⁴On derivates see E. J. McShane and T. A. Botts, Real Analysis (Van Nostrand, Princeton, 1959), pages 110-111.

⁵G. J. Stigler, The Theory of Price (Macmillan, New York, - VEE rev. ed., 1952), pages 119-120.

Condition (59) is even a bit stronger than the sufficient condition (3:2), (2). In (59), the null set for which $\delta^{\circ}(a)$ does not maximize (3.2) is chosen once and for all. But the null set for which (2)fails depends on δ , and conceivably there is no null set E such (3.2) that (2) holds for all δ and all $a \in A \setminus E$.

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⁷cf. G. B. Dantzig and P. Wolfe, "The Decomposition Algorithm for Linear Programs," Econometrica, 29: 767-778. (October 1961)

⁸The concavity and continuity of g_{-9} are of some independent interest, yielding a "comparative statics" result for the preceding theorem, as the parameter L varies in (3).

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⁹Two similar cases come to mind. The law of mass action in chemistry takes reaction rate to be proportional to the concentrations of the reagents. In the Lotka-Volterra theory of predator-prey interaction, encounter frequency is again proportional to the product of the species densities. A. J. Lotka, <u>Elements of Mathematical Biology</u> (Dover, New York, 1956), pages 88 ff.

Englewood Cliffs, N.Y., 1965).

11U.S. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, <u>The Challenge of Crime in a Free</u> <u>Society</u> (Dutton, New York, 1968); M. E. Wolfgang, "Urban Crime", <u>Enapter 8 of The Metropolitan Enigma</u>, J. Q. Wilson, ed. (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1968), especially pages pro-253-263, 276-281.

6¹²Incidentally, using this argument as a guide one can easily develop a <u>dynamic</u> model of redistribution of the two populations from a non-equilibrium position. We shall not go into this.

526 (For example, (13 page 123 of C. M. Tiebout, "A Fure Theory of Local Expenditures, Journal of Political Economy 64: 416-424, (October 1956) 522 (14 See, e.g., M. Dresher, Games of Strategy (Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1961), pages 124-127. (522 15 E. H. Sutherland and D. R. Cressey, Principles of Criminology, (Lippincott, Philadelphia, 7th ed. 1966), pages 187-191. 3 (16 On alternative criteria for the distribution of police, see C. S. Shoup, "Standards for Distributing a Free Covernmental Service: Crime Prevention," Public Finance, 2, No.4, 19: 383-394, 1964; and his Public Finance (Aldine, Chicago, 1969), pages 115-118. A.M. A sixplified version of Section 5.8 is to be found in Faden / Essays in Spatial Economics, Ph.D. Diss., Dept. Econ., Columbia Univ., 1967.