

Citizen preferences and the architecture of government Jean-Marc Bourgeon, Marie-Laure Breuillé

▶ To cite this version:

Jean-Marc Bourgeon, Marie-Laure Breuillé. Citizen preferences and the architecture of government. 2020. hal-01869133v2

HAL Id: hal-01869133 https://hal.science/hal-01869133v2

Preprint submitted on 9 Sep 2020 (v2), last revised 19 Jul 2021 (v5)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Citizen preferences and the architecture of government

Jean-Marc Bourgeon^{*} Marie-Laure Breuillé[†]

September 9, 2020

Abstract

We consider the division of a territory into administrative districts responsible for providing a set of goods and services to residents who are sensitive to service congestion. We deduce the optimal architecture of public governance (i.e. the division of government into several levels, the distribution of services among them, their number of jurisdictions and the size of their administrations), which depends on how citizens weigh the performance capacity of administrations and the services they produce. We compare it to a decentralized organization where each jurisdiction is free to choose the size and scope of its administration. The resulting architecture generally involves more countries with fewer levels of administration than the optimal one. We use our results to estimate citizen preferences using U.S. data. We find that the country is divided into two zones ("Northeast & West" and "Midwest & South") whose estimated values are statistically different.

Keywords: Decentralization, Fiscal Federalism, Public Governance. **JEL classification**: H11, H77

^{*}INRAE, UMR économie Publique, 16 rue Claude Bernard, F-75231 Paris, France, and CREST - Ecole Polytechnique, France. Email: bourgeon@agroparistech.fr.

[†]INRAE, UMR1041 CESAER, Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté, AgroSup Dijon, F-21000 Dijon, France. Email: marie.breuille@inrae.fr.

We are grateful to Julie Le Gallo, Anne-Laure Samson, to seminar participants at the economic department of Ecole Polytechnique, TSE, BETA, the Goethe University Frankfurt, the UCLouvain Belgo-Japanese Public Finance workshop and the CESIfo Applied Microeconomics and Political Economy workshops.

1 Introduction

The architecture of government (AG), i.e. the organizational layout and functionality of a country's public administration in totality (the number of its tiers and jurisdictions per tier, their geographical distribution, the size of their administrations, and the services they are in charge of providing to their citizenry), differs widely over the world. The number of tiers of sub-national authorities ranges from five, such as in the Philippines, to only one, such as in Kuwait. The number of jurisdictions in each tier also varies widely: focusing on the bottom-most tier of municipal authorities in Europe, 40% are located in a single country: France. Moreover, forms of public governance are regularly changing. As pointed out by the OECD (2014), half of OECD countries (often guided by cost reduction considerations) have planned or completed reforms to redraw the map of AGs in the past 15 years, through municipal-mergers, inter-municipal cooperation, or metropolitan governance. Denmark totally reorganized its AG in 2007; the number of municipalities dropped from 271 to 98 through a series of mergers, and its 13 counties were replaced by 5 regions (Dexia, 2007). Latvia reduced the number of municipalities from 527 to 105 in 2009, and France its number of metropolitan regions from 22 to 13 in 2016. Fewer countries have acted in the opposite direction by increasing the number of municipalities. The United States, however, is one such country; its number of municipalities (including towns and townships) increased from 1952 to 2012 by 5.5%. Although these opposing approaches are admittedly the outcome of country-specific differences in geography, history, and political and social movements, they nevertheless raise the question of the desirable properties of an ideal AG (if any such exist).

In this paper, we analyze this issue in a theoretical framework that allows us to derive the optimal AG, i.e. the number of countries, tiers and jurisdictions per tier, the size of the administrations, and the goods they produce at each level, and to compare it to a "decentralized" form of government where sub-national jurisdictions have some leeway in determining the scope and the capacity of their administration.

Our analytical framework is rooted in the nations (one-tier jurisdiction) formation model of Alesina & Spolaore (1997, hereafter AS). In their model, the world is a linear segment populated by a continuum of individuals uniformly distributed and identified by their geographical locations. They consider the emergence of countries, i.e. independent jurisdictions, whose governments provide a composite public good. Individuals face two types of costs, namely a "cost of distance" (to reach the location of their jurisdiction's seat of government) and a "cost of government" (i.e. the production cost of the public good). We extend this framework to determine the internal organization of a country, detailing the public task into the many goods and services that a government is responsible for, each of them being characterized by an accessibility parameter that determines the citizens' access cost (which, like the "cost of distance" in AS, is also a function of the distance between the citizen and the location of the corresponding public facility) and the production cost. We allow for as many layers of overlapping jurisdictions as necessary for governments to best serve their citizenry. It is thus a multi-tier, multi-good setup where the linear segment is partitioned at each tier into jurisdictions, each jurisdiction being in charge of producing the tier-specific bundle of public goods. We also detail the production cost that depends both on the jurisdiction's scope (i.e., the set of public goods that its administration produces) and on the size of its administration (i.e., the productive capital and labor involved). The administration size matters for citizens, since the resources devoted to its activity enable it to better meet their needs, and in particular to contain congestion effects. It thus determines the quality of public activity as experienced by citizens. In the following, we use interchangeably "size", "performance ability" or "capability" of the administration to refer to its capacity to contain congestion effects. Hence, increasing the capacity of the administration comes with higher production costs. Economies of scope can be achieved by increasing the number of services produced by a jurisdiction, but there is a trade-off between the quality and the number of services provided by the same administration. The optimal balance depends on citizen preferences and affects the overall organization of the government.

The territorial organization also depends on the leeway given to jurisdictions. We consider two cases: the first-best situation where all jurisdictions are ruled by a benevolent and omniscient planner, and a decentralized organization where decision-makers at each tier decide on the scope of activities and the size of their administration to maximize the welfare of their constituency without accounting for the decisions made by other tiers. We derive the optimal AG in the latter case by assuming that a social planner decides on the number of countries, tiers and jurisdictions per tier and makes sure that there is no overlap of activities, i.e., no public good is produced by jurisdictions belonging to two different tiers. It is a second-best optimum because the social planner delegates to jurisdictional authorities with narrow objectives the management of their administration. We assume in both cases that the budget of each jurisdiction is balanced and that its production cost is financed by a lump-sum tax.¹

¹AS offers a study of the process of democratization which is different from decentralization. Following Friedman (1977), they compare a democratic world, where the number of nations results

The optimal AG is driven by four parameters, one related to the valuation of the public activity (the weights citizens assign to the administration's capacity and scope of activities are given by β and $1 - \beta$ respectively), one that reflects the preference for a simple AG, and the last two related to the production cost of the administration and the residents' access cost. We first derive the characteristics of the one-tier equivalent of AS in our setup. While an increase of the production cost diminishes the number of jurisdictions in AS, it decreases the administration capacity of each jurisdiction but increases their number in our one-tier equivalent. Hence, the capacity of each administration is reduced, but this is somewhat compensated by a reduction in the citizens' access cost. These properties remain true when allowing for several layers of governments. Our setup also allows us to derive the effect of a change in the citizens' preferences. In the one-tier case, the number of jurisdictions decreases when β increases because of the increase in the production cost due to the increase in the administrations' size. In the multi-tier case, the shape of the AG depends on β being larger or smaller than 1/4 (the mid-value of (0, 1/2)), the relevant interval for β). When $\beta > 1/4$ the number of jurisdictions per level increases, and the perimeter of their administration are increasingly wider, the one of the central government being reduced compared to the $\beta = 1/4$ case. This is the reverse when $\beta < 1/4$, with the scope of the upper tier being enlarged compared to $\beta = 1/4$, and the sub-national tiers having decreasing scopes. We also obtain that, proceeding downward in the vertical structure of the AG, the administration's size decreases (both in absolute and per capita terms), the degree of jurisdictional dispersion (i.e. the ratio of the numbers of jurisdictions of two consecutive tiers) increases when $\beta > 1/4$ and decreases otherwise. As a result, the per capita production cost, and the satisfaction that citizens derive from the activity of each level of government, may decrease or increase as one moves down the AG. We obtain that both increase if β is lower than 1/4 and decrease otherwise.

Allowing for decentralized decision-making, i.e. jurisdictions that are free to select their range of services and the capacity of their administration to perform them, we obtain that the jurisdiction scopes relative to their administration capacity is larger than under the first-best AG. Indeed, while the social planner would arbitrate between two consecutive tiers to determines their scopes, jurisdictions' choices under decentralization are based solely on the satisfaction of their residents with their own activity,

from majority votes, to a world of dictators, i.e. rent-maximizing governments who decide on the size and shape of nations such as to maximize their joint potential net revenues. Also note that the democratic world is composed of an excessive number of nations compared to the first-best (that would be reached if the world were ruled by a social planner) unless individuals located far from the seat of government were compensated so that they would not vote in favor of creating a new country.

neglecting the detrimental impact of increasing their scope on the lower tier in the AG. To limit this negative effect, the social planner modifies the AG by adjusting the number of tiers and jurisdictions per tier. Hence, decentralization affects the whole AG, which generally involves more states with fewer levels of administration than the optimal one.

The results of our structural model permit estimation of the citizen preference parameter β using standard panel data procedures. We conducted this empirical investigation using U.S. data on annual federal and state expenditures, share of population, and density (together with data on income per capita and on the partian composition of the state legislatures) over the period 1977-2015. Assuming the same citizen preferences across the country, we obtain an overall estimate for β equal to 0.18, a value that is neither influenced by the partian composition of state legislatures nor by other characteristics such as income and population density. However, disaggregating the country according to the four regional divisions used by the Census Bureau (Midwest, Northeast, South, West), we obtain that this weight is lower in the Northeast and West (0.182 and 0.147) than in the Midwest and South (0.279 and 0.238). Gathering these four regions into two zones, we obtain 0.153 for the Northeast & West zone and 0.251 for the Midwest & South zone, estimates that are statistically different. We can therefore infer that citizens in the Northeast and West regions are more appreciative of state-provided services than those provided by the federal government, whereas citizens in the Midwest and South are more likely to be equally satisfied with both levels of government.

Our paper builds a bridge between the literature on the formation of jurisdictions and the literature on fiscal federalism by formalizing the vertical dimension of the formation of jurisdictions. The literature on the formation of jurisdictions, which analyzes the equilibrium partition of a population into several jurisdictions and their political stability, has been quite extensive over the last twenty years. The breakup or unification of nations has been modelled as the result of a trade-off either between the efficiency gains of unification and the costs in terms of loss of control in political decision making (Bolton & Roland, 1997) or, more commonly, between benefits from economies of scale in the production of public goods and costs from preferences heterogeneity (AS, Jehiel & Scotchmer, 2001). A cooperative game theory approach is usually used to study the political stability of jurisdictions (Guesnerie & Oddou, 1981; Greenberg & Weber, 1986; Demange, 1994; Casella, 2001; Bogomolnaia et al., 2006, 2008, among others). Although the coexistence of several clubs of different sizes was studied by Hochman et al. (1995), the vertical dimension of the formation of jurisdictions, i.e. the partition of the country into overlapping tiers, is missing in this literature. By contrast, some recent works in the fiscal federalism literature focus on the vertical dimension to determine the optimal level of decentralization of a unique public good (Panizza, 1999) or the partition of a continuum of identical public goods (Wilson & Janeba, 2005). Their framework, however, is restricted to two tiers, i.e., a central government and an exogenous number of same-tier sub-national jurisdictions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the multi-tier framework. Section 3 characterizes the optimal AG. Section 4 investigates the impact of decentralized decision-making. The empirical investigation is detailed in section 5. The last section concludes. All proofs are in the appendix.

2 The model

Following the spatial approach of Hotelling (1929), consider a territory with a continuum of residents uniformly distributed over a segment. The size of the territory and the population mass are both normalized to unity. Each resident is identified by her/his geographical location, i.e. a point on the segment, supposed to be fixed. We are interested in both the horizontal and vertical organization of governments, i.e. the numbers of jurisdictional tiers and jurisdictions per tier, that are responsible for providing a set of public goods to these residents. Some of these goods are readily accessible by all, such as the protection provided by the army of the country and the foreign affairs and intelligence services, while others, such as the natural amenities found in a park or the education dispensed in an elementary school, are enjoyable more or less depending on their locations relative to the citizens. To capture this accessibility concern in a tractable way, we consider that the public task is to provide a continuum of goods $[1, \bar{x}]$, the cost borne by a resident to access to good $x \in [1, \bar{x}]$ produced by a public facility located at distance ℓ from her home being given by $\alpha x \ell$ where $\alpha > 0$ is the access cost parameter.^{2,3} To handle this production problem, a government is

²The extent of the rivalry and excludability characteristics of theses goods/services may vary and some of them may even be private goods. We do not discuss in the following the overall scope of the services $[1, \bar{x}]$ and we suppose that the exogenous upper bound \bar{x} is the cut-off between the public and the private sectors.

³In the examples given above, military protection corresponds to an access cost close to 0 (arguably strictly positive for citizens living on the borders of the territory) and thus we may expect $0 < \alpha < 1$. Observe that at equal distance from home, the accessibility parameter of children's education may be larger than the one associated to natural amenities offered by a park due to inherent constraints, such as the frequency of trips to and from the school and the ease with which parents can conform to the school's operating hours.

composed of jurisdictional tiers, indexed by $t \in \{0, ..., T\}$, charged to produce a subset of these services. Tier t = 0 is the top level, the central/federal jurisdiction, which produces the most accessible public goods, while t = T is the bottom-most one, which may correspond to villages or the districts of big cities, in charge of producing the less accessible goods. Each citizen thus belongs to T+1 overlapping jurisdictions, i.e. T sub-national jurisdictions plus the central jurisdiction, each being responsible for delivering a specific bundle of services. The tier t's task is to produce public goods belonging to the subset $(x_{t-1}, x_t]$, with $x_{-1} = 1$ and $x_T = \overline{x}$. More precisely, at each level t, the territory is divided in n_t jurisdictions indexed by $z_t, z_t \in \{1, \ldots, n_t\}$, the case $n_0 \geq 2$ corresponding to a territory divided in two countries or more, each having its own AG. Jurisdiction z_t rules over the area $S_{z_t} \subseteq [0,1]$, with $S_{z_t} \cap S_{z'_t} = \emptyset$ and $\bigcup_{z_t=1}^{n_t} S_{z_t} = [0, 1]$, and is geographically defined by three points: its two borders and the location ρ_{z_t} of its public facility which is also where its residents have to go to enjoy the public goods produced by its administration. Hence, to obtain the whole set of public goods, citizen *i* incurs a total access cost $\alpha \sum_{t=0}^{T} \ell_{it} \int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} x dx$, where $\ell_{it} \equiv |i - \rho_{z_t}|$ represents the distance to reach the location ρ_{z_t} of the public facility in tier t. Figure 1 gives an example of AG.

In addition to the citizens' access cost, a jurisdiction incurs a production cost that depends on the range of the public goods it provides and the performance ability of the administration that serves citizens. We suppose that this performance depends on the resources used for the production (staff, size of the public facility, amount of capital), i.e. that it is commensurate with the administration's size.⁴ We also assume that the production cost of a good is larger the higher its accessibility parameter x regardless of the capacity of the administration,⁵ but that it can achieve economies of scope by producing a wide range of public goods. More precisely, denoting by c(g, x) the cost of producing good x by an administration of size g, the production cost of the bundle $(x_{t-1}, x_t]$ of services by the same administration of size g_{z_t} is given by

$$C_{z_t} = C(g_{z_t}, (x_{t-1}, x_t]) = \int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} c(g_{z_t}, x) dx \bigg/ \int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} dx$$

Without economies of scope, the production cost would be given by $\int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} c(g_{z_t}, x) dx$. Economies of scope arise from having the same administration to produce the full

⁴In addition to the construction or the rental cost of the public facility, large administrations receiving the public necessitate more staff (administrative, security and maintenance staff) and equipment than small ones.

⁵For instance, the per capita cost of country's military or intelligence services is lower than the per capita cost of primary school teachers.



Figure 1: Example of government architecture. The height of the box corresponds to the total range of public goods: $[1, \bar{x}]$. Its length is the size of the territory (normalized to 1) that belongs to a single country $(n_0 = 1)$. Horizontal segments delineate tiers, with vertical distances between them corresponding to the range of public goods produced at each level. The dots represent the location and the capacity of public facilities. The first tier, t = 0, is the central government that provides a range $[1, x_0]$ of goods for the entire country. Its administration has a large capacity and is centrally located. The second level, t = 1, is composed of 4 regions of same size, their public facilities are centrally located and produce public goods $(x_0, x_1]$ for their residents. Their capacity is smaller than that of the central government. The third tier, t = 2, entails 12 departments, 3 for each region. These subdivisions continue down to the last tier level T (e.g. the city level) that produces the remaining range of public services, $(x_{T-1}, \bar{x}]$. range of services $\int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} dx = x_t - x_{t-1}$. We suppose that the c(g, x) increases with the accessibility parameter and the capacity of the administration: $c'_x(g, x) > 0$, $c'_g(g, x) > 0$ and $c''_{xg}(g, x) > 0$. To ease computations, we consider the case c(g, x) = kgx, with k > 0, which yields $C_{z_t} = kg_{z_t}(x_t + x_{t-1})/2$. In this expression, the production cost is proportional to the product of the administration's size and the average accessibility parameter of the bundle of goods produced. These production costs are covered by a lump-sum tax τ_{z_t} paid by each resident of the jurisdiction z_t . As tier-t encompasses n_t jurisdictions, the aggregated cost induced by the production of all public goods nationwide amounts to $\sum_{t=0}^T \sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} C_{z_t}$.

Each citizen *i* derives a utility from both the public goods provided but also from the administration's capacity of each of the T + 1 jurisdictions to which he or she belongs. Indeed, congestion effects are reduced by an increase in the administration's capacity, i.e. the larger the administration capacity, the easier it is for citizens to enjoy the goods and services it produces.^{6,7} We neglect possible complementarity/substitutability between public goods and assume that the utility of individuals increases with the range of goods produced by a public facility. We denote by $u_t = u(g_{z_t}, (x_{t-1}, x_t])$ the gross amount of utility (expressed in monetary terms) that the citizen derives from the task performed by his/her tier-*t* jurisdiction and we assume that it is given by

$$u(g_{z_t}, (x_{t-1}, x_t]) = g_{z_t}^{\beta} \left(\int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} dx \right)^{1-\beta} = g_{z_t}^{\beta} \left(x_t - x_{t-1} \right)^{1-\beta}$$

where β and $1-\beta$ reflect the importance that the citizen places on the administration's capacity and its scope of services respectively. The citizen total gross utility from the public activity is thus given by $\sum_{t=0}^{T} u_t$ which must be larger than the production and access costs. In our setup, it is shown in the appendix that this is the case at the optimum if $\beta < 1/2$. Furthermore, we suppose that citizens have a preference for a simple AG, i.e. one that involves a reduced number of levels. Indeed, the more complex the government structure, the more difficult it is to know which administration to turn to for a given service. We denote by νT the cognitive cost (expressed in monetary terms) of an AG involving T levels in addition to the central government.⁸

Observe that without congestion effect (which corresponds to the case $\beta = 0$ since

⁶For example, with more staff in the public facility, it can be expected that queues will be reduced and paperwork completed in a timely fashion. Or, with more spending on public transport, a city may increase the frequency of its buses.

⁷Alternatively, g_{z_t} could be considered as a measure of the overall quality of the administration, which depends on both the public infrastructure and the staff employed.

⁸Of course, ν must be sufficiently small to have more than one level of government.

the administration's capacity is irrelevant), the citizen's gross utility would depend only on the total range of public services, $\bar{x} - 1$, whatever the AG. The size of the administration would be minimal and only the access cost would matter. Accounting for the capability of the administration ($\beta > 0$) introduces a trade-off between the scope of each jurisdiction and the size of its administration. The first-best is achieved assuming that this arbitrage is resolved by a benevolent social planner who considers the whole AG to determine the jurisdictions size, scope and administration capacity at each tier level. In the context of decentralization, this arbitrage is resolved sequentially, from the highest to the lowest level, with each jurisdiction being allowed to choose the capacity of its administration and its scope among the tasks not yet chosen.

3 The socially optimal AG

Consider a benevolent social planner aiming at maximizing the social welfare, who chooses the desirable division of the territory into countries and sub-national tiers, the geographical boundaries of each jurisdiction, the location and the size of their administration, and the range of public goods they produce. The corresponding optimization problem is given by

$$\max_{T,\{x_t,n_t,\{S_{z_t},\rho_{z_t},g_{z_t}\}_{z_t=1}^{n_t}\}_{t=0}^T} \sum_{t=0}^{n_t} \sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} \left[\int_{S_{z_t}} \left(g_{z_t}^{\beta} \left(x_t - x_{t-1} \right)^{1-\beta} - \alpha \ell_{it} \int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} x dx \right) di - C_{z_t} \right] - \nu T$$
(1)

under $x_{-1} = 1$, $x_T = \overline{x}$ and $\sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} S_{z_t} = 1$ for all t. Because individuals are uniformly located in the territory, it is easily shown that

Lemma 1 At each tier t, the territory is divided into n_t jurisdictions of equal size. Their administrations are located at the center of the jurisdiction and have the same capacity.

Due to the symmetry of the jurisdictions at each tier level, they have the same production cost and administration capacity, i.e. $C_{z_t} = C_t$ and $g_{z_t} = g_t$ for all t, and the average access cost of their residents is the same. The social planner's program can be restated as

$$\max_{T,\{n_t,x_t,g_t\}_{t=0}^T} \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^T W(x_{t-1},x_t,g_t,n_t) - \nu T : x_{-1} = 1, x_T = \overline{x} \right\}$$
(2)

where

$$W(x_{t-1}, x_t, g_t, n_t) \equiv g_t^\beta \left(x_t - x_{t-1} \right)^{1-\beta} - \frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2 \right)}{8n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right)}{2}$$
(3)

corresponds to the net average welfare at the tier-t level. More precisely, the second term in (3) is the average per capita access cost in a tier-t jurisdiction and the last term is the per capita production cost of its administration. Indeed, since there are n_t jurisdictions at tier t, the proportion of citizens resorting to one of each of these jurisdictions is $1/n_t$. Hence, to satisfy its budget constraints, the government at tier t must levy a per capita tax equal to $\tau_t = n_t C_t$. Also, for the range of good produced by the jurisdiction we have $\int_{x_{t-1}}^{x_t} x dx = (x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2)/2$ while the average distance to the administration is $2 \int_0^{1/(2n_t)} i di = 1/(4n_t^2)$, hence the expression of the average per capita access cost.

Differentiating (3) with respect to n_t , we obtain

$$n_t \sqrt{\frac{g_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}}} = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{4k}} \tag{4}$$

which highlights the arbitrage at each tier level between the number of jurisdictions, their scope, and the size of their administration. If $x_t - x_{t-1} = g_t = 1$, we obtain that n_t is equal to the optimal number of jurisdictions in the one-tier analysis of AS, $\sqrt{\alpha/4k}$.⁹ Because the average access cost decreases and the production cost increases in (3) when n_t increases, this value corresponds to the optimal arbitrage in that case. In our setup, these costs also depend on the administration scope and capacity. Differentiating (3) with respect to g_t gives

$$g_t = (x_t - x_{t-1}) \left(\frac{4\beta}{\sqrt{\alpha k}(x_t + x_{t-1})}\right)^{\frac{2}{1-2\beta}}.$$
 (5)

and thus

$$n_t = \left(\frac{\alpha^{1-\beta}k^{\beta}}{2^{3-2\beta}\beta}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-2\beta}} (x_t + x_{t-1})^{\frac{1}{1-2\beta}}.$$
 (6)

Drawing a parallel with the analysis of AS by restricting the number of tiers to 1

⁹Of course, the number of jurisdictions (and the number of tiers T) are discrete variables, and this value corresponds to an approximation that allows us to perform comparative static exercises. More generally, the social planner's objective (2) corresponds to a mixed-integer programming problem that is solved using algorithmic methods rather than differential calculus. In order to characterize the optimal AG of this section and of the following, we consider the "relaxations" of the corresponding mixed-integer programs, i.e. problems where all variables are treated as continuous variables.

(t = T = 0), with $x_0 = \bar{x} = 2$ to normalize the public task to 1, we obtain that $g_0 = \left(\frac{4\beta}{(3\sqrt{\alpha k})}\right)^{\frac{2}{1-2\beta}}$ which diminishes with k and α and increases with β , and $n_0 = \left(\frac{3\alpha^{1-\beta}k^{\beta}}{(2^{3-2\beta}\beta)}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-2\beta}}$ that increases with k and α (and from (4), we also deduce that it diminishes with β). Hence, contrary to AS, n_0 increases with k. This is due to the fact that the average per capita access cost diminishes rapidly with n_t (its derivative is proportional to n_t^{-2}) while the production cost increases linearly with both n_t and g_t . Hence, when it is possible to adjust the capacity of the administrations, an increase in the access cost or in the production cost parameter results in a downsizing of the administration that is compensated by an increase in the number of jurisdictions. In other words, to remain at an optimal welfare level when costs are increased exogenously, the size of public facilities is reduced but the proximity of the government to the citizen is improved by a larger number of jurisdictions.

By limiting government to one level of administration (T = 0), the whole set of public goods is produced by the central government of a country, and $n_0 \geq 2$ means that the territory must be separated into several independent states. By relaxing this constraint, i.e. by allowing countries to have several levels of jurisdictions, it is possible to increase the proximity of government to citizens by dividing the public task between the jurisdictional levels of a nation, with the least accessible services being produced by local administrations. Therefore, the term $x_t + x_{t-1}$ in (6), which is equal to $x_0 + x_{-1} = \bar{x} + 1$ when T = 0, is possibly reduced (if T > 0 and thus $x_0 < \bar{x}$ at the optimum of the social planner's program), which diminishes the desirable number of countries. The optimal sharing of task between tiers satisfies $\partial W_t/\partial x_t = \partial W_{t+1}/\partial x_t$ for all $t = 0, \ldots, T - 1$, i.e. the marginal welfare gain from an increase in services provided by tier t should be equal to the marginal welfare loss resulting from the induced decrease in services at level t+1. As apparent in (5) and (6), the administration capacity and the number of jurisdictions at the optimum are functions of the optimal sharing of tasks between tiers $\{1, x_0, \ldots, x_t, \ldots, \bar{x}\}$. Problem (2) is thus solved by determining the optimal apportionment of tasks. It turns out that it is convenient to express x_t recursively, i.e. $x_t = \lambda_t x_{t-1}$, and to look for the optimal sequence of magnification parameters $\lambda_c \equiv \{\lambda_{c0}, \ldots, \lambda_{cT}\}$, with $\lambda_{ct} > 1$ for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$ and $\lambda_{cT} = \bar{x} / \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \lambda_{ct}$. We obtain the following results

Proposition 1 When $\beta = 1/4$, the sequence λ_c is degenerate, i.e. $\lambda_{ct} = \lambda_c$ for all t < T, and λ_c and T are solution of

$$\max_{\lambda_{c},T} \left\{ \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\alpha k}} \left(T \frac{\lambda_{c} - 1}{\lambda_{c} + 1} + \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_{c}^{T}}{\bar{x} + \lambda_{c}^{T}} \right) - \nu T : \lambda_{c}^{T+1} \ge \bar{x} > \lambda_{c}^{T} \right\}$$
(7)

provided that $\nu\sqrt{\alpha k} < g_c(\bar{x})/2$ where $g_c(\lambda) \equiv (\lambda^2 - 1 - 2\lambda \ln \lambda)/(\lambda + 1)^2$ is strictly increasing over $(1, +\infty)$ and bounded above by 1. In that case λ_c is implicitly defined by $\lambda_c = g_c^{-1}(2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k})$. λ_c increases with ν, α and k, and is larger than $(1 + \sqrt{2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k}})/(1 - \sqrt{2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k}})$. We must have $k\alpha^3 < 1/4$ for $n_0 \leq 1$, and $n_0 \geq 2$ if $\nu\sqrt{\alpha k} \geq (1 - (k\alpha^3)^{1/4})^2/2$.

When $\beta \neq 1/4$, the sequence λ_c is defined recursively. If β is close enough to 1/4 so that optimal T is unaffected, λ_c is increasing, i.e. $\lambda_{ct} > \lambda_{ct-1}$ for $t = 1, \ldots, T-1$, with first term $\lambda_{0c} < \lambda_c$ if $\beta > 1/4$ and $\alpha k < 1$, and decreasing with first term $\lambda_{0c} > \lambda_c$ if $\beta < 1/4$ and $\alpha k < 1$.

Prop. 1 gives the condition on the cost parameters to have more than one level of government in the case $\beta = 1/4$ (the middle value of the relevant range (0, 1/2)): it is given by $2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k} < g_c(\bar{x})$ which is bounded above by 1. Hence, we must have $\nu\sqrt{\alpha k} < c$ 1/2 and \bar{x} sufficiently large. Not surprisingly, the access cost and production parameters must be small $(k\alpha^3 < 1/4)$ for a single country to rule the entire territory. It is shown in the Appendix that the sequence of magnification parameters λ_c is defined recursively from its first term, λ_{c0} . In the case $\beta = 1/4$, the recursion is degenerate, i.e. $\lambda_{ct} = \lambda_c$ for all t < T, with λ_c obtained from solving (7). This reduced program reveals that the net utility is the same for each tier but the last one, given by $(2\sqrt{\alpha k})^{-1}(\lambda_c-1)/(\lambda_c+1)$. The optimal λ_c increases when one of the cost parameters, α, k or ν , is exogenously raised. For $\beta \neq 1/4$, magnification parameters are no longer constant. The corresponding program is given in the appendix and it is shown that when β is close to 1/4, they are approximately given by $\lambda_{ct} \approx \lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma)$ where $\gamma > 0$ and $\Delta < 0$ when $\alpha k < 1$, and $\Delta > 0$ when $\alpha k > 1$. Hence, assuming that the cost parameters are not too large, this corresponds to a spreading of the sequence terms when β is larger than 1/4, with a small initial value ($\lambda_{c0} < \lambda_c$), hence a reduced scope for the central government compared to $\beta = 1/4$, and scopes increasingly wider for sub-national levels since the magnification parameters λ_{ct} are increasing for all t < T. Indeed, comparing scopes between to successive levels, we get

$$\frac{x_{t+1} - x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} = \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct} - 1}\right)\lambda_{ct} \approx \left(1 + \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c - 1}\right)\lambda_{ct}$$

neglecting second-order terms. It goes the other way around for low values of β , i.e. a central state with a large scope, and ratios of scopes that are decreasing going down the AG (as depicted Fig. 1). The next proposition spells out some other important properties of the optimal AG:

Proposition 2 The degree of territorial dispersion, relative per capita administration capacity and relative level of utility satisfy

$$\frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct} + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa} \lambda_{ct}^{1/\kappa},$$
$$\frac{n_t g_t}{n_{t+1} g_{t+1}} = \lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa}$$

and

$$\frac{u_{t+1}}{u_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct} - 1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct+1} + 1}\right)^{2\beta/\kappa} \lambda_t^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa},$$

for t = 1, ..., T - 2, where $\kappa = 1 - 2\beta > 0$.

When β is close to 1/4, proceeding down the AG to the penultimate level i/ the number of jurisdictions increases, at an increasing (decreasing) rate when $\beta >$

$$1/4 \ (\beta < 1/4)$$

ii/ the degree of jurisdictional dispersion is stable if $\beta = 1/4$, increases if $\beta > 1/4$ and decreases if $\beta < 1/4$.

iii/ the per capita administration's capacity decreases, at an increasing (decreasing) rate when $\beta > 1/4$ ($\beta < 1/4$)

iv/ the satisfaction that citizens derive from public activity is constant if $\beta = 1/4$, increases if $\beta < 1/4$ and decreases if $\beta > 1/4$.

The above formulas simplify nicely when $\beta = 1/4$: the degree of jurisdictional dispersion in tier t, defined as n_{t+1}/n_t , i.e. the number of jurisdictions in tier t + 1 which geographically belong to the same jurisdiction in tier t, is given by λ_c^2 for all t < T, and the capacity of the administration is the largest at the central level (tier 0) and decreases at rate λ_c^3 as one proceeds down the AG. Hence, the administration at the bottom-most tier, the one the closest to its citizenry (usually, a town), has the smallest administration's size although it produces public goods in the upper range of the cost parameter, i.e. the more costly in terms of production and accessibility for the citizen (like garbage collection or elementary education). At the other extreme, the central government has the largest administration. Both the fraction of the population belonging to a jurisdiction (given by $1/n_t$) and the administration's size decrease with moving down the AG. Comparing the administration's capacity per capita at different levels, we get $g_t n_t = g_{t-1}n_{t-1}/\lambda_c$, hence capacities that also decrease down the AG. The citizens' satisfaction u_t is the same for all tiers (but the last one), as are per capita

production and average access costs, which represent $2\beta = 50\%$ of the utility. As stated in Prop. 2, these general features about the number of jurisdictions and the capacity of their administrations do not change much when β is different from 1/4; only the rate of decrease or increase are affected, depending on the case at hand. However, as noted above, relative jurisdictions scopes are affected by β , as well as the relative citizen satisfaction: when β is large ($\beta > 1/4$), citizens are more satisfied with the central government than they are with sub-national levels, and the reverse otherwise. Since costs are proportional to utility, the production and average access costs at the top tier are also lower than those of sub-national levels.

As noted above for $\beta = 1/4$, a rise in the cost parameters α, k or ν , increases λ_c and thus the number of jurisdictions per tier and their range of services. The increase in n_t is reminiscent of the discussion regarding (4) which increases with α and k. The increase in scopes indicates that when these costs are very large, the territory is divided into a large number of countries with only one level of government. Conversely, when these parameters are small, the number of nations is small (possibly only one country rule the entire territory if $k\alpha^3 < 1/4$), but their governments have several levels of jurisdictions.

4 Decentralization

So far, we have considered jurisdictions that are managed by social planner appointees with no leeway to pursue their own political agendas. We now consider that at each level, (elected) governments decide on their own jurisdiction's range of services and administration capacity. Every jurisdiction thus has the possibility of doing what it considers best for its citizens, which may not be perfectly aligned with the social planner's view. This could be because the jurisdictional authorities do not have a say on the decisions of the other tiers' jurisdictions to which their constituents also belong, or simply because the decisions of these levels concern either a wider group of citizens (higher jurisdictions in the AG), or subsets of their constituents (lower jurisdictions in the AG).

More precisely, we assume that decision-makers decide on the range of services and the size of their administrations in order to maximize the welfare of their own constituencies, given by (3) for a jurisdiction of tier t. As observed above, without congestion effects ($\beta = 0$), as the citizen's utility is additively separable with respect to the public goods, re-assignment of public tasks between tiers do not affect the welfare as long as the tiers' scopes do not overlap. This is not the case when the operating capacity of the administration matters since the size of each administration should be adjusted to its scope. As shown in the following, the entire AG is affected depending on the way the public task is apportioned between tiers. We consider a bottom-up apportionment procedure, dubbed "decentralization", that is illustrative of the recent evolution in which states are involved.

More precisely, decentralization is introduced into the AG problem as a multi-stage delegation game where the social planner first determines the number of countries and jurisdictions in each tier level (n_t for each potential t), and then delegates to their decision-makers the choice of the range of services and the size of their administration in an decreasing order of precedence along the AG.¹⁰ Delegation to decision-makers is operated successively from tier 0 to the last tier: the planner first asks decision-makers of tier 0 to choose g_0 and x_0 . This policy maximizes (3) where $t = 0, x_{-1} = 1$. Then, the planner asks the decision-makers of tier t = 1 to do the same for their respective constituents under the constraint that the lower bound of their scope of services, x_0 , corresponds to the choice made by tier t = 0 to avoid that their services overlap. Given their constituents, they all maximize (3) where t = 1, $x_{t-1} = x_0$ with respect to x_1 and q_1 . The planner then asks the decision-makers of tier t = 2 to do the same for their respective citizenry under the constraint that the lower bound of their jurisdiction's range of services corresponds to the choice of the tier t = 1 decision-maker that rules the jurisdiction above them. The process continues until the last tier, t = T, which range is given by $[x_{T-1}, \bar{x}]$ and thus has only to determine its administration capacity g_T .

Before deriving the resulting AG, it is interesting to determine how a jurisdiction with objective (3) would modify the allocation of services or the capacity of its administration compared to the first-best levels if it is given the choice.

Proposition 3 If assigned their first-best scope, jurisdictions of tier-t would choose the same administration size as the social planner. However, if assigned their first-best administration capacity, these jurisdictions have an incentive to carry out the services assigned to upper tiers in the AG, and to lower tiers too if $\beta \leq (1/\lambda_{ct} + 1)/4$.

Not surprisingly, if decision-makers are constrained in their range of services, they would not change the capacity of their administration compared to the first-best ones, since their objective in this case coincides with that of the social planner. The changes

¹⁰We assume that jurisdictions do not coordinate either between themselves (horizontally) or with other tiers (vertically).

to the range of services mentioned in Prop. 3 come from the fact that the social planner compares the benefits of allocating the production of goods to jurisdictions at two consecutive levels to determine the best allocation, whereas local decision-makers only consider the effects on their own jurisdiction. Given the first-best AG, it is always beneficial for a local decision-maker to broaden the range of services of his administration by taking over the production of low-cost public goods. Indeed, by increasing its scope, a jurisdiction increases the citizen satisfaction by $(1 - \beta)/(x_t - x_{t-1})$ percent. It also reduces the production cost of its administration by $n_t k g_t/2$, but increases the average access cost by $\alpha x_{t-1}/(4n_t)$. Hence, the total marginal benefit is

$$\frac{n_t k g_t}{2} - \frac{\alpha x_{t-1}}{4n_t} + \frac{(1-\beta)u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}}.$$
(8)

At the social optimum, the production and access costs of the jurisdictions are equalized, and correspond to β percent of the gross utility provided by the jurisdiction: we have $n_t k g_t(x_t + x_{t-1})/2 = \alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)/(8n_t) = \beta u_t$. Using theses equalities to reexpress the marginal costs, we arrive at an overall marginal effect of a decrease in x_{t-1} equal to $u_t [x_t - (4\beta - 1)x_{t-1}]/(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2)$, which is positive since $\beta < 1/2$ and $x_t > x_{t-1}$. If a jurisdiction broadens the scope of its administration by taking over the production of goods assigned to lower jurisdictions in the AG (an increase in x_t), it suffers a raise in both the production and the access cost. Therefore, citizen's preferences for the range of services should be sufficiently large (i.e. β relatively low), for local decision-makers to find it beneficial: the marginal benefit is

$$-\frac{n_t k g_t}{2} - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4n_t} + \frac{(1-\beta)u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}},\tag{9}$$

which, re-expressed in utils, leads to the condition $(1 - 4\beta)x_t + x_{t-1} > 0$.

A similar trade-off characterizes decentralized governments, where jurisdictions adapt their administration capacity to the scope they wish to adopt. Their capacity choice follows the same rule as that applied by the social planner, i.e. optimal capacity must equalize the marginal production cost with the marginal increase in the citizen welfare. It leads to a production cost that is equal to β percent of gross utility. However, the choice of scope is not in line with that of the social planner. Indeed, the socially optimal scope is such that the marginal benefit (9) of an increase in x_t at level t is equal to the marginal loss at level t+1 (the equivalent of (8) but with t replaced by t+1). When the local authority chooses its scope under decentralization, (9) is equal to 0. Hence, local decision-makers consider that the capacity of their administration is large enough to provide more services than those assigned by the social planner. They thus tend to oversupply given their administration capacity. To limit the adverse effects of these choices on the overall welfare, the social planner modifies the AG by adapting the number of tiers and jurisdictions per tier.

More precisely, the delegation game under decentralization results in a AG that solves

$$\max_{T,\{n_t\}_{t=0}^T} \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^T \max_{x_t,g_t} \left\{ W(x_{t-1}, x_t, g_t, n_t) | x_{t-1}, n_t \right\} - \nu T : x_{-1} = 1, x_T = \bar{x} \right\}.$$
(10)

As for the first-best case, it is convenient to express x_t recursively to solve problem (10) and to look for the optimal sequence of magnification parameters $\lambda_d \equiv \{\lambda_{d0}, \ldots, \lambda_{dT}\}$, with $\lambda_{dt} > 1$ for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$ and $\lambda_{dT} = \bar{x} / \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \lambda_{dt}$. Likewise, this sequence is generally defined by a recursive equation which simplifies in the case $\beta = 1/4$. More precisely,

Proposition 4 When $\beta = 1/4$, the sequence λ_d is degenerate, i.e. $\lambda_{dt} = \lambda_d$ for all t < T, $\lambda_{dT} = \bar{x}/\lambda_d^T$, and λ_d and T are solution of

$$\max_{\lambda_d,T} \left\{ \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\alpha k}} \left(T\Phi_d(\lambda_d) \frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} + \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_d^T}{\bar{x} + \lambda_d^T} \right) - \nu T : \lambda_d^{T+1} \ge \bar{x} > \lambda_d^T \right\}$$
(11)

where $\Phi_d(\lambda) \equiv (\lambda - 1) (\lambda + 2)^{1/2} / \lambda^{3/2}$, provided that $\nu \sqrt{\alpha k} < g_d(\bar{x})/2$ where $g_d(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1)[(\lambda^2 - 1)(\lambda + 2) - (\lambda + 3)(2\lambda + 1) \ln \lambda] / [\lambda^{3/2}(\lambda + 1)^2(\lambda + 2)^{1/2}]$. In that case $\lambda_d = g_d^{-1}(2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k}) > 2$ and increases with ν, α and k. We must have $k\alpha^3 < 4.10^{-4}$ to have $n_0 \leq 1$, and a sufficient condition for $n_0 \geq 2$ is $k\alpha^3 \geq 2/81 \approx 15.10^{-4}$.

Due to the weight $\Phi_d(\lambda) < 1$ that affects the utility of each level t < T in (11) compared to (7), the magnification parameter λ_d is large, larger than 2 in any case, and the condition to have only one state managing the entire territory is far more stringent than under the first-best AG.¹¹ It is shown in the appendix that the ratios of scopes, number of jurisdictions, administration capacities and citizen utilities have the same expression as in the first-best case when $\beta = 1/4$ (albeit, these expressions are more intricate in general) and that $\lambda_d > \lambda_c$. Hence, comparing the AG under the 2 regimes when $\beta \approx 1/4$, we obtain

¹¹This is thus reminiscent of AS's result that democracy leads to too many nations.

Proposition 5 Compared to the first-best AG, the optimal AG under decentralization entails a larger territorial dispersion, less tiers, with jurisdictions that have increased ranges of services.

To illustrate these theoretical results, a numerical example is given Table 1 using $\alpha = .25, k = 5$ (hence $k\alpha^3 = .016$), $\nu = .01$, and $\bar{x} = 100$. This table presents the solutions to the maximization of programs (7) and (11). The resulting magnification parameters are $\lambda_c = 1.94$ and $\lambda_d = 4.07$, that correspond to jurisdictional dispersions of approximately 4 and 16 respectively (we have $n_{t+1}/n_t = \lambda^2$ when $\beta = 1/4$). Columns \hat{n}_{ct} and \hat{n}_{dt} correspond to the rounded values of the programs' results n_{ct} and n_{dt} , and columns \hat{W}_{ct} and \hat{W}_{dt} to the net welfare levels computed with these rounded values. Overall, the total estimated welfare with these rounded values, $\sum_t \hat{W}_{ct} = .93$ and $\sum_t \hat{W}_{dt} = .76$, are close to the welfare levels of the corresponding program, $\sum_t W_{ct} = 1$ and $\sum_t W_{dt} = .8$.¹² Comparing the AGs, there is only one country ruling the entire territory under the first-best AG (i.e. $n_{c0} = 1$) with 6 sub-national tiers, and 2 states under decentralization with only 3 sub-national levels.

5 Eliciting citizen preferences

In this section, we illustrate how the equilibrium conditions derived above can be used to estimate the preference parameter β from a data set with standard econometric procedures. Using $x_t = x_{t-1}\lambda_{jt}$ and $g_t \approx g_{t-1}\lambda_{jt-1}^{-(1+2\beta)/(1-2\beta)}$ when β is close to 1/4, $j \in \{c, d\}$, we obtain

$$\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} = \frac{kg_{t+1}(x_{t+1} + x_t)/2}{kg_t(x_t + x_{t-1})/2} = \frac{g_{t+1}}{g_t}\lambda_t \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right) \approx \lambda_j^{-4\beta/(1-2\beta)}$$

when $\beta \approx 1/4$. Similarly, we have $n_t \approx n_{t-1}\lambda_j^{1/(1-2\beta)}$ when $\beta \approx 1/4$. Taking the logarithm of both expressions and eliminating the term involving $\ln \lambda_j$ on both sides, we get

$$\ln\left(C_t/C_{t+1}\right) \approx 4\beta \ln(n_{t+1}/n_t) \tag{12}$$

which holds for any AG, hence whatever the organization of the country. Using data on jurisdiction spending, it is possible to compute $Y_{z_{t+1},d} \equiv \ln(C_{z_t,d}/C_{z_{t+1},d})$ for each jurisdiction $z_{t+1} \in \{1, \ldots, n_{t+1}\}$ belonging to tier-t + 1 located below jurisdiction z_t in

¹²Note that the estimated welfare levels $\sum_t \hat{W}_{jt}$ are obtained by rounding off the numbers of jurisdictions per tier, which do not lead to perfectly nested tiers $(n_{t+1}/n_t \text{ should also be integer values})$. Adjusting for this constraint would reduced the welfare levels.

the AG at each date d. As $1/n_t$ corresponds to the share of the population of a tier-t jurisdiction, $n_{z_{t+1},d}/n_{z_t,d}$ corresponds to the inverse of the share of the z_t citizenry that belongs to jurisdiction z_{t+1} at date d. These individual characteristics, together with other observable characteristics (e.g., disposable income, population density), can be used to estimate the coefficient β using standard panel data procedures.

We apply this methodology on annual federal and state expenditures in the United States over the period 1977-2015 collected by the Tax Policy Center¹³ to estimate the following relationships:

$$Y_{z_{1},d} = \beta P_{z_{1},d} + a X_{z_{1},d} + \varphi_{z_{1}} + \delta_{d} + \varepsilon_{z_{1},d}$$
(13)

$$Y_{z_1,d} = \sum_{\tau=1}^{\tau} \beta_{\tau} \mathbb{1}_{\{z_1 \in \tau\}} P_{z_1,d} + a X_{z_1,d} + \varphi_{z_1} + \delta_d + \varepsilon_{z_1,d}$$
(14)

$$Y_{z_1,d} = \sum_{Z \in \{A,B\}} \beta_Z \mathbb{1}_{\{z_1 \in Z\}} P_{z_1,d} + a X_{z_1,d} + \varphi_{z_1} + \delta_d + \varepsilon_{z_1,d}$$
(15)

where z_1 indexes the states $(z_1 \in \{1, \ldots, 50\})$ and $d = 1977, \ldots, 2015$. Here, $Y_{z_1,d}$ corresponds to the log of the date-d ratio of the federal expenditures (net of grants to state and local jurisdictions) over state z_1 government spending, $P_{z_1,d} = 4 \ln(pop_{0,d}/pop_{z_1,d})$ accounts for the corresponding population share, $X_{z_1,d}$ is a vector of time-varying control variables composed of the income per capita, state population density and the partisan composition of the state legislatures. The income per capita captures the demand for public goods and services, which is expected to increase state expenditures (see for instance Borcherding & Deacon, 1972, and Ladd, 1992, for estimations on U.S. data), and therefore to reduce $Y_{z_1,d}$ in our setting. We also consider the partisan composition of state legislatures, as the control of both chambers by democrats is usually shown to lead to significantly higher state expenditures per capita.¹⁴ The variable φ_{z_1} corresponds to state-specific effects that capture time-invariant unobserved heterogeneity, δ_d are year fixed effects accounting for the influence of variables affecting all states identically in year d, and $\varepsilon_{z_1,d}$ is the error term. Table 2 presents the summary statistics of all variables used in our regressions.

Equations (13)–(15) differ by the way β is estimated. In (13), we suppose that citizens preferences are the same whatever the state, while (14) allows for a heterogeneity

¹³Details on the Tax Policy Center are available on its website https://www.urban.org/ policy-centers/urban-brookings-tax-policy-center. Queries on its dataset can be performed at http://slfdqs.taxpolicycenter.org/index.cfm.

¹⁴See Besley & Case (2003) for a survey of the numerous empirical investigations of the role of political institutions in the United States.

among the four regional divisions used by the Census Bureau (Midwest, Northeast, South, West), that we denote by $\tau = 1, ..., 4$. Accordingly, $\mathbb{1}_{\{z_1 \in \tau\}}$ is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the state z_1 belongs to region τ , and 0 otherwise. Therefore, $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the measure of β for the Midwest, $\hat{\beta}_2$ the one corresponding to the Northeast, $\hat{\beta}_3$ for the South and $\hat{\beta}_4$ for the West. The last specification, (15), allows us to test for a coarser partition of the states into two groups, denoted by A (Northeast & West) and B (Midwest & South) with $\mathbb{1}_{\{z_1 \in A\}}$ and $\mathbb{1}_{\{z_1 \in B\}}$ being the corresponding dummy variables. Therefore, $\hat{\beta}_A$ is the measure of β for the West and Northeast regions taken together, and $\hat{\beta}_B$ for the South and Midwest regions.

For the three specifications (13)–(15), we control for the correlation of the error term over time at the state level using cluster-robust standard errors in our panel fixed effects estimations. Table 3 gives the estimation results.

The value of β estimated for the whole country is 0.18 (columns (1) and (2); the differences between them being because the state legislature variables are omitted in the first one)¹⁵, which belongs to the interval (0,1/2) required by our theoretical model to ensure a positive welfare. Observe that none of the estimates corresponding to the partisan composition of state legislatures and the other characteristics (income and density) are statistically significant in the regressions. These results are corroborated by a Pew Research Center's survey, reported in Table 4 (Pew Research Center, 2013). It shows that whatever their partianship, individuals express a more favorable view of their local government than their state government, and that the federal government in Washington earns the lowest percentage points of favorable opinions.

Disaggregating β over the four U.S. regions (column (3) of Table 3) reveals a partition of the U.S. territory. Indeed, we obtain that this coefficient is lower in the Northeast and West (0.182 and 0.147) than in the Midwest and South (0.279 and 0.238). Tests for equality of the estimated regions' β s, presented in Table 5, confirm that the pairwise equalities $\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_2$ (Midwest and Northeast), $\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_4$ (Midwest and West) and $\hat{\beta}_3 = \hat{\beta}_4$ (South and West) are rejected at the 10% significance level (even at the 5% level for the latter equality).

Column (4) of Table 3 gives the estimates of this coefficient when the regions are grouped into two zones, Northeast & West (zone A), and Midwest & South (zone B). They confirm a value much larger for Midwest & South than for Northeast & West (0.251 versus 0.153). The last column of Table 5 shows that the equality of these estimates is rejected at the 5% confidence level. Hence, from Prop. 2, we may

¹⁵As a consequence, Nebraska is included only in regression (1).

expect that on average, citizens in the Northeast and West are more appreciative of state-provided services than those produced by the federal government, while citizens in the Midwest and South are more likely to be equally satisfied with both levels of government.

6 Conclusion

The problem of organizing a country's government entails both horizontal and vertical dimensions and raises the question of the allocation of public services over the tiers. We propose a simple model that allows us to characterize the desirable features of such an undertaking under a top-down organization of government that we compare to the first-best. Our approach offers a first theoretical foundation of an endogenous multi-tier setting. It highlights the differences between the social optimum and the result of having autonomous jurisdictions. Indeed, decision-makers, whether at the central tier or at sub-national tiers, have an incentive to modify the range of their services with respect to the first-best levels. The results we obtain also allow us to perform structural empirical investigations, as illustrated by the elicitation methods of the citizen preference parameter that we detail and apply using U.S. data. This work could be extended on both fronts. From an empirical perspective, organizational choices made by a country that has decided to give more leeway to decision-makers should reveal citizens preferences: if they put more weight on the overall range of services produced by the administrations than on their ability to better perform their tasks, scopes of tiers should increase and the number of bureaucratic layers should decrease compared to the centralized structured. From a theoretical perspective, an avenue of research is to allow for a heterogeneous distribution of the population in order to relax the perfect symmetry of our framework. Also we suppose that the central planner has perfect information about the citizens preferences. Information asymmetry, with sub-national decision-makers being better informed about their constituency than their higher level counterparts, could impact the organization of the government.

References

- Alesina, A. & Spolaore, E. (1997). On the number and size of nations. The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 112(4), 1027–1056.
- Besley, T. & Case, A. (2003). Political institutions and policy choices: Evidence from the united states. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 41(1), 7–73.
- Bogomolnaia, A., Le Breton, M., Savvateev, A., & Weber, S. (2006). Stability under unanimous consent, free mobility and core. Int J Game Theory, 35(2), 185–204.
- Bogomolnaia, A., Le Breton, M., Savvateev, A., & Weber, S. (2008). Heterogeneity gap in stable jurisdiction structures. *Journal of Public Economic Theory*, 10(3), 455–473.
- Bolton, P. & Roland, G. (1997). The breakup of nations: A political economy analysis. The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 112(4), 1057–1090.
- Borcherding, T. E. & Deacon, R. (1972). The demand for the services of non-federal governments. *American Economic Review*, 62(5), 891–901.
- Casella, A. (2001). The role of market size in the formation of jurisdictions. *The Review* of *Economic Studies*, 68(1), 83–108.
- Demange, G. (1994). Intermediate preferences and stable coalition structures. *Journal* of Mathematical Economics, 23, 45–58.
- Dexia (2007). Subnational public finance in the european union. Dexia Economic Outlook, Trends 2000 / 2006.
- Friedman, D. (1977). A theory of the size and shape of nations. Journal of Political Economy, 85(1), 59–77.
- Greenberg, J. & Weber, S. (1986). Strong tiebout equilibrium under restricted preferences domain. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 38, 101–117.
- Guesnerie, R. & Oddou, C. (1981). Second best taxation as a game. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 25(1), 67–91.
- Hochman, O., Pines, D., & Thisse, J. F. (1995). On the optimal structure of local governments. *The American Economic Review*, 85(5), 1224–1240.
- Hotelling, H. (1929). Stability in competition. The Economic Journal, 39(153), 41–57.
- Jehiel, P. & Scotchmer, S. (2001). Constitutional rules of exclusion in jurisdiction formation. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 68(2), 393–413.
- Ladd, H. (1992). Population growth, density and the costs of providing public services. Urban Studies, 29(2), 273–295.

- OECD (2014). Regions and cities: Where policies and people meet. OECD Regional Outlook.
- Panizza, U. (1999). On the determinants of fiscal centralization: Theory and evidence. Journal of public economics, 74(1), 97–139.
- Pew Research Center (April 15, 2013). State governments viewed favorably as federal rating hits new low. Pew Research Center, Washington, D.C. http://www. people-press.org/category/publications/2013/page/4/ (as at August 2018).
- Wilson, J. D. & Janeba, E. (2005). Decentralization and international tax competition. Journal of Public Economics, 89(7), 1211–1229.

Appendix

A Proof of lemma 1

The program (1) boils down to

$$\max_{\substack{T, \\\{x_t, n_t, \{S_{z_t}, \bar{\ell}_{z_t}, g_{z_t}\}\}_{t=0}^T} \sum_{t=0}^T \sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} \left[\left(g_{z_t}^{\beta} (x_t - x_{t-1})^{1-\beta} - \frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{2} \bar{\ell}_{z_t} \right) S_{z_t} - kg_{z_t} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{2} \right] - \nu T$$

under the conditions $x_{-1} = 1$, $x_T = \overline{x}$ and $\sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} S_{z_t} = 1$ for all t, where $\overline{\ell}_{z_t}$ is the average distance between the residents and the administration of jurisdiction z_t . Because individuals are located uniformly over the territory, $\overline{\ell}_{z_t}$ is minimized when the administration is located in the middle of the jurisdiction whatever the tier and the number of jurisdictions in a tier. As a consequence, the average distance to their administration is $\overline{\ell}_{z_t} = \frac{1}{S_{z_t/2}} \int_0^{S_{z_t/2}} \ell d\ell = S_{z_t}/4$. We can thus rewrite the program as

$$\max_{\substack{T, \\\{x_t, n_t, \{S_{z_t}, \bar{\ell}_{z_t}, g_{z_t}\}\}_{t=0}^T} \sum_{t=0}^T \sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} \left[S_{z_t} g_{z_t}^\beta (x_t - x_{t-1})^{1-\beta} - \frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{8} S_{z_t}^2 - k g_{z_t} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{2} \right] - \nu T$$
(16)

under the conditions $x_{-1} = 1$, $x_T = \overline{x}$ and $\sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} S_{z_t} = 1$ for all t, where $\sum_{z_t=1}^{n_t} S_{z_t}^2$ is minimized when tier t jurisdictions are of equal length: $S_{z_t} = 1/n_t$ for all t. As jurisdictions are of equal length and their range of services are identical, we also have the same administration's capacity at each tier level: $g_{z_t} = g_t$ for all t. Replacing in (16) and developing gives (2).

B Proof of Proposition 1

The first-order conditions (FOCs) w.r.t. n_t and g_t lead to

$$\frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{4n_t^2} - kg_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right) = 0, t \in \{0, \dots, T\}$$
(17)

and

$$\beta u_t - n_t k g_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right) / 2 = 0, t \in \{0, \dots, T\},$$
(18)

respectively. Replacing the expression of g_t coming from (18) in the utility gives

$$u_{t} = \left(\frac{2\beta}{kn_{t}\left(x_{t} + x_{t-1}\right)}\right)^{\beta/(1-\beta)} \left(x_{t} - x_{t-1}\right),\tag{19}$$

which plugged back in (18) gives

$$g_t = \left(\frac{2\beta}{kn_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}\right)^{1/(1-\beta)} \left(x_t - x_{t-1}\right), t \in \{0, \dots, T\}.$$
 (20)

From (17) and (18) we get

$$\frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{8n_t} = \frac{n_t k g_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2} = \beta u_t, \tag{21}$$

and thus $W_t = u_t(1 - 2\beta)$ which is positive iff $\beta < 1/2$. From (17), we get

$$g_t = \frac{\alpha(x_t - x_{t-1})}{4kn_t^2}.$$
(22)

Identifying with (20), it comes

$$n_t = (x_t + x_{t-1})^{1/\kappa} K$$
(23)

where $\kappa = 1 - 2\beta$, and $K = (k^{\beta} \alpha^{1-\beta} 2^{-(3-2\beta)}/\beta)^{1/\kappa}$. The FOC w.r.t. x_t for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$ is given by

$$(1-\beta)\left(\frac{u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{u_{t+1}}{x_{t+1} - x_t}\right) - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4}\left(\frac{1}{n_t} - \frac{1}{n_{t+1}}\right) - \frac{k}{2}(n_t g_t + n_{t+1} g_{t+1}) = 0.$$
(24)

Using (18) to substitute for $n_t g_t$ and $n_{t+1} g_{t+1}$ in the last term gives

$$(1-\beta)\left(\frac{u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{u_{t+1}}{x_{t+1} - x_t}\right) - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4}\left(\frac{1}{n_t} - \frac{1}{n_{t+1}}\right) - \beta\left(\frac{u_t}{x_t + x_{t-1}} + \frac{u_{t+1}}{x_{t+1} + x_t}\right) = 0$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. Multiplying by $n_{t+1}n_t$ to get

$$(1-\beta)\left(\frac{n_{t+1}n_tu_t}{x_t-x_{t-1}} - \frac{n_{t+1}n_tu_{t+1}}{x_{t+1}-x_t}\right) - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4}\left(n_{t+1} - n_t\right) - \beta\left(\frac{n_{t+1}n_tu_t}{x_t+x_{t-1}} + \frac{n_{t+1}n_tu_{t+1}}{x_{t+1}+x_t}\right) = 0,$$

and using (21) which gives $n_t u_t = \alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2 \right) / 8\beta$ to substitute for $n_t u_t$ and $n_{t+1} u_{t+1}$

yields

$$(1-\beta)\left[n_{t+1}(x_t+x_{t-1})-n_t(x_{t+1}+x_t)\right]-2\beta x_t\left(n_{t+1}-n_t\right)-\beta\left[n_{t+1}(x_t-x_{t-1})+n_t(x_{t+1}-x_t)\right]=0$$

for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. Collecting terms, we get

$$\frac{x_t(1-4\beta)+x_{t+1}}{x_t(1-4\beta)+x_{t-1}} = \frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = \left(\frac{x_{t+1}+x_t}{x_t+x_{t-1}}\right)^{1/\kappa}$$

using (23). Using the boundary condition $x_{-1} = 1$, x_t can be expressed as $x_t = \lambda_t x_{t-1} = \prod_{\tau=0}^t \lambda_{\tau}$ where $\lambda_t > 1$ for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T\}$ w.l.g., and the outer equality can be expressed as

$$\left(\lambda_t \frac{\lambda_{t+1}+1}{\lambda_t+1}\right)^{1/\kappa} = \lambda_t \frac{1-4\beta+\lambda_{t+1}}{\lambda_t(1-4\beta)+1}$$

which gives

$$\frac{1-4\beta+\lambda_{t+1}}{(\lambda_{t+1}+1)^{1/\kappa}} = \frac{\lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa}[\lambda_t(1-4\beta)+1]}{(\lambda_t+1)^{1/\kappa}}, t \in \{0,\dots,T-1\}.$$
(25)

We thus have $f_1(\lambda_{t+1}) = f_2(\lambda_t)$ where $f_1(\lambda) \equiv (1 - 4\beta + \lambda) (\lambda + 1)^{-1/\kappa}$ and $f_2(\lambda) \equiv \lambda^{2\beta/\kappa} [\lambda(1 - 4\beta) + 1] (\lambda + 1)^{-1/\kappa}$. As

$$f_1'(\lambda) = \frac{-2\beta(\lambda - 1)}{\kappa(1 + \lambda)^{2(1 - \beta)/\kappa}}$$
(26)

is negative for all $\lambda > 1$, (25) can be expressed as $\lambda_{t+1} = F(\lambda_t) \equiv f_1^{-1}(f_2(\lambda_t))$ which defines a first-order recurrence equation specifying the sub-sequence $\{\lambda_t\}_{t=1,\dots,T-1}$ given λ_0 : $\lambda_t = F^t(\lambda_0) \equiv F(F^{t-1}(\lambda_0))$ (with $F^0 = Id$). The last term of the sequence is deduced from the boundary condition $x_T = \bar{x}$ which gives $\lambda_T = \bar{x} / \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} F^t(\lambda_0)$. We have $\lambda_{t+1} > 1$ if $F(\lambda_t) > 1$ for $\lambda_t > 1$. As $f_1(1) = f_2(1)$, we have F(1) = 1, and thus $\lambda_{t+1} > 1$ if $F'(\lambda_t) \ge 0$ for all $\lambda_t > 1$. Using

$$f_2'(\lambda) = \frac{-2\beta(\lambda - 1)}{\kappa\lambda^{(1 - 4\beta)/\kappa}(1 + \lambda)^{2(1 - \beta)/\kappa}},$$

$$f_2''(\lambda) = -\frac{2\beta}{\kappa^2} \frac{1 - 4\beta + \lambda[3 - 2\lambda + 4(\lambda - 1)\beta]}{\lambda^{2 - 2\beta/\kappa}(1 + \lambda)^{2 + 1/\kappa}}$$
(27)

and

$$f_1''(\lambda) = \frac{2\beta}{\kappa^2} \frac{-3 + \lambda + 4\beta}{(1+\lambda)^{2+1/\kappa}},$$

we obtain

$$\frac{d\lambda_{t+1}}{d\lambda_t} = \frac{f_2'(\lambda_t)}{f_1'(\lambda_{t+1})} = \lambda_t^{(4\beta-1)/\kappa} \frac{\lambda_t - 1}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1} \left(\frac{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{2(1-\beta))/\kappa}$$

for $\lambda_t > 1$, and using L'hospital rule, $\lim_{\lambda_t \searrow 1} d\lambda_{t+1}/d\lambda_t = f_2''(1)/f_1''(1) = 1$. We thus have $F'(\lambda_t) > 0$ for all $\lambda_t \ge 1$, and thus $\lambda_t > 1$ for all $t \in \{1, \ldots, T-1\}$ if $\lambda_0 > 1$. In the case $\beta = 1/4$, as $f_1(\lambda) = f_2(\lambda) = \hat{f}(\lambda) \equiv \lambda/(1+\lambda)^2$, we have $\lambda_{t+1} = \lambda_t = \lambda_c$ for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$.

T and λ_0 are derived as follows. Using $x_t = \prod_{\tau=0}^t \lambda_{\tau}$, (23) can be expressed as

$$n_{t} = K \left[(\lambda_{t} + 1) x_{t-1} \right]^{1/\kappa} = K \left((\lambda_{t} + 1) \prod_{\tau=0}^{t-1} \lambda_{\tau} \right)^{1/\kappa}$$

and substituting in (19), it comes

$$u_{t} = \left(\frac{16\beta^{2}}{k\alpha \left(x_{t} + x_{t-1}\right)^{2}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(x_{t} - x_{t-1}\right) = \left(\frac{16\beta^{2}}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{(\lambda_{t} - 1)\prod_{\tau=0}^{t-1}\lambda_{\tau}^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa}}{(\lambda_{t} + 1)^{2\beta/\kappa}}$$
(28)

for $t \in \{0, ..., T - 1\}$, and

$$u_{T} = \left(\frac{16\beta^{2}}{k\alpha \left(x_{T} + x_{T-1}\right)^{2}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(x_{T} - x_{T-1}\right) = \left(\frac{16\beta^{2}}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{\bar{x} - \prod_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \lambda_{\tau}}{\left(\bar{x} + \prod_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \lambda_{\tau}\right)^{2\beta/\kappa}}$$
(29)

for the last tier. The boundary condition $x_T = \bar{x}$ implies that

$$\prod_{\tau=0}^{T} F^{\tau}(\lambda_0) \ge \bar{x} > \prod_{\tau=0}^{T-1} F^{\tau}(\lambda_0),$$
(30)

,

and λ_0 and T are derived from solving $\max_{\lambda_0,T} \sum_{t=0}^T W_t - \nu T = \max_{\lambda_0,T} \kappa \sum_{t=0}^T u_t - \nu T$ using (25) and (28)–(30). In the case $\beta = 1/4$, we have $x_t = \lambda_c^{t+1}$, $W_t = u_t/2$ where

$$u_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha k}} \frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} \equiv u_c(\lambda_c), t \in \{0, \dots, T - 1\},\$$

with $\lambda_c^{T+1} \geq \bar{x} > \lambda_c^T$. We thus have to solve

$$\max_{\lambda_c,T} \left\{ T \frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} + \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_c^T}{\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T} - \hat{\nu}T : \lambda_c^{T+1} \ge \bar{x} > \lambda_c^T \right\}$$
(31)

where $\hat{\nu} \equiv 2\nu\sqrt{\alpha k}$. Neglecting the constraints (and treating the discrete variable T as a continuous variable), the FOCs with respect to T and λ_c gives

$$\frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} - \hat{\nu} - \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_c^T \ln \lambda_c}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T)^2} = 0$$

and

$$\frac{2}{(\lambda_c+1)^2} - \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_c^{T-1}}{(\bar{x}+\lambda_c^T)^2} = 0,$$

respectively. Multiplying the last equation by $\lambda_c \ln \lambda_c$ and identifying with the first one yields

$$\frac{2\lambda_c \ln \lambda_c}{(\lambda_c+1)^2} = \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_c^T \ln \lambda_c}{(\bar{x}+\lambda_c^T)^2} = \frac{\lambda_c-1}{\lambda_c+1} - \hat{\nu},$$

hence $g_c(\lambda_c) = \hat{\nu}$ where $g_c(\lambda) \equiv (\lambda^2 - 1 - 2\lambda \ln \lambda)/(\lambda + 1)^2$. As $g'_c(\lambda) = 2(\lambda - 1) \ln \lambda/(1 + \lambda)^3 > 0$ for $\lambda > 1$, $g_c(\lambda)$ is strictly increasing over $(1, +\infty)$. Hence, there is only one solution to $g_c(\lambda_c) = \hat{\nu}$. Using $\ln \lambda = -\ln(1 - (\lambda - 1)/\lambda) \ge (\lambda - 1)/\lambda$, we have

$$g_c(\lambda) \le [\lambda^2 - 1 - 2(\lambda - 1)]/(\lambda + 1)^2 = [(\lambda - 1)/(\lambda + 1)]^2 < 1$$

implying that we must have $\hat{\nu} < 1$, i.e. $\nu\sqrt{\alpha k} < 1/2$ for (31) to have a solution, and more generally we must have $\hat{\nu} < g_c(\bar{x})$. Assuming this is the case, as $\sqrt{\hat{\nu}} < 1$, we get using $g_c(\lambda_c) = \hat{\nu} \leq [(\lambda_c - 1)/(\lambda_c + 1)]^2$ that $\lambda_c \geq (1 + \sqrt{\hat{\nu}})/(1 - \sqrt{\hat{\nu}})$. As $n_0 = \sqrt{k\alpha^3} (\lambda_c + 1)^2/2$, a sufficient condition for $n_0 \geq 2$ is $\sqrt{k\alpha^3} (2/(1 - \sqrt{\hat{\nu}}))^2/2 \geq 2$, hence $\nu \geq (1 - (k\alpha^3)^{1/4})^2/(2\sqrt{\alpha k})$. Also, as $\lambda_c > 1$, to allow for $n_0 \leq 1$, it should be the case that $2\sqrt{k\alpha^3} < 1$, hence $k\alpha^3 < 1/4$.

For $\beta \neq 1/4$, the equality $f_1(\lambda_{t+1}) = f_2(\lambda_t)$ can be approximated when β is close to 1/4, i.e. $\beta = 1/4 \pm \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon > 0$ small, using the first-order approximation

$$f_i(\lambda) \approx \hat{f}(\lambda_c) + (\lambda - \lambda_c) f'_i(\lambda_c)|_{\beta = 1/4} + (\beta - 1/4) (df_i(\lambda_c)/d\beta)|_{\beta = 1/4},$$

for i = 1, 2. Using (26), (27),

$$\frac{df_1(\lambda)}{d\beta} = f_1(\lambda) \left(\frac{-4}{1-4\beta+\lambda} - \frac{2\ln(\lambda+1)}{\kappa^2}\right)$$

and

$$\frac{df_2(\lambda)}{d\beta} = f_2(\lambda) \left(\frac{2\ln\lambda}{\kappa^2} - \frac{4\lambda}{(1-4\beta)\lambda+1} - \frac{2\ln(\lambda+1)}{\kappa^2} \right),$$

yields

$$f_1(\lambda) \approx \hat{f}(\lambda_c) \left[1 + \frac{(\lambda - \lambda_c)(1 - \lambda_c)}{(1 + \lambda_c)\lambda_c} - (4\beta - 1)\left(\frac{1}{\lambda_c} + 2\ln(\lambda_c + 1)\right) \right]$$

and

$$f_2(\lambda) \approx \hat{f}(\lambda_c) \left[1 + \frac{(\lambda - \lambda_c)(1 - \lambda_c)}{(1 + \lambda_c)\lambda_c} - (4\beta - 1)(-2\ln\lambda_c + \lambda_c + 2\ln(\lambda_c + 1)) \right].$$

Hence, (25) can be approximated by

$$0 = f_1(\lambda_{t+1}) - f_2(\lambda_t) \approx \frac{\hat{f}(\lambda_c)}{\lambda_c} \left(\frac{(\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t)(1 - \lambda_c)}{1 + \lambda_c} + (4\beta - 1)h(\lambda_c) \right)$$

where $h(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - 1 - 2\lambda \ln \lambda$, implying

$$\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t \approx \frac{\lambda_c + 1}{\lambda_c - 1} (4\beta - 1) h(\lambda_c).$$
(32)

As $h'(\lambda) = 2(\lambda - \ln \lambda - 1)$ and $h''(\lambda) = 2(1 - 1/\lambda) > 0$ when $\lambda > 1$, we have h(1) = 0, h'(1) = 0 and $h'(\lambda) > 0$ for $\lambda > 1$, implying that $h(\lambda) > 0$ for $\lambda > 1$. Consequently, $\lambda_{t+1} > \lambda_t$ iff $\beta > 1/4$, i.e. (25) defines an increasing sequence if $\beta > 1/4$, and a decreasing one if $\beta < 1/4$. Using $\ln \lambda = -\ln(1 - (\lambda - 1)/\lambda) \ge (\lambda - 1)/\lambda$, we get $h(\lambda) \le \lambda^2 - 1 - 2(\lambda - 1) = (\lambda - 1)^2$ and thus $\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t \le (\lambda_c^2 - 1)(4\beta - 1)$. The solution of (32) is given by $\lambda_t = \lambda_c + \delta(\beta) + (4\beta - 1)t\gamma$, $t \in \{0, \ldots, T - 1\}$, where $\gamma = h(\lambda_c)(\lambda_c + 1)/(\lambda_c - 1)$ and $\delta(\beta)$ a function verifying $\delta(1/4) = 0$. When β is close to 1/4, we also have $\lambda_t \approx \lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma) \equiv \hat{\lambda}_t$, where $\Delta = \delta'(1/4)/4$ can be derived as follow. Substituting the approximation $\hat{\lambda}_t$ of λ_t in (28) using

$$\begin{split} \prod_{\tau=0}^{t-1} \hat{\lambda}_{\tau}^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa} &= \exp\left(\frac{1-4\beta}{1-2\beta} \sum_{\tau=0}^{t-1} \ln(\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\delta(\beta) + t\gamma))\right) \\ &\approx 1 + \left(\beta - \frac{1}{4}\right) \frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{1-4\beta}{1-2\beta}\right]_{\beta=1/4} \sum_{\tau=0}^{t-1} \ln \lambda_c \\ &= 1 - 2\left(4\beta - 1\right) t \ln \lambda_c, \end{split}$$

and

$$\left(\hat{\lambda}_t + 1\right)^{2\beta/\kappa} = \exp\left(\frac{2\beta}{1-2\beta}\ln(\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma) + 1)\right)$$

$$\approx \left(\lambda_c + 1\right) \left[1 + \left(\beta - \frac{1}{4}\right) \left(\frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{2\beta}{1-2\beta}\right]_{\beta=1/4}\ln(\lambda_c + 1) + \frac{4(\Delta + t\gamma)}{\lambda_c + 1}\right)\right]$$

$$= \hat{\lambda}_t + 1 + 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\left(\lambda_c + 1\right)\ln(\lambda_c + 1),$$

we get

$$u_t \approx \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{\lambda_c - 1 - (4\beta - 1)\left[2(\lambda_c - 1)t\ln\lambda_c - (\Delta + t\gamma)\right]}{\lambda_c + 1 + (4\beta - 1)\left[\Delta + t\gamma + 2(\lambda_c + 1)\ln(\lambda_c + 1)\right]}$$

neglecting second-order terms. A linear approximation of the last term gives

$$u_t \approx \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(\frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} \left[1 - 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\left(t\ln\lambda_c + \ln(\lambda_c + 1)\right)\right] + 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\frac{\Delta + t\gamma}{(\lambda_c + 1)^2}\right)$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. Summing over t, it comes

$$\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} u_t \approx \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \left(\frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} \left[1 - 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\left(t\ln\lambda_c + \ln(\lambda_c + 1)\right)\right] + 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\frac{\Delta + t\gamma}{(\lambda_c + 1)^2}\right)$$
$$= \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} T\left(\frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1}\left(1 - \left(4\beta - 1\right)\left[(T - 1)\ln\lambda_c + 2\ln(\lambda_c + 1)\right]\right) + 2\left(4\beta - 1\right)\frac{\Delta + (T - 1)\gamma}{(\lambda_c + 1)^2}\right)$$

Also, using

$$x_t \approx \prod_{\tau=0}^t \hat{\lambda}_\tau = \exp\left(\sum_{\tau=0}^t \ln(\lambda_c + \delta(\beta) + (4\beta - 1)t\gamma))\right)$$
$$\approx \lambda_c^{t+1} \left(1 + \left(\beta - \frac{1}{4}\right) \sum_{\tau=0}^t \frac{4(\Delta + \tau\gamma)}{\lambda_c}\right)$$
$$= \lambda_c^{t+1} \left(1 + (4\beta - 1)(t+1)(\Delta + \gamma t/2)\lambda_c\right)$$

for all $t \in \{0, ..., T - 1\}$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\bar{x} + \prod_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \hat{\lambda}_{\tau}\right)^{\frac{2\beta}{\kappa}} &= \exp\left(\frac{2\beta}{1-2\beta} \ln\left(\bar{x} + \exp\sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} \ln(\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)\left(\delta(\beta) + \tau\gamma\right)\right)\right)\right) \\ &\approx \left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T\right) \left[1 + \left(\beta - \frac{1}{4}\right) \left(\frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{2\beta}{1-2\beta}\right]_{\beta = \frac{1}{4}} \ln\left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T\right) + \frac{4\lambda_c^{T-1} \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-1} (\Delta + \tau\gamma)}{\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T}\right)\right] \\ &= \left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T\right) \left[1 + 2\left(4\beta - 1\right) \ln\left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T\right)\right] + (4\beta - 1) T\lambda_c^{T-1} (\Delta + (T-1)\gamma/2), \end{aligned}$$

we get using (29)

$$u_T \approx \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_c^T \left(1 + (4\beta - 1) T(\Delta + \gamma(T - 1)/2)\lambda_c\right)}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T) \left[1 + 2 (4\beta - 1) \ln (\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T)\right] + (4\beta - 1) T\lambda_c^{T-1} (\Delta + (T - 1)\gamma/2)},$$

and a linear approximation of the last term gives

$$u_T \approx \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left[\frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_c^T}{\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T} \left[1 - 2(4\beta - 1)\ln\left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T\right)\right] - \bar{x}\lambda_c^{T-1}T(4\beta - 1)\frac{2\Delta + \gamma(T-1)}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T)^2}\right]$$

Denote by $G_{\beta}(\lambda_0, T)$ the social planner objective and $\hat{G}_{\beta}(\Delta, T)$ its approximation when $\beta = 1/4 \pm \varepsilon, \varepsilon > 0$ small,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{G}_{\beta}(\Delta, T) &= (1 - 2\beta) \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} \\ &\times \left(T \left(\frac{\lambda_c - 1}{\lambda_c + 1} (1 - (4\beta - 1) \left[(T - 1) \ln \lambda_c + 2 \ln(\lambda_c + 1) \right] \right) + 2 (4\beta - 1) \frac{\Delta + (T - 1)\gamma}{(\lambda_c + 1)^2} \right) \\ &+ \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_c^T}{\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T} \left[1 - 2(4\beta - 1) \ln \left(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T \right) \right] - \bar{x} \lambda_c^{T-1} T (4\beta - 1) \frac{2\Delta + \gamma (T - 1)}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T)^2} \right) - \nu T. \end{aligned}$$

A Taylor expansion gives

$$\frac{\partial G_{\beta}(\lambda_0, T)}{\partial \lambda_0} \approx \frac{\partial G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0} + (\lambda_0 - \lambda_c) \frac{\partial^2 G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0^2} + (\beta - 1/4) \frac{\partial^2 G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0 \partial \beta}$$

where the first term is null by definition of λ_c and $\lambda_0 \approx \lambda_c + \Delta(4\beta - 1)$. If ε is sufficiently small, the number of tiers T at the optimum is not affected, and the optimality condition $\partial G_{\beta}(\lambda_0, T)/\partial \lambda_0 = 0$ leads to

$$\Delta \approx -\frac{1}{4} \left. \frac{\partial^2 G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0 \partial \beta} \right/ \frac{\partial^2 G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0^2}$$

where the denominator is negative by concavity of G (at least locally at the optimum). The numerator can be approximated by

$$\frac{\partial^2 G_{1/4}(\lambda_c, T)}{\partial \lambda_0 \partial \beta} \approx \frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{\partial \hat{G}_\beta(0, T)}{\partial \Delta} \frac{d\Delta}{d\lambda_0} \right]_{\beta = 1/4} = \frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{\partial \hat{G}_\beta(0, T)}{\partial \Delta} \frac{1}{4\beta - 1} \right]_{\beta = 1/4}$$

where

$$\frac{\partial \hat{G}_{\beta}(\Delta,T)}{\partial \Delta} \frac{1}{4\beta - 1} \approx (1 - 2\beta) \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} 2T \left(\frac{1}{(\lambda_c + 1)^2} - \frac{\bar{x}\lambda_c^{T-1}}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_c^T)^2}\right).$$

Using $\bar{x} > \lambda_c^T$ we get

$$\frac{1}{(\lambda_c+1)^2} - \frac{\bar{x}\lambda_c^{T-1}}{(\bar{x}+\lambda_c^T)^2} < \frac{1}{(\lambda_c+1)^2} - \frac{\lambda_c^T\lambda_c^{T-1}}{(2\lambda_c^T)^2} = \frac{1}{(\lambda_c+1)^2} - \frac{1}{4\lambda_c}$$
$$= -\frac{(\lambda_c-1)^2}{4\lambda_c(\lambda_c+1)^2} < 0,$$

and we have

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} \left[(1-2\beta) \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} \right] = -2 \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} + (1-2\beta) \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} \\ \times \left(\frac{d}{d\beta} \left[\frac{\beta}{1-2\beta} \right] (4\ln 2 + 2\ln\beta - \ln\alpha k) + \frac{\beta}{1-2\beta} \frac{2}{\beta} \right) \\ = \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{4\ln 2 + 2\ln\beta - \ln\alpha k}{1-2\beta},$$

hence

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} \left[(1 - 2\beta) \left(\frac{16\beta^2}{k\alpha} \right)^{\beta/\kappa} \right]_{\beta = 1/4} = \frac{-2\ln\alpha k}{\sqrt{k\alpha}}$$

which is positive if $\alpha k < 1$. Under this condition and assuming β close to 1/4, we have $\Delta < 0$ and consequently $\lambda_0 > \lambda_c$ iff $\beta < 1/4$.

C Proof of Proposition 2

Using $x_{-1} = 1$ and $x_t = \prod_{\tau=0}^t \lambda_{ct}$ for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T\}$, we get

$$\frac{x_{t+1} - x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} = \lambda_{ct} \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - 1}{\lambda_{ct} - 1} = \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct} - 1}\right) \lambda_{ct}$$

for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. We thus have $x_{t+1} - x_t = \lambda_c (x_t - x_{t-1})$ when $\beta = 1/4$. For $\beta \approx 1/4$, we get using $\lambda_{ct} = \lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma)$ and a first-order Taylor expansion that

$$\frac{\lambda_{ct+1} - \lambda_{ct}}{\lambda_{ct} - 1} \approx \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma) - 1} \approx \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c - 1},$$

hence

$$\frac{x_{t+1} - x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \approx \left(1 + \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c - 1}\right) \lambda_{ct}$$

which increases when $\beta > 1/4$ since λ_c increases, and the reverse otherwise. From (23), we get

$$\frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = \left(\lambda_t \frac{\lambda_{t+1}+1}{\lambda_t+1}\right)^{1/\kappa} = \lambda_t^{1/\kappa} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1}-\lambda_t}{\lambda_t+1}\right)^{1/\kappa},$$

for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-2\}$, hence $n_{t+1}/n_t = \lambda_c^2$ when $\beta = 1/4$, and $n_{t+1}/n_t > \lambda_t^2$ with

$$\frac{n_{t+1}/n_t}{n_t/n_{t-1}} = \left(\frac{\lambda_t}{\lambda_{t-1}}\frac{\lambda_{t+1}+1}{\lambda_{t-1}+1}\right)^{1/\kappa} > 1$$

when $\beta > 1/4$ since the sequence $\{\lambda_t\}_{t=0}^{T-1}$ is increasing, and the reverse otherwise.

From (22), it comes

$$\frac{g_t}{g_{t+1}} = \frac{x_t - x_{t-1}}{x_{t+1} - x_t} \left(\frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda_t} \frac{\lambda_t - 1}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1} \left(\lambda_t \frac{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{2/\kappa}$$
$$= \lambda_t^{(1+2\beta)/\kappa} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{2/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1}\right)$$

which gives $g_t/g_{t+1} = \lambda_c^3$ when $\beta = 1/4$. When $\beta \approx 1/4$, we have $g_t/g_{t+1} \approx \lambda_t^{(1+2\beta)/\kappa}$ and using

$$\frac{\lambda_t - 1}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1} \frac{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}{\lambda_t + 1} \approx \left(1 + \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + t\gamma) + 1} \right) \left(1 - \frac{(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c + (4\beta - 1)(\Delta + (t+1)\gamma) - 1} \right)$$
$$\approx 1 - \frac{2(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c^2 - 1}$$

neglecting second-order terms, it comes

$$\frac{g_t}{g_{t+1}} \approx \left(1 - \frac{2(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c^2 - 1}\right) \left(\lambda_t \frac{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{(1+2\beta)/\kappa}$$

We thus have

$$\frac{g_{t-1}/g_t}{g_t/g_{t+1}} \approx \left(\frac{\lambda_t}{\lambda_{t-1}}\frac{\lambda_{t+1}+1}{\lambda_{t-1}+1}\right)^{(1+2\beta)/\kappa}$$

implying that g_t decreases at an increasing rate when $\beta > 1/4$, and at a decreasing rate otherwise. For the per capita capacity, we have

$$\frac{n_t g_t}{n_{t+1} g_{t+1}} = \frac{x_t - x_{t-1}}{x_{t+1} - x_t} \frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = \frac{1}{\lambda_t} \frac{\lambda_t - 1}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1} \left(\lambda_t \frac{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa} = \lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa},$$

hence $n_t g_t / n_{t+1} g_{t+1} = \lambda_c$ when $\beta = 1/4$. When $\beta \approx 1/4$, $n_t g_t / n_{t+1} g_{t+1} \approx \lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa}$ and using

$$\frac{n_t g_t}{n_{t+1} g_{t+1}} = \lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1} \right) \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1} \right)^{1/\kappa} \\ \approx \left(1 - \frac{2(4\beta - 1)\gamma}{\lambda_c^2 - 1} \right) \lambda_t^{2\beta/\kappa} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1} \right)^{2\beta/\kappa}$$

neglecting second-order terms, $n_t g_t$ decreases at an increasing rate when $\beta > 1/4$ and at a decreasing rate when $\beta < 1/4$. Finally, it comes from (28)

$$\frac{u_{t+1}}{u_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t - 1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} + 1}\right)^{2\beta/\kappa} \lambda_t^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa}$$

which gives $u_{t+1} = u_t$ when $\beta = 1/4$. When $\beta \approx 1/4$, $u_{t+1}/u_{t+1} \approx \lambda_t^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa}$, and as $\lambda_t > 1$, $u_{t+1} > u_t$ when $\beta < 1/4$ and the reverse otherwise.

D Proof of Proposition 3

Denoting $W_t \equiv W(x_{t-1}, x_t, g_t, n_t)$ and differentiating (3) w.r.t. g_t gives

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial g_t} = \beta \frac{u_t}{g_t} - \frac{n_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2} \tag{33}$$

which is null at the social planner's optimum. Hence, if assigned scope $(x_{t-1}, x_t]$, the jurisdiction would chose the same administration's capacity as that of the social planner. Differentiating (3) w.r.t. x_{t-1} and x_t gives

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_{t-1}} = -\frac{(1-\beta)u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} + \frac{\alpha x_{t-1}}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2}, t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$$
(34)

and

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_t} = \frac{(1-\beta)u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2}, t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}.$$
(35)

Using (21) to substitute for the first term of (34) evaluated at the social planner's optimum, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_{t-1}} &= \frac{\alpha x_{t-1}}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \left(\frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} + 1 \right) \\ &\leq \frac{\alpha x_{t-1}}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \left(\frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} + 1 \right) = \frac{\alpha x_{t-1}}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \\ &= \frac{n_t x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \left(\frac{x_{t-1}}{x_t} \frac{\alpha (x_t - x_{t-1})}{4n_t^2} - k g_t \right) \\ &< \frac{n_t x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \left(\frac{\alpha (x_t - x_{t-1})}{4n_t^2} - k g_t \right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality comes from $\beta \leq 1/2$, the second one from $x_{t-1} < x_t$ and the last equality from (17).

Using (21) to substitute for the first term of (35) evaluated at the social planner optimum give

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_t} &= \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \left(\frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - 1 \right) - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4n_t} \\ &= \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \left(\frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - 1 \right) - \frac{n_t k g_t x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \\ &= \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \left(\frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \frac{x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{3x_t - x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \right) \\ &= \frac{n_t k g_t}{2\beta} \frac{x_t (1-4\beta) + x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} \\ &= \frac{n_t k g_t}{2\beta} \frac{x_{t-1}}{x_t - x_{t-1}} [\lambda_t (1-4\beta) + 1] \end{aligned}$$

which is positive for all $\beta \leq 1/4$ and more generally if $\lambda_t(1-4\beta)+1 > 0$. As the sequence $\{\lambda_{ct}\}_{t=0}^T$ is increasing when $\beta > 1/4$, it suffices that this inequality is satisfied for λ_{c0} , hence $\beta < (1/\lambda_{c0}+1)/4$.

E Proof of Proposition 4

Using (18) to substitute for u_t in (35) and equalizing to zero gives

$$0 = \frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_t} = \frac{1 - \beta}{\beta} \frac{n_t k g_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right)}{2(x_t - x_{t-1})} - \frac{\alpha x_t}{4n_t} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2},$$

hence

$$g_t = \frac{\alpha \beta x_t (x_t - x_{t-1})}{2k n_t^2 (\kappa x_t + x_{t-1})}, t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\},$$
(36)

Identifying (36) with (20), it comes

$$n_t = \left[\frac{\alpha^{1-\beta}k^{\beta}}{2^{2-\beta}\beta^{\beta}} \left(\frac{x_t}{\kappa x_t + x_{t-1}}\right)^{1-\beta} (x_t + x_{t-1})\right]^{1/\kappa}, \qquad (37)$$
$$= \left(\frac{2\beta x_t}{\kappa x_t + x_{t-1}}\right)^{(1-\beta)/\kappa} K (x_t + x_{t-1})^{1/\kappa},$$

for $t \in \{0, ..., T-1\}$. As (20) and (19) are derived from (18), they both hold in that case. We have to solve

$$\max_{T,\{n_t,x_t,g_t\}_{t=0}^T} \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^T W_t - \nu T : x_{-1} = 1, x_T = \bar{x}, (18), (36) \right\}.$$

Neglecting the boundary conditions on x_{-1} and x_T , and denoting by χ_t and θ_t the multipliers corresponding to the constraints (18) and (36) respectively, the Lagrangian of this program is

$$L = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \left[W_t + \chi_t \left(\beta u_t - \frac{n_t k g_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right)}{2} \right) + \theta_t \left(g_t - \frac{\alpha \beta x_t (x_t - x_{t-1})}{2k n_t^2 (\kappa x_t + x_{t-1})} \right) \right] - \nu T.$$

Using $\partial W_t / \partial g_t = 0$ and (18), the FOCs w.r.t. g_t and n_t give

$$\theta_t = \chi_t \left(\frac{n_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right)}{2} - \beta^2 \frac{u_t}{g_t} \right) = \chi_t (1 - \beta) \frac{n_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1} \right)}{2}, \tag{38}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial n_t} + \theta_t \frac{2g_t}{n_t} - \chi_t \frac{g_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2} = 0, \tag{39}$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$, respectively. Using (38), the latter simplifies to

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial n_t} = -\chi_t \kappa \frac{g_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2},\tag{40}$$

where

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial n_t} = \frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{8n_t^2} - \frac{kg_t \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2}.$$
(41)

We thus have

$$\frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{8n_t^2} = (1 - \chi_t \kappa) \frac{g_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2}$$

and using (36), we arrive at

$$\chi_t = \frac{(2\beta - \kappa)x_t - x_{t-1}}{2\beta\kappa_1 x_t} \tag{42}$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. Hence, compared to (21), we get using (18),

$$\frac{\alpha \left(x_t^2 - x_{t-1}^2\right)}{8n_t} = \frac{\kappa x_t + x_{t-1}}{2\beta x_t} \frac{n_t g_t k \left(x_t + x_{t-1}\right)}{2} = \frac{\kappa x_t + x_{t-1}}{x_t} \frac{u_t}{2}$$
(43)

for all $t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$ under decentralization. The average access cost is thus greater than the provision cost iff $\beta < (x_{t-1}/x_t + 1)/4$.

Using $\partial W_t / \partial x_t = 0$, the FOC w.r.t. x_t simplifies to

$$0 = \frac{\partial W_{t+1}}{\partial x_t} - \theta_t \frac{dg_t}{dx_t} + \chi_t \left(\frac{(1-\beta)\beta u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \right)$$

$$- \theta_{t+1} \frac{dg_{t+1}}{dx_t} + \chi_{t+1} \left(-\frac{(1-\beta)\beta u_{t+1}}{x_{t+1} - x_t} - \frac{n_{t+1} k g_{t+1}}{2} \right),$$
(44)

for $t \in \{0, ..., T - 1\}$, where

$$\frac{dg_t}{dx_t} = \frac{d}{dx_t} \left[\frac{\alpha \beta x_t (x_t - x_{t-1})}{2kn_t^2 (\kappa x_t + x_{t-1})} \right] = \frac{g_t [x_t (\kappa x_t + 2x_{t-1}) - x_{t-1}^2]}{x_t (x_t - x_{t-1}) (\kappa x_t + x_{t-1})},$$
$$\frac{dg_{t+1}}{dx_t} = \frac{d}{dx_t} \left[\frac{\alpha \beta x_{t+1} (x_{t+1} - x_t)}{2kn_{t+1}^2 (\kappa x_{t+1} + x_t)} \right] = \frac{-2(1 - \beta) x_{t+1} g_{t+1}}{(\kappa x_{t+1} + x_t) (x_{t+1} - x_t)},$$

and, using (18),

$$\frac{(1-\beta)\beta u_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}} - \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} = \frac{n_t k g_t}{2} \frac{(2-\beta)x_{t-1} - \beta x_t}{x_t - x_{t-1}},$$

and

$$\frac{(1-\beta)\beta u_{t+1}}{x_{t+1}-x_t} + \frac{n_{t+1}kg_{t+1}}{2} = \frac{n_{t+1}kg_{t+1}}{2}\frac{(2-\beta)x_{t+1}-\beta x_t}{x_{t+1}-x_t}.$$

Finally, using $\partial W_t / \partial x_t = 0$, we get from (34) and (35) that

$$\frac{\partial W_t}{\partial x_{t-1}} = -\frac{\alpha}{4n_t}(x_t - x_{t-1}) - kn_t g_t.$$
(45)

Using (36) and (42), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial W_{t+1}}{\partial x_t} = -kn_{t+1}g_{t+1}\chi_{t+1}\frac{\kappa(x_{t+1}+x_t)}{(2\beta-\kappa)x_{t+1}-x_t}$$

We can thus rewrite (44) as

$$0 = -\chi_t n_t g_t \left((1-\beta) \frac{(x_t + x_{t-1})}{2} \frac{x_t (\kappa x_t + 2x_{t-1}) - x_{t-1}^2}{x_t (x_t - x_{t-1}) (\kappa x_t + x_{t-1})} - \frac{(2-\beta)x_{t-1} - \beta x_t}{2(x_t - x_{t-1})} \right) - n_{t+1} g_{t+1} \chi_{t+1} \left(-\frac{(1-\beta)^2 (x_t + x_{t+1}) x_{t+1}}{(\kappa x_{t+1} + x_t) (x_{t+1} - x_t)} + \frac{(2-\beta)x_{t+1} - \beta x_t}{2(x_{t+1} - x_t)} + \frac{\kappa (x_{t+1} + x_t)}{(2\beta - \kappa) x_{t+1} - x_t} \right)$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. Using $x_t = \lambda_t x_{t-1} = \prod_{\tau=0}^t \lambda_\tau$ yields

$$\chi_t = \frac{(2\beta - \kappa)x_t - x_{t-1}}{2\beta\kappa_1 x_t} = \frac{(4\beta - 1)\lambda_t - 1}{2\beta\kappa_1 \lambda_t},$$

and from (36),

$$n_t g_t = \frac{\alpha \beta (\lambda_t - 1) \prod_{\tau=0}^t \lambda_\tau}{2k[\kappa \lambda_t + 1] n_t},$$

which gives

$$\frac{n_{t+1}g_{t+1}}{n_tg_t} = \frac{\frac{\lambda_{t+1}-1}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}}{\frac{\lambda_t-1}{\kappa\lambda_t+1}}\lambda_{t+1}\frac{n_t}{n_{t+1}}$$

Replacing and collecting terms, (44) becomes

$$0 = -\chi_t \left((1-\beta) \frac{(\lambda_t+1)}{2} \frac{\lambda_t (\kappa \lambda_t+2) - 1}{\lambda_t (\lambda_t - 1) (\kappa \lambda_t + 1)} - \frac{(2-\beta) - \beta \lambda_t}{2(\lambda_t - 1)} \right) \\ - \frac{\frac{\lambda_{t+1} - 1}{\kappa \lambda_{t+1} + 1}}{\frac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\kappa \lambda_{t+1} + 1}} \lambda_{t+1} \frac{n_t}{n_{t+1}} \chi_{t+1} \left(-\frac{(1-\beta)^2 (1+\lambda_{t+1}) \lambda_{t+1}}{(\kappa \lambda_{t+1} + 1) (\lambda_{t+1} - 1)} + \frac{(2-\beta) \lambda_{t+1} - \beta}{2(\lambda_{t+1} - 1)} + \frac{\kappa(\lambda_{t+1} + 1)}{(2\beta - \kappa) \lambda_{t+1} - 1} \right),$$

which yields, using (42),

$$\frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = -\frac{\frac{\lambda_{t+1}-1}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}}{\frac{\lambda_t-1}{\kappa\lambda_t+1}} \frac{1+\lambda_{t+1} + \frac{\beta[(4\beta-1)\lambda_{t+1}-1](1-\lambda_{t+1})}{2\kappa_1(\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1)}}{\frac{[(4\beta-1)\lambda_t-1][\lambda_t(\kappa\lambda_t+1)+(1-\beta)(\lambda_t+1)]}{2\kappa_1\lambda_t^2(\kappa\lambda_t+1)}}$$

Using (37) gives

$$\frac{\left[\left(\lambda_{t+1}+1\right)\left(\frac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}\right)^{1-\beta}\right]^{1/\kappa}}{\left[\left(\lambda_{t}+1\right)\left(\frac{\lambda_{t}}{\kappa\lambda_{t}+1}\right)^{1-\beta}\right]^{1/\kappa}}\lambda_{t}^{1/\kappa} = -\frac{\frac{\lambda_{t+1}-1}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}}{\frac{\lambda_{t}-1}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}}\frac{1+\lambda_{t+1}+\frac{\beta\left[(4\beta-1)\lambda_{t+1}-1\right](1-\lambda_{t+1})}{2\kappa_{1}(\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1)+(1-\beta)(\lambda_{t+1})\right]}}{\frac{\left[(4\beta-1)\lambda_{t}-1\right]\left[\lambda_{t}(\kappa\lambda_{t}+1)+(1-\beta)(\lambda_{t}+1)\right]}{2\kappa_{1}\lambda_{t}^{2}(\kappa\lambda_{t}+1)}}$$
(46)

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-2\}$, that defines implicitly a first-order recurrence equation $\lambda_{t+1} = F_d(\lambda_t) = F_d^t(\lambda_0)$, hence the sub-sequence $\{\lambda_t\}_{t=1}^{T-1}$ given λ_0 : $\lambda_t = F_d^t(\lambda_0) \equiv F_d(F_d^{t-1}(\lambda_0))$ (with $F_d^0 = Id$). The last term of the sequence is deduced from the boundary condition $x_T = \bar{x}$ which gives $\lambda_T = \bar{x} / \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} F_d^t(\lambda_0)$. Using (37) gives

$$\frac{n_{t+1}}{n_t} = \left(1 - \frac{\kappa(\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t)}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1} + 1}\right)^{(1-\beta)/\kappa} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa} \left(\lambda_{t+1}^{1-\beta}\lambda_t^\beta\right)^{1/\kappa}.$$

Plugging (37) into (19) and (20) yields

$$u_{t} = \left(\frac{8\beta}{\alpha k} \frac{\kappa x_{t} + x_{t-1}}{x_{t} \left(x_{t} + x_{t-1}\right)^{2}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} (x_{t} - x_{t-1})$$
$$= \left(\frac{8\beta}{\alpha k} \frac{\kappa \lambda_{t} + 1}{\lambda_{t} \left(\lambda_{t} + 1\right)^{2}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} (\lambda_{t} - 1) \prod_{\tau=0}^{t-1} \lambda_{t}^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa}, \tag{47}$$

and

$$g_{t} = \left(\frac{8\beta}{\alpha k} \frac{\kappa x_{t} + x_{t-1}}{x_{t} \left(x_{t} + x_{t-1}\right)^{2}}\right)^{1/\kappa} (x_{t} - x_{t-1}),$$

which give

$$\frac{u_{t+1}}{u_t} = \left(\frac{\kappa\lambda_{t+1}+1}{\kappa\lambda_t+1}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(\frac{\lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \frac{\lambda_{t+1}-1}{\lambda_t-1} \left(\frac{\lambda_t+1}{\lambda_{t+1}+1}\right)^{2\beta/\kappa} \lambda_t^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa} \\
= \left(1 + \frac{\kappa(\lambda_{t+1}-\lambda_t)}{\kappa\lambda_t+1}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(\frac{\lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1}}\right)^{\beta/\kappa} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1}-\lambda_t}{\lambda_t-1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1}-\lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1}+1}\right)^{2\beta/\kappa} \lambda_t^{(1-4\beta)/\kappa}$$

and

$$\frac{g_t}{g_{t+1}} = \left(\lambda_{t+1}\lambda_t^{2\beta}\right)^{1/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\kappa(\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t)}{\kappa\lambda_{t+1} + 1}\right)^{1/\kappa} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_{t+1} - 1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{t+1} - \lambda_t}{\lambda_t + 1}\right)^{2/\kappa}.$$

It comes from (43) that

$$W_t = \left(1 - \beta - \frac{\kappa x_t + x_{t-1}}{2x_t}\right) u_t \tag{48}$$

for $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. For tier T, as $\partial W_T / \partial n_T = 0$, it comes from (23) and (21) that $n_T = (\bar{x} + x_{T-1})^{1/\kappa} K$ and $W_T = \kappa u_T$, where u_T is given by (29). T satisfies

$$\prod_{t=0}^{T} F_{d}^{t}(\lambda_{0}) \ge \bar{x} > \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} F_{d}^{t}(\lambda_{0}),$$
(49)

and λ_0 and T are derived from solving

$$\max_{\lambda_0, T} \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \left(1 - \beta - \frac{\kappa F_d^t(\lambda_0) + 1}{2F_d^t(\lambda_0)} \right) u_t + \kappa u_T - \nu T : (29), (47), (49) \right\}$$

where $F_d(\cdot)$ is implicitly defined by (46). With $\beta = 1/4$, (46) simplifies to $f_d(\lambda_{t+1}) = f_d(\lambda_t)$ where

$$f_d(\lambda) \equiv \frac{(\lambda+1)^2 (\lambda+2)^{1/2} \lambda^{3/2}}{2(\lambda^2-1)(\lambda+2) + (\lambda-1)^2}.$$

One solution is thus given by $\lambda_t = \lambda_d$ for all $t = 0, \ldots, T - 1$ (as f_d is convex, with a minimum at $\lambda \approx 2.12$, cyclical solutions are also possible). Using (47) and (48), we get

$$u_t = \left(\frac{\lambda_d + 2}{\lambda_d}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha k}} \frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} = \left(\frac{\lambda_d + 2}{\lambda_d}\right)^{1/2} u_c(\lambda_d),$$

and

$$W_t = \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{\lambda_d + 2}{4\lambda_d}\right) \left(\frac{\lambda_d + 2}{\lambda_d}\right)^{1/2} u_c(\lambda_d)$$
$$= \left(\frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d}\right) \left(\frac{\lambda_d + 2}{\lambda_d}\right)^{1/2} \frac{u_c(\lambda_d)}{2}$$

for all $t \in \{0, \ldots, T-1\}$. λ_d and T are derived by solving

$$\max_{\lambda_d,T} \left\{ T\Phi_d(\lambda_d) \frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} + \frac{\bar{x} - \lambda_d^T}{\bar{x} + \lambda_d^T} - \hat{\nu}T : \lambda_d^{T+1} \ge \bar{x} > \lambda_d^T \right\}$$

where $\Phi_d(\lambda) \equiv (\lambda - 1) (\lambda + 2)^{1/2} / \lambda^{3/2}$. Neglecting the constraints, the FOCs with respect to T and λ_d give

$$\Phi_d(\lambda_d)\frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} - \hat{\nu} - \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_d^T \ln \lambda_d}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_d^T)^2} = 0$$

and

$$\Phi'_{d}(\lambda_{d})\frac{\lambda_{d}-1}{\lambda_{d}+1} + \frac{2\Phi_{d}(\lambda_{d})}{(\lambda_{d}+1)^{2}} - \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_{d}^{T-1}}{(\bar{x}+\lambda_{d}^{T})^{2}} = 0.$$

respectively. Multiplying the last equation by $\lambda_d \ln \lambda_d$ and identifying with the first one yields

$$\lambda_d \ln \lambda_d \left(\Phi_d'(\lambda_d) \frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} + \frac{2\Phi_d(\lambda_d)}{(\lambda_d + 1)^2} \right) = \frac{2\bar{x}\lambda_d^T \ln \lambda_d}{(\bar{x} + \lambda_d^T)^2} = \Phi_d(\lambda_d) \frac{\lambda_d - 1}{\lambda_d + 1} - \hat{\nu}_d$$

hence $g_d(\lambda_d) = \hat{\nu}$ where

$$g_d(\lambda) = [(\lambda^2 - 1)[\Phi_d(\lambda) - \Phi'_d(\lambda)\lambda \ln \lambda] - 2\Phi_d(\lambda)\lambda \ln \lambda]/(\lambda + 1)^2 = (\lambda - 1)[(\lambda^2 - 1)(\lambda + 2) - (\lambda + 3)(2\lambda + 1)\ln \lambda]/[\lambda^{3/2}(\lambda + 1)^2(\lambda + 2)^{1/2}].$$

As $g_d(1) = 0$ and using $\ln \lambda = -\ln(1 - (\lambda - 1)/\lambda) \ge (\lambda - 1)/\lambda$,

$$\begin{split} g_d(\lambda) &\leq (\lambda - 1)^2 \left[\lambda \left(\lambda + 1 \right) \left(\lambda + 2 \right) - (\lambda + 3)(2\lambda + 1) \right] / \left[\lambda^{5/2} (\lambda + 1)^2 (\lambda + 2)^{1/2} \right] \\ &= (\lambda - 1)^2 \left[\lambda \left(\lambda + 1 \right) \left(\lambda + 2 \right) - (\lambda + 2)(2\lambda + 1) - (2\lambda + 1) \right] / \left[\lambda^{5/2} (\lambda + 1)^2 (\lambda + 2)^{1/2} \right] \\ &< (\lambda - 1)^2 \left(\lambda + 2 \right)^{1/2} \left[\lambda (\lambda + 1) - (2\lambda + 1) - 1 \right] / \left[\lambda^{5/2} (\lambda + 1)^2 \right] \\ &= (\lambda - 1)^2 \left(\lambda + 2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\lambda - 2 \right) \left(\lambda + 1 \right) / \left[\lambda^{5/2} (\lambda + 1)^2 \right], \end{split}$$

where the second inequality comes from $2\lambda + 1 > \lambda + 2$ when $\lambda > 1$. We thus have $g_d(\lambda) < 0$ for all $\lambda \in (1, 2]$. Also, as $g'_d(\lambda) = h(\lambda) \ln \lambda / [\lambda^{5/2} (\lambda + 1)(\lambda + 2)^{1/2}]$ where

$$h(\lambda) = 2\lambda^{5} + 10\lambda^{4} - 3\lambda^{3} - 41\lambda^{2} - 31\lambda - 9, \ h(2) < 0 \text{ and}$$
$$h'(\lambda) = 10\lambda^{4} + 40\lambda^{3} - 9\lambda^{2} - 82\lambda - 31$$
$$> 40\lambda^{3} - 9\lambda^{2} - 82\lambda - 31$$
$$= (\lambda - 2)(40\lambda^{2} + 71\lambda + 60) + 89$$

which is positive for all $\lambda \geq 2$, $g_d(\lambda)$ is increasing for all $\lambda \in \{\lambda > 2 : g_d(\lambda) \geq 0\}$. Hence, provided that $g_d(\bar{x}) > \hat{\nu}, \lambda_d = g_d^{-1}(\hat{\nu})$ exits and is unique, greater than 2, and increases with $\hat{\nu}$. From (37) and $\lambda_d > 2$, we get

$$n_0 = \left(\frac{\lambda_d}{\lambda_d + 2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{\sqrt{k\alpha^3}}{2} \left(\lambda_d + 1\right)^2 > \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{\sqrt{k\alpha^3}}{2} \left(3\right)^2 = 9\sqrt{2^5k\alpha^3}.$$

Hence, we must have $k\alpha^3 < 1/(81 \times 2^5) = 1/2592 \approx 4.10^{-4}$ to have $n_0 \leq 1$, and a sufficient condition for $n_0 \geq 2$ is $k\alpha^3 \geq 1/648 \approx 15.10^{-4}$.

F Proof of proposition 5

The generic AG problem is given by

$$\max_{\lambda,T} \left\{ T\Phi_j(\lambda) \frac{\lambda-1}{\lambda+1} + \frac{\bar{x}-\lambda^T}{\bar{x}+\lambda^T} - \hat{\nu}T : \lambda^{T+1} \ge \bar{x} > \lambda^T \right\},\$$

 $j \in \{c, d\}$, with $\Phi_c(\lambda) = 1$ and $\Phi_d(\lambda) = (\lambda + 2)^{1/2} (\lambda - 1) / \lambda^{3/2}$. As shown in Propositions 1 and 4, the solution is given by $\lambda_j = g_j^{-1}(\hat{\nu})$ where $g_j(\lambda) = [(\lambda^2 - 1)[\Phi_j(\lambda) - \Phi'_j(\lambda)\lambda \ln \lambda] - 2\Phi_j(\lambda)\lambda \ln \lambda] / (\lambda + 1)^2$ is increasing for all $\lambda \in \{\lambda > 1 : g_j(\lambda) \ge 0\}$. We thus have $\lambda_j > \lambda_m$ iff $g_m(\lambda_j) > g_m(\lambda_m) = \hat{\nu} = g_j(\lambda_j)$, hence $g_m(\lambda_j) - g_j(\lambda_j) > 0$. This is true for all $\hat{\nu} \in (0, 1)$ if $g_m(\lambda) - g_j(\lambda) > 0$ for all $\lambda > 1$, i.e.

$$h(\lambda)(\Phi_m(\lambda) - \Phi_j(\lambda)) - (\Phi'_m(\lambda) - \Phi'_j(\lambda))(\lambda^2 - 1)\lambda \ln \lambda > 0$$

for all $\lambda > 1$, where $h(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - 1 - 2\lambda \ln \lambda$. As $h'(\lambda) = 2(\lambda - \ln \lambda - 1)$ and $h''(\lambda) = 2(1 - 1/\lambda) > 0$ when $\lambda > 1$, we have h(1) = 0, h'(1) = 0 and $h'(\lambda) > 0$ for $\lambda > 1$, implying that $h(\lambda) > 0$ for $\lambda > 1$. Comparing decentralization to first-best (m = c and j = d), as $(\lambda + 2) (\lambda - 1)^2 = \lambda^3 - 3\lambda + 2 < \lambda^3$ when $\lambda > 2/3$, we have $\Phi_d(\lambda) < 1 = \Phi_c(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda > 1$. As $\Phi'_c(\lambda) = 0 < \Phi'_d(\lambda) = 3/[\lambda^{5/2}(\lambda + 2)^{1/2}]$, we thus have $\lambda_d > \lambda_c$.

	First-Best					Decentralization				
	$\lambda_c = 1.94, \sum_t W_{ct} = 1, \sum_t \hat{W}_{ct} = .93$					$\lambda_d = 4.07, \ \sum_t W_{dt} = .8, \ \sum_t \hat{W}_{dt} = .76$				
t	x_{ct}	n_{ct}	\hat{n}_{ct}	g_{ct}	\hat{W}_{ct}	x_{dt}	n_{dt}	\hat{n}_{dt}	g_{dt}	\hat{W}_{dt}
0	1.94	1.21	1	$1.18\cdot 10^{-2}$	0.14	4.07	1.97	2	$6.61\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.25
1	3.77	4.56	5	$9.15\cdot10^{-4}$	0.14	16.57	32.7	33	$9.80\cdot10^{-5}$	0.25
2	7.33	17.21	17	$1.54\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.14	67.46	541.87	542	$1.45\cdot10^{-6}$	0.25
3	14.23	64.92	65	$2.04\cdot10^{-5}$	0.14	100	1,088.45	1,088	$1.46\cdot10^{-7}$	$4.33\cdot10^{-2}$
4	27.63	244.87	245	$2.79\cdot 10^{-6}$	0.14					
5	53.66	923.61	924	$3.81\cdot10^{-7}$	0.14					
6	100	3,299.94	3,300	$5.32\cdot10^{-8}$	0.13					

Table 1: Simulations of AGs

Parameter values: $\alpha = .25, k = 5, \nu = .01, \bar{x} = 100.$

Table 2: Summary statistics

Variables	# of Obs.	Mean	SD	Min	Max
In of expenditure ratio $(Y)^1$	1950	4.93	0.95	2.23	6.79
$4 \times \ln$ of population ratio $(P)^2$	1950	17.58	4.03	8.43	25.43
Income per capita ²	1950	25.41	12.58	5.35	68.33
Pop. density ^{$2,3$}	1950	148.33	190.21	0.6	1024.4
Dem. majority $chambers^4$	1862^{*}	0.49	0.5	0	1
Rep. majority chambers ⁴	1862^{*}	0.3	0.46	0	1

 $^{*}\mathrm{As}$ Nebraska is a non-partisan, unicameral legislature, it is excluded from the regressions that include partisan composition.

Sources: ¹the Tax Policy Center & the U.S. Government Publishing Office, ²the Bureau of Economic Analysis, ³the Census Bureau, ⁴the National Conference of State Legislatures.

Model specification	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
All states $(\hat{\beta})$	0.184***	0.182***		
	(0.0238)	(0.0254)		
Midwest $(\hat{\beta}_1)$			0.279***	
(- /			(0.0624)	
Northeast $(\hat{\beta}_2)$			0.182**	
			(0.0579)	
South $(\hat{\beta}_3)$			0.238^{***}	
			(0.0309)	
West $(\hat{\beta}_4)$			0.147^{***}	
			(0.0255)	
Northeast & West $(\hat{\beta}_A)$				0.153***
(,,				(0.0235)
Midwest & South $(\hat{\beta}_B)$				0.251***
(, _)				(0.0342)
Income per capita	-0.0025	-0.0029	-0.0026	-0.0021
	(0.0027)	(0.0029)	(0.0031)	(0.0029)
Pop. density	-0.0006	-0.0006	-0.00006	-0.00004
	(0.0005)	(0.0005)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)
Dem. chambers		0.0224	0.0185	0.0197
		(0.0136)	(0.0138)	(0.0132)
Rep. chambers		0.0136	0.0178	0.0194
		(0.0166)	(0.0168)	(0.0161)
Observations	1950	1862	1862	1862
Hausman's test	23.82***	36.36***	50.33***	65.22^{***}
F-Stat	473.2***	479.8***	845.2***	1021.7^{***}

Table 3: Estimation results

 Image: P-Stat
 475.2
 475.0
 045.2
 1021.1

 Notes:*** indicates statistical significance at 1%, ** at 5%, and * at 10% level.

 Standard errors clustered at the state level are in parentheses. All estimations include year fixed effects. Estimates of the constant term and of the time-dummies are omitted.

Partisanship	Federal	State	Local
Rep.	13%	57%	63%
Ind.	27%	59%	60%
Dem.	41%	56%	67%
Overall	28%	57%	63%

Table 4: Partisan views of government

Source: Pew Research Center (2013).

Answers to the question "Would you say your overall opinion of (government level) is very favorable, mostly favorable, mostly unfavorable, or very unfavorable?" Reported are the proportions corresponding to the sum of "very favorable" and "mostly favorable" by partisanship. Survey conducted March 13-17, 2013 among 1,501 adults living in all 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia.

Table 5: Equality tests

H_0	$\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_3$	$\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_4$	$\hat{\beta}_2 = \hat{\beta}_3$	$\hat{\beta}_2 = \hat{\beta}_4$	$\hat{\beta}_3 = \hat{\beta}_4$	$\hat{\beta}_A = \hat{\beta}_B$
F-test	3.07	0.52	3.28	0.88	0.27	4.76	5.89
p-value	0.0862	0.4726	0.0764	0.3517	0.6041	0.0341	0.0190