On ESG Investing: Heterogeneous Preferences, Information, and Asset Prices*

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Abstract

We study how environmental, social and governance (ESG) investing reshapes information aggregation by prices. We develop a rational expectations equilibrium model in which traditional and green investors are informed about monetary and non-monetary risks but have different preferences over them. Because of the preference heterogeneity, traditional and green investors trade in the opposite directions based on the same information. We show that the equilibrium price may not be uniquely determined. An increase in the fraction of green investors and an improvement in the non-monetary information quality can reduce price informativeness about the monetary payoff and raise the cost of capital.

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1 Introduction

In recent years, financial markets have witnessed a rapidly increasing appetite for environmental, social and governance (ESG) investing. Across a wide range of geographies and asset classes, a growing share of institutional and individual investors integrate ESG elements into their investment philosophies. For example, according to the report by the Global Sustainable Investment Alliance (GSIA, 2021), about $17.1 trillion of assets in the United States were invested considering ESG factors in 2020, a substantial increase from $6.6 trillion in 2014. This trend appears to be accelerated by the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic and is likely to sustain its momentum for years to come.[1]

The goal of this paper is to analyze how the presence of ESG investors in the financial market affects asset price formation and, in particular, the information content of prices. To this end, we build a tractable noisy rational expectations equilibrium (REE) model a la Hellwig (1980) in which investors trade a stock of a firm whose payoff consists of monetary and non-monetary risky components. The financial market is populated with noise traders and two groups of risk-averse rational investors who receive informative signals about both payoff components but have distinct preferences about them. Specifically, traditional investors value only the monetary payoff and ESG ("green") investors value both monetary and non-monetary payoffs.

The key feature of our model is the strategic interaction between traditional and green investors through learning and trading. Because of their heterogeneous preferences, the two investor groups trade differently based on the same information and seek to learn different information from the price. In particular, when receiving positive signals about the firm's non-monetary payoff, green investors increase their demand for the stock, while traditional investors reduce their demand as they infer from the price a worse realization of the monetary payoff. As a result, trades by one investor group make the price more aligned with their preferences but less aligned with preferences of the other group. Furthermore, trades by traditional and green investors contaminate price informativeness to each other and hinder the learning from the price.

Driven by heterogeneous preferences of traditional and green investors, differential use of information by the two investor groups have profound impacts on the stock price.

[1] According to a recent survey of institutions with a total asset under management of $12.9 trillion conducted by J.P. Morgan (J.P. Morgan, 2020), the majority of respondents believe that the COVID-19 crisis is going to raise investors' awareness of ESG-related issues.

In equilibrium, the price is associated with both monetary and non-monetary payoff components. We identify a feedback loop between investors' trading intensities and the equilibrium price coefficients that may lead to multiple equilibria in the trading game. Specifically, if investors of one group trade more intensively on their private signals than investors of the other group, the preferences of the dominating group are reflected by the price more. As a result, the price becomes more informative to them and so they face less uncertainty when holding the stock. This justifies their more intensive trading. The feedback loop implies that two equilibria can coexist. In one equilibrium, the stock is predominately traded by traditional investors, the equilibrium price primarily loads on the monetary component and is not particularly informative to green investors; in the other equilibrium, green investors dominate the trading, and the equilibrium price is more aligned with their preferences.

We show that the multiplicity emerges under four conditions. First, the noise traders' demand should not be too volatile. Otherwise, the price will be a poor signal about both payoff components and thus uninformative to all rational investors. Second, the preference heterogeneity should be sufficiently strong. If this is not the case, traditional and green investors seek to learn similar information from the price. Third, the masses of traditional and green investors should be comparable. If the investor base is unbalanced and tilted towards one type of investors, investors of this type always dominate the trading. Finally, traditional and green investors should receive informative signals about both payoff components. Otherwise, they will not be able to trade against the signal about the component they do not value and prevent the price from being informative about it.

We then study the implications of the increase in the share of green investors in the market. In particular, we look at its impacts on two important metrics—price informativeness to traditional and green investors and the firm's cost of capital. We show that, as the green investor share increases, the price becomes less informative to traditional investors, that is, less informative about the monetary component, and more informative to green investors in any stable equilibrium.

This intuitive result has important implications for the firm's cost of capital. As is standard in REE models (e.g. Easley and O'Hara, 2004), the cost of capital reflects the average information risk faced by rational investors. We find that the cost of capital is non-monotone in the share of green investors and reaches its peak when the masses of traditional and green investors are close. When the investor base is balanced, the two investor groups trade with similar intensities and introduce substantial amounts of noise into the price for each other. As a result, traditional and green investors both require high compensation for bearing the informational risk, which drives up the cost of capital. This result is helpful to reconcile two seemingly contradictory empirical observations. On the one hand, green investors are willing to sacrifice monetary payoff for non-pecuniary benefits (e.g. Martin and Moser, 2016; Riedl and Smeets, 2017; Barber, Morse, and Yasuda, 2021), which implies a lower cost of capital for green firms with a larger fraction of green investors.[2] On the other hand, direct empirical evidence on the cost of capital for green firms is rather mixed.[3] Our results suggests that, although green firms may attract green investors demanding a lower financial return, entry of such investors can amplify the informational risks faced by existing traditional investors.

In recent years, regulators worldwide have been pushing for improving the quality of ESG information available to investors (see, for example, the report on non-financial and sustainability reporting by van der Lugt, van de Wijs, and Petrovics, 2020). Our model can be useful to evaluate the impacts of improvements in the quality of ESG information. Holding the pricing function fixed, better information about the non-monetary payoff benefits traditional investors as it helps them to interpret the price more accurately and learn more about the monetary component from it. At the same time, green investors, who value the non-monetary payoff directly, benefit from better non-monetary information more. In particular, they respond by substantially increasing their trading intensities. Changes in trading intensities affect the equilibrium pricing function. We show that, if the preference heterogeneity across traditional and green investors is sufficiently strong, the price becomes less associated with the monetary component and less informative to traditional investors. Furthermore, we show that the decrease in the price informativeness to traditional investors can dominate the increase in the price informativeness to green investors, leading to an increase in the cost of capital.

Finally, we believe that our model can have a wide range of applications in the environments where investors with heterogeneous preferences interact and affect each other's investment choices. For example, funds pursuing different strategies might care about different components of stock payoffs to fulfill different investment needs. Investors with

[2]In Section 4.2, we extend the model and allow the firm's non-monetary performance to be positive on average. In this extension, an increase in the green investor share has an additional negative impact on the cost of capital.

[3]For instance, Larcker and Watts (2020) do not find significant differences between prices of green and non-green security issues while Hong and Kacperczyk (2009) document that investors do require a higher premium for sin stocks. Further discussions are provided in Section 4.3.

different investment horizons assign different weights to short-term payouts and long-term values (Bushee, 2001) which might be driven by distinct shocks. Similarly, investors might have heterogeneous preferences about dividends and capital gains (Graham and Kumar, 2006; Harris, Hartzmark, and Solomon, 2015). Even in the universe of ESG investors, preference heterogeneity might matter as some investors might focus more on the environmental firms' performances while others might focus more on the social or governance aspects.

Literature Our paper contributes to the recent literature that investigates theoretically the impacts of ESG investing on asset prices. Fama and French (2007), Luo and Balvers (2017), Baker, Bergstresser, Serafeim, and Wurgler (2018), Baker, Hollifield, and Osambela (2020), Zerbib (2020), Pastor, Stambaugh, and Taylor (2021), and Pedersen, Fitzgibbons, and Pomorski (2021) study taste-based portfolio theory and asset pricing in the presence of green investors. Similar to these papers, we model atomistic investors, some of whom derive warm-glow utility from holding shares of firms that have high non-monetary performance. Unlike these papers, we focus on how investors' trading based on their private signals shape asset price in a REE framework. Friedman and Heinle (2016) build a model in which traditional and green investors trade based on public signals. That is, all investors observe exactly the same information, and the price-learning channel, central to our paper, does not play a role in their model.

A related strand of literature studies whether and how socially responsible investors can affect firms' production decisions. One way to generate impact is through engagement by activist green investors who internalize their impacts on the social good (Gollier and Pouget, 2014; Chowdhry, Davies, and Waters, 2019; Landier and Lovo, 2020; Oehmke and Opp, 2020; Green and Roth, 2021; Gupta, Kopytov, and Starmans, 2021). If green investors are atomistic, like in our paper, they do not internalize their impacts on firm decisions. However, if they derive warm-glow utility from holding shares of green firms, their investment decisions can affect firm production choices through changing its cost of capital. In particular, Heinkel, Kraus, and Zechner (2001) show that firms excluded by green investors suffer a reduction in risk sharing in their investor base and thus have a higher cost of capital. The cost of capital channel is also at work in the papers studying taste-based asset pricing models that are discussed in the previous paragraph (e.g. Pastor et al., 2021). Hart and Zingales (2017) and Broccardo, Hart, and Zingales (2020) study engagement and exclusion in a unified model. Our model reveals a novel information channel that implies that the presence of green investors can lead to an *increase* in the firm's cost of capital. We further discuss empirical implications of our theoretical results and review related empirical literature in Sections 4.3 and 5.4.

More generally, our theoretical model contributes to the REE literature, pioneered by Grossman and Stiglitz (1980), Hellwig (1980) and Diamond and Verrecchia (1981). To the best of our knowledge, our model is the first to combine in a tractable framework the following two features. First, the market is populated by investors with heterogeneous preferences over multiple fundamentals. Second, investors are not restricted to be informed only about the fundamental they value.

A few papers analyze models with multiple fundamentals under homogeneous investor preferences. Goldstein and Yang (2015) build a model in which asset payoff is affected by two fundamentals while investors receive heterogeneous information about the fundamentals. Cespa and Foucault (2014) construct a two-asset economy to study cross-asset learning and liquidity spillovers. Ganguli and Yang (2009) and Manzano and Vives (2011) consider settings in which investors possess information about asset payoff and aggregate supply shock (see also Amador and Weill, 2010 and Davila and Parlatore, 2021); in Brunnermeier, Sockin, and Xiong (2021), investors can choose to learn about the fundamental or government action. Introducing preference heterogeneity implies that investors with different preferences use the same information to trade in the opposite directions, thus making the price noisier to each other.[4] This is a key force behind our results about price-related variables and nature of equilibria in the trading game.[5]

Several papers introduce heterogeneous valuations in the REE framework. Vanwalleghem (2017), Rahi and Zigrand (2018) and Rahi (2021) study models in which agents have private valuations but, different from our paper, receive only information about the fundamental they value. Vives (2011) constructs a rich environment to study supply schedule competition among agents with correlated private valuations.[6] In our model, heterogeneous asset valuations stem from investors' different preferences about the monetary and

[4] From this perspective, our paper is related to Goldstein, Li, and Yang (2014), where investors' objectives might be different due to different investment opportunities.

[5] The mechanism giving rise to equilibrium multiplicity is different from the existing literature: in Ganguli and Yang (2009) and Manzano and Vives (2011), multiplicity emerges because investors with homogeneous preferences might coordinate to trade based on their signals about fundamental or supply shock; in Lundholm (1988), it arises when investors receive correlated private and public signals; in Cespa and Foucault (2014), it is due to liquidity spillovers across different assets; in Glebkin (2019), it arises because large traders internalize their price impacts.

[6] Relatedly, see Rostek and Weretka (2012), Vives (2014), Babus and Kondor (2018), Bergemann, Heumann, and Morris (2021) and Glebkin (2019).

non-monetary payoff components. This results in a quite different information structure: Although all investors receive some information about firms' exposures to common risks (for example, by reading firms' reports), their trading activities are affected differently by the same information. This feature is crucial for our results but, to the best of our knowledge, is absent from the existing literature.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 presents a simplified model to highlight the key mechanisms. Section 3 lays out the main model and characterizes equilibria. Sections 4 and 5 study the growth of green investors and the improvement in non-monetary information quality, respectively. Section 6 concludes. Appendix contains all proofs missing from the main text.

2 A simplified model

To highlight the key mechanisms, we start by presenting a simplified version of our model in which we are able to get closed-form solutions.

2.1 Setup

Two assets are traded in the financial market: a risk-free bond and a risky stock of a firm. The bond is in unlimited supply. It pays off one and its price is normalized to one. The stock is a claim on the firm's output which consists of two risky components: a monetary component $\tilde{z}$ and a non-monetary component $\tilde{\delta}$. The monetary part can be interpreted as a cash flow generated by the firm. The non-monetary part can be interpreted as the firm's contribution to social good, for example, the amount of environmentally harmful carbon emissions taken with a negative sign. The two payoff components are uncorrelated normal random variables, $\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta} \sim N\left(0, \tau^{-1}\right)$. The stock is in unit supply, and its price $\tilde{p}$ is determined endogenously by market clearing in equilibrium.

There are two groups of rational investors with a combined mass of $m > 0$. Half of them are traditional investors who only value the firm's monetary output $\tilde{z}$. The other half are green investors who only value the non-monetary output $\tilde{\delta}$. In our model, green investors derive a warm-glow utility from holding stocks with high non-monetary performance. That is, green investors care about greenness of their portfolios but, being atomistic, do not consider how their investments contribute to public good. This is a standard way to model preferences of atomistic green investors (e.g. Fama and French, 2007; Pastor et al., 2021).[7]

Both traditional and green investors have constant absolute risk aversion (CARA) utilities with the same risk aversion parameter γ. Specifically, if an investor of type $j \in \{t, g\}$ has initial wealth W_0 and chooses to hold q shares, then her expected utility is

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{-\exp\left(-\gamma\left[W_0 + q\left(\beta_z^j \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta^j \tilde{\delta} - \tilde{p}\right)\right]\right)\right\},$$

where $\beta_z^t = 1$, $\beta_\delta^t = 0$, $\beta_z^g = 0$ and $\beta_\delta^g = 1$. In addition to rational traders, there are noise traders whose stock demand is $\tilde{n} \sim N\left(0, \tau_n^{-1}\right)$.

Rational investors trade based on information contained in the stock price and their private signals.[8] Traditional and green investors receive signals about both monetary and non-monetary fundamentals, namely, an investor i observes $\tilde{s}_z^i \sim N\left(\tilde{z}, \tau_s^{-1}\right)$ and $\tilde{s}_\delta^i \sim N\left(\tilde{\delta}, \tau_s^{-1}\right)$. This assumption on the information structure differentiates our paper from existing works on rational expectation models featuring agents with heterogeneous private valuations of a risky asset (e.g. Vives, 2014; Rahi and Zigrand, 2018). In those works, investors receive informative signals only about their private asset valuations. In our model, $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ are firm-specific payoff components that all investors can learn about. For example, investors are likely to learn about both payoff components by reading analyst and investor reports that describe firm's performance and risks comprehensively.

In our main model presented in Section 3, we relax several assumptions that we make in the simplified model. In particular, we allow masses of traditional and green investors to differ. We also allow green investors to value both monetary and non-monetary payoff components. We discuss how nonzero correlation between the two components affects our results. In Appendix E, we consider a general information structure featuring different information precisions for different types of investors and different payoff components. Such a model is much less tractable. Nevertheless, we show that our key results hold as long as traditional and green investors receive informative signals about both payoff components, not necessarily of equal precisions.

[7] In contrast, if investors have size (as in, for example, Oehmke and Opp, 2020), they might internalize their impacts on aggregate outcomes and public good.

[8] Huij, Laurs, Stork, and Zwinkels (2021) construct a measure of individual assets' climate risk exposure based on stock market information. They argue that such a measure provides information about carbon-related risks even for assets for which other carbon-related measures are not available.

2.2 Market clearing and equilibrium

As is standard in a CARA-normal setup, the demand for the stock from an investor i of type $j \in \{t, g\}$ is

$$d^{ij}\left(\mathcal{F}^i\right) = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left(\beta_z^j \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta^j \tilde{\delta} | \mathcal{F}^i\right) - \tilde{p}}{\gamma \mathbb{V}\left(\beta_z^j \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta^j \tilde{\delta} | \mathcal{F}^i\right)}, \quad (1)$$

where the information set $\mathcal{F}^i = \{\tilde{s}_z^i, \tilde{s}_\delta^i, \tilde{p}\}$ includes investor i's private signals and publicly observable stock price. Aggregating individual demands of rational investors and adding the demand from noise traders, we obtain the following market clearing condition:

$$D^t\left(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{p}\right) + D^g\left(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{p}\right) + \tilde{n} = 1, \quad (2)$$

where $D^j\left(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{p}\right) = \int_{i \in \mathcal{T}_j} d^{ij}\left(\mathcal{F}^i\right) di$ is the total demand for the stock from investors of type j; $\mathcal{T}_j$ denotes the set of investors of type $j \in \{t, g\}$.

Throughout the paper, we focus on rational expectation equilibria (REE) with linear prices,

$$\tilde{p} = p_0 + p_z \tilde{z} + p_\delta \tilde{\delta} + p_n \tilde{n} = p_0 + p_n\left(\xi_z \tilde{z} + \xi_\delta \tilde{\delta} + \tilde{n}\right),$$

where we define normalized price coefficients $\xi_z = \frac{p_z}{p_n}$ and $\xi_\delta = \frac{p_\delta}{p_n}$.

2.3 Equilibrium characterization

2.3.1 Trading intensities and feedback loop

Equilibrium price coefficients ξ_z and ξ_δ are shaped by trades of rational investors based on their private signals about $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$. A main ingredient of our model is heterogeneity in preferences of traditional and green investors. It has important implications on how investors use their information to trade. Consider a traditional investor. Denote her trading intensities with respect to her private signals $\tilde{s}_z$ and $\tilde{s}_\delta$ as i_z^t and i_δ^t, respectively, where trading intensities are defined as[9]

$$i_z^t \equiv \frac{\partial d^t\left(\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}\right)}{\partial \tilde{s}_z} = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}, \tag{3}$$

$$i_\delta^t \equiv \frac{\partial d^t\left(\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}\right)}{\partial \tilde{s}_\delta} = -\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}. \tag{4}$$

To understand what drives the traditional investor's trading intensities, it is useful to look at how she infers information about $\tilde{z}$, the payoff component that she values, from the price and her signals. Specifically, she expects to receive the following payoff from holding one share:

$$\mathbb{E}(\tilde{z}|\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}) = \underbrace{\tilde{s}_z \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s + \tau}}_{\text{Signal inference}} + \underbrace{\frac{p_z \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s}\left[\tilde{p} - \left(p_0 + p_z \tilde{s}_z \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau} + p_\delta \tilde{s}_\delta \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau}\right)\right]}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}}}_{\text{Price inference}}. \tag{5}$$

Upon receiving a higher $\tilde{s}_z$, a given traditional investor directly infers from her signal that $\tilde{z}$ is higher ("Signal inference" term in (5)). At the same time, for a fixed price $\tilde{p}$, a higher $\tilde{s}_z$ implies that other investors receive lower signals about $\tilde{z}$ and the information about $\tilde{z}$ contained in the price is worse ("Price inference" term in (5)).

Posterior uncertainty about $\tilde{z}$ for a traditional investor equals to uncertainty about $\tilde{z}$ after observing a private signal net of a reduction in uncertainty due to learning from the price:

$$\mathbb{V}\left(\tilde{z}|\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}\right) = \frac{1}{\tau + \tau_s} - \frac{\left(p_z \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s}\right)^2}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}}. \tag{6}$$

In particular, if the price is strongly associated with the non-monetary component (p_δ is high) or with the noise traders' demand (p_n is high), then traditional investors cannot learn much about $\tilde{z}$ from the price, and the uncertainty reduction term is small.

Plugging (5) and (6) in the demand function (1), it is easy to derive that trading intensity i_z^t of a traditional investor with respect to $\tilde{s}_z$ is positive and constant, as shown in (3). This is a standard result (Hellwig, 1980).

More interestingly, the traditional investor's trading intensity with respect to $\tilde{s}_\delta$ is neg-

[9] To lighten the notation, we use the fact that investors within each type have identical preferences and omit investor-specific indices where possible.

ative and depends on the equilibrium price coefficients. Because a traditional investor does not value the non-monetary payoff component, a better realization of $\tilde{s}_\delta$ does not directly affect the expected stock payoff for such an investor. However, she uses her signal on $\tilde{\delta}$ to infer $\tilde{z}$ from the price. In particular, for a given price, she infers that a higher $\tilde{s}_\delta$ implies worse aggregate information about $\tilde{z}$. Therefore, she reduces her demand in response to a higher $\tilde{s}_\delta$.

The magnitude of i^t_δ is high if a traditional investors are able to infer a lot about $\tilde{z}$ from the price based on their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals. This price inference effect is strong if the equilibrium price responds strongly to changes in $\tilde{\delta}$ (that is, ξ_δ is high) and, at the same time, informative about $\tilde{z}$ (ξ_z is high). The price inference effect is captured by the numerator of the expression (4). At the same time, if the price is a noisy signal about $\tilde{z}$, either due to its strong association with $\tilde{\delta}$ or due to noise traders, traditional investors do not trade the stock actively. This reduces the magnitude of i^t_δ. The price noisiness effect is captured by the denominator of (4).

Analogously, the trading intensities of a green investor are

$$i^g_z \equiv \frac{\partial d^g\left(\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}\right)}{\partial \tilde{s}_z} = -\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma} \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}, \tag{7}$$

$$i^g_\delta \equiv \frac{\partial d^g\left(\tilde{s}_z, \tilde{s}_\delta, \tilde{p}\right)}{\partial \tilde{s}_\delta} = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}. \tag{8}$$

Because traditional and green investors value different fundamentals, they trade in the opposite directions based on the same signals. Both investor types trade with equal and constant intensities on signals about the payoff components they value: $i^t_z = i^g_\delta = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}$. At the same time, their trading intensities on signals about the fundamentals they do not value, i^t_δ and i^g_z, depend on the equilibrium price coefficients and, in particular, on the riskiness of the stock payoff. Recall that an investor of type j trades more intensively on signals about the fundamental she does not value when facing smaller residual uncertainty or, equivalently, when the equilibrium price is more informative to her. Defining the price informativeness to a type-j investor as

$$PI_j \equiv \mathbb{V}\left(\beta^j_z \tilde{z} + \beta^j_\delta \tilde{\delta} | \mathcal{F}^i\right)^{-1},$$

it is easy to see that

$$\frac{i_\delta^t}{i_z^g} = \frac{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}} = \frac{PI_t}{PI_g} \equiv v, \tag{9}$$

where v is the relative price informativeness. If $v > 1$, the price is more informative to traditional investors, and their trading against their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals is more intense than trading of green investors against their $\tilde{z}$-signals. The opposite is true if $v < 1$.

The trading intensities of traditional and green investors determine information content of the price, that is, the equilibrium price coefficients. The market clearing condition (2) implies

$$\xi_z = \frac{m}{2}\left(i_z^t + i_z^g\right), \tag{10}$$

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{m}{2}\left(i_\delta^t + i_\delta^g\right). \tag{11}$$

Expression (9) and the system (10)-(11) indicate that there exists a feedback loop between the trading intensities i_δ^t, i_z^g and the price coefficients. On the one hand, if traditional investors trade more aggressively against their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals than green investors against their $\tilde{z}$-signals, the price incorporates less information about the non-monetary component, so that $\xi_\delta < \xi_z$. On the other hand, if the price reflects less non-monetary information, it is more informative to traditional investors. They face less residual uncertainty about the stock payoff, which justifies why they trade more aggressively than green investors in the first place. An analogous feedback loop exists if green investors dominate the trading.

2.3.2 Equilibrium multiplicity

The feedback loop described above has profound impacts on the equilibrium outcomes. In particular, it might lead to multiple equilibria in the trading stage and, thus, multiple equilibrium pricing functions. Using the expressions for the trading intensities (3)-(4) and (7)-(8), the system of equations (10)-(11) can be rewritten as

$$\xi_z = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\left[1 - \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}\right], \tag{12}$$

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\left[1 - \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}\right]. \tag{13}$$

Expressing ξ_z as a function of ξ_δ from (13) and plugging it in (12), we get the following equation for ξ_δ:

$$\left(\xi_\delta^3 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\xi_\delta - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\right)\left(\xi_\delta^2 - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\xi_\delta + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\right) = 0. \tag{14}$$

Due to the symmetry of the system (12)-(13), it is natural to split the analysis in two cases.

Case 1: $\xi_z = \xi_\delta$.

Plugging $\xi_z = \xi_\delta$ in (13), we obtain

$$\xi_\delta^3 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\xi_\delta - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n} = 0. \tag{15}$$

This is the first term in the left-hand side of (14). Clearly, this equation always has a unique and positive real root. This solution corresponds to a symmetric equilibrium in which traditional and green investors trade equally actively, $i_\delta^t = i_z^g$. This results in the price being equally informative to the two investor groups, $v = 1$.

Case 2: $\xi_z \neq \xi_\delta$.

Recall that the system for ξ_z and ξ_δ (12)-(13) can be simplified to one equation in ξ_δ (14). The first term in the left-hand side of (14) corresponds to Case 1 in which $\xi_z = \xi_\delta$. Therefore, if $\xi_z \neq \xi_\delta$, it must be that

$$\xi_\delta^2 - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\xi_\delta + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n} = 0. \tag{16}$$

This equation has two real roots if $\tau_n > \tau_n^* \equiv 4(\tau+\tau_s)\left(\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\right)^{-2}$, that is, if the demand from noise traders is not too volatile:[10]

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\right)^2 - 4\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}\right] \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_z = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2} - \xi_\delta.$$

In the equilibrium with $\xi_\delta > \frac{1}{2}\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2} > \xi_z$, the price is mostly driven by the non-monetary component and is more informative to green investors, $v < 1$. We refer to this equilibrium as a *G-equilibrium*. The other one is referred to as a *T-equilibrium*: there $\xi_\delta < \frac{1}{2}\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2} < \xi_z$

[10] If $\tau_n = \tau_n^*$, the root in Case 2 is unique and coincides with that in Case 1: $\xi_\delta = \xi_z = \frac{1}{2}\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}$.

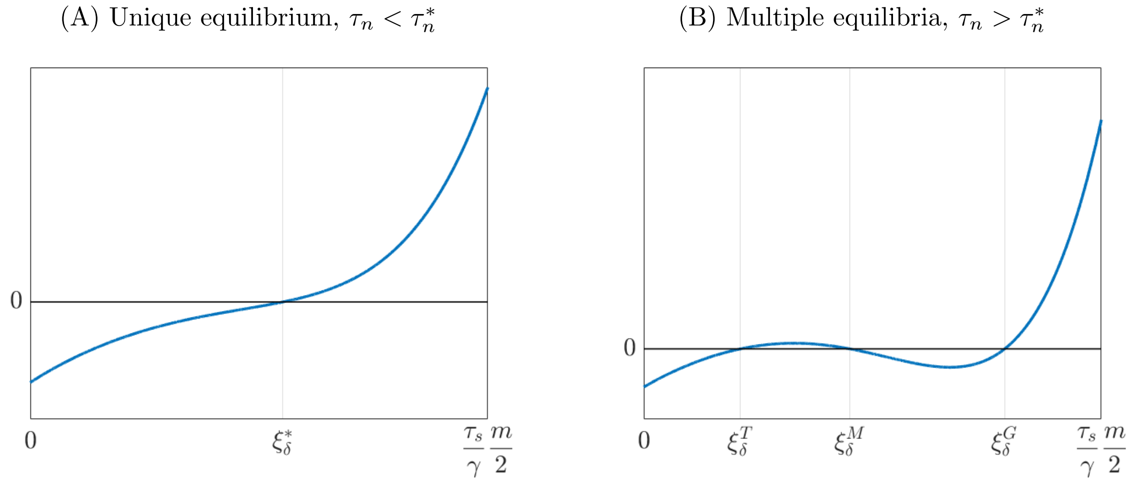

Figure 1: Equilibrium ξ_δ: Solution to equation (14).

and the price is more informative to traditional investors, $\upsilon > 1$.

The G- and T-equilibria coexist if

$$\tau_n > \tau_n^* \equiv 4\,(\tau + \tau_s)\left(\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}\right)^{-2}.$$

That is, the multiplicity emerges if the exogenous noise is small. More specifically, it emerges if the volatility of noise traders' demand τ_n^{-1} is small, signals are precise relative to priors (high τ_s and low τ), and the mass of informed investors m is large.

If the exogenous noise is small, the feedback loop described in the previous section is more pronounced. In particular, if τ_n is large, the relative price informativeness (9) is very sensitive to the price coefficients. As a result, multiple equilibria marked by different relative price informativeness arise. If, on the contrary, τ_n is small, the price is mostly driven by the noise traders' demand, the relative price informativeness is always close to one, and the feedback loop is weak. In this case, the only possible equilibrium is the one described in Case 1.

To sum up, in this simple model, equilibrium is unique when the exogenous noise is large (panel (A) of Figure 1). Otherwise, there exist three equilibria (panel (B) of Figure 1). In the G- and T-equilibria, trading is dominated by a particular group of investors and the price is more informative to investors of the dominant group. In the third equilibrium, neither of the two groups is dominating, and the price is equally informative to all investors. In what follows, we refer to this equilibrium as an *M-equilibrium*.[11]

2.3.3 Discussion of key model features

The key mechanism behind the feedback loop and equilibria multiplicity is that investors trade in the opposite directions when receiving the same signals. This mechanism requires that the two investor groups have, first, the incentives to trade against each other and, second, the means of doing so.

The incentives arise due to the preference heterogeneity. Because investors value different payoff components, they use the same information differently. By trading against signals about the fundamental they do not value, investors of one group make the price noisier to the other group. Facing riskier stock payoff, investors of the other group choose to trade less actively. The feedback loop between the trading intensities and the price informativeness gives rise to multiple equilibria. In the absence of the preference heterogeneity, all investors trade in the same way, and the price is always equally informative to everyone. In that case, our model reduces to a fairly standard REE setting with a unique equilibrium.[12]

The ability of investors to trade in the opposite directions relies on availability of information about the payoff components that they value and not. In the context of responsible investing, traditional investors might put less value to firms' ESG performances but still receive related information from news articles or comprehensive disclosure statements. Receiving such information makes it possible for traditional investors to trade against green investors. If investors receive information only about the component they value, the feedback loop disappears. In Appendix E, we show that in the setting with heterogeneous preferences, multiple equilibria emerge unless investors receive information *only* about the payoff components they value (as in, for example, Vives, 2014; Rahi and Zigrand, 2018).

[11] It is easy to verify that if there are three equilibria, then $\xi_\delta^M \in (\xi_\delta^T, \xi_\delta^G)$. Indeed, by plugging the two solutions of (16) into (15), we find that the left-hand side of (15) is negative for $\xi_\delta^T < \frac{1}{2}\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}$ and is positive for $\xi_\delta^G > \frac{1}{2}\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\frac{m}{2}$. We prove this formally in Appendix A.2.2.

[12] Goldstein and Yang (2015) study a model in which investors with homogeneous preferences trade the stock whose payoff is affected by two components. They show equilibrium uniqueness under assumption that there are two investor groups and investors within each group are informed about one fundamental. Appendix F verifies this result under more general information structure.

3 The main model

3.1 Setup

This section presents our main model which extends the simplified version of the previous section along two dimensions. All proofs and derivations are in Appendix.

First, we relax the equal-mass assumption such that the green investor share is $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. The market is thus populated with a mass $m_t = (1 - \alpha)m$ of traditional investors and a mass $m_g = \alpha m$ of green investors.

Second, we allow for partially aligned preferences of traditional and green investors. In particular, traditional investors still only value the monetary payoff component, i.e. $\beta_z^t = 1, \beta_\delta^t = 0$. However, green investors might value both the monetary and non-monetary components. The stock payoff to them is $\beta_z \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta \tilde{\delta}$, where $\beta_z \geq 0$ and $\beta_\delta > 0$ are utility weights. We normalize $\beta_z^2 + \beta_\delta^2 = 1$, so that the ex-ante variance of the stock payoff is the same for traditional and green investors. Therefore, β_δ captures the degree of preference heterogeneity across traditional and green investors.

Furthermore, in Appendix D, we consider a model in which the monetary and non-monetary components can be correlated. We show that incorporating correlation between the two payoff components is equivalent to considering the model with partially aligned preferences. In particular, the model in which the two payoff components have a correlation of ρ and green investors have preference weights (β_z, β_δ) is equivalent to the model in which the payoff components are uncorrelated but green investors' preference weights on the "purely" monetary and non-monetary components are $(\beta_z + \rho\beta_\delta, \beta_\delta\sqrt{1 - \rho^2})$. Because the $\rho \neq 0$ extension is subsumed by the model with uncorrelated payoff components and generalized preferences of green investors, we consider the latter model in what follows and delegate the discussion of the $\rho \neq 0$ case to Appendix D.[13]

3.2 Equilibrium characterization

The analyses and intuitions of the simplified model can be extended to the main model. From a green investor's perspective, the stock payoff is $\tilde{y} = \beta_z \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta \tilde{\delta}$. Correspondingly,

[13]More specifically, Appendix D considers the case $\text{Corr}(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}) = \text{Corr}(\tilde{s}_z^i, \tilde{s}_\delta^i) = \rho$. That is, the two payoff components and investors' signals about them share the same correlation coefficient. A richer correlation structure substantially complicates analytical characterization.

$\tilde{x} = \beta_\delta \tilde{z} - \beta_z \tilde{\delta}$ is orthogonal to $\tilde{y}$ and thus represents the payoff component that green investors do not value. In this setting, differential usage of information by the two investor groups becomes less stark. Specifically, a green investor receiving a better signal about the monetary component still infers a worse realization of the non-monetary component from the price. However, as long as she directly values firm's monetary performance, i.e. $\beta_z > 0$, she has a weaker incentive to trade against high $\tilde{z}$-signals. As a result, her trading intensity on her monetary signal becomes

$$i_z^g = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma} \frac{\beta_z \left(\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n} \right) - \xi_z \xi_\delta \beta_\delta}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z \right)^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n}}. \tag{17}$$

Similarly, a green investor has a weaker incentive to increase her demand for the stock following a better non-monetary signal,

$$i_\delta^g = \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma} \frac{\beta_\delta \left(\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n} \right) - \xi_z \xi_\delta \beta_z}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z \right)^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n}}. \tag{18}$$

Although the preferences of traditional and green investors are partially aligned, the feedback loop described in Section 2 still arises as long as their preferences are not entirely homogeneous. In particular, the relative price informativeness (9) becomes

$$v \equiv \frac{PI_t}{PI_g} = \frac{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z \right)^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n}}. \tag{19}$$

If traditional investors dominate the trading, the price is mostly aligned with their preferences and less noisy to them, i.e. $\xi_\delta < \xi_x \equiv \xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z$, where ξ_x is the price coefficient associated with payoff component $\tilde{x}$ that green investors do not value. Then green investors do not trade the stock actively, as can be seen from expression for trading intensities (17)-(18). The opposite is true if green investors dominate the trading.

In the main model, analytic characterization becomes substantially more cumbersome than in the simplified model, so we delegate derivations and proofs to Appendix A. In particular, we show there that the equilibrium characterization boils down to a fixed point problem for ξ_δ,

$$\xi_\delta = J\left(\xi_\delta \right). \tag{20}$$

It can be simplified to the following quintic equation in ξ_δ:

$$\xi_\delta^5 - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\alpha m\beta_\delta\xi_\delta^4 + 2\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\xi_\delta^3 - 2\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\alpha m\beta_\delta\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\xi_\delta^2 + \left[\left(\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}(1-\alpha)m\beta_\delta\right)^2\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\right]\xi_\delta - \frac{\tau_s}{\gamma}\alpha m\beta_\delta\left(\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}\right)^2 = 0. \quad (21)$$

Note that (21) simplifies to (14) if $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\beta_\delta = 1$.

Proposition 1. *There exists a multiplicity threshold $\tau_n^*(\alpha, \beta_\delta) > 0$ such that*[14]

(i) if $\tau_n \in (0, \tau_n^*)$, there is a unique equilibrium;

(ii) if $\tau_n = \tau_n^*$, there are two equilibria if $\alpha \neq \frac{1}{2}$ and one equilibrium if $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$;

(iii) if $\tau_n > \tau_n^*$, there are three equilibria.

In any equilibrium, $p_0 < 0$, $p_z > 0$, $p_\delta > 0$ and $p_n > 0$.

Proposition 1 confirms that, same as in the simplified model, multiple equilibria can arise when the exogenous noise is sufficiently small, i.e. $\tau_n > \tau_n^*$ (panel B in Figure 2). As illustrated earlier, in that case, the price informativeness and trading intensities are sensitive to the equilibrium price coefficients, which strengthens the feedback loop. When τ_n is small (panel A in Figure 2), the feedback loop is weak, resulting in a unique equilibrium.

Proposition 2. *The multiplicity threshold $\tau_n^*(\alpha, \beta_\delta)$ behaves such that (i) $\frac{d\tau_n^*(\alpha,\beta_\delta)}{d\beta_\delta} < 0$; (ii) $\frac{d\tau_n^*(\alpha,\beta_\delta)}{d\alpha} \lesseqqgtr 0$ if $\alpha \lesseqqgtr \frac{1}{2}$.*

Proposition 2 characterizes how the multiplicity threshold τ_n^* varies with the degree of preference heterogeneity β_δ and the green investor share α. The equilibrium multiplicity is more likely to arise when the preference heterogeneity is large in the entire investor base, that is, when the non-monetary utility weight of green investors β_δ is large and the masses of the two groups are similar (α is close to $\frac{1}{2}$). If the investor base consists mainly of investors of one type, or if traditional and green investors' preferences are closely aligned, the aggregate preference heterogeneity is small. For example, if there are only a few green investors ($\alpha \to 0$), or green investors mostly value the monetary payoff

[14] We write the threshold τ_n^* as a function of α and β_δ. In general, τ_n^* depends on other model parameters. However, we do not mention them explicitly because they are not our focus here.

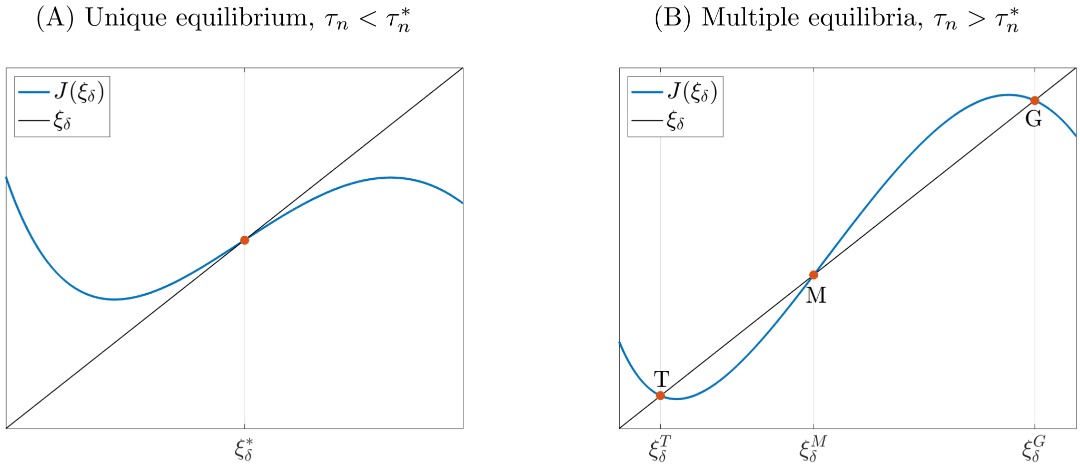

Figure 2: Equilibrium ξ_δ: Solution to equation (20), $\xi_\delta = J(\xi_\delta)$.

($\beta_\delta \to 0$), the investor base is nearly homogeneous, and the model reduces to a standard REE model with a unique pricing function.

When multiple equilibria are possible, they can be ranked by the relative price informativeness. Formally, price informativeness to traditional and green investors are

$$PI_t \equiv \mathbb{V}\left(\tilde{z}|\mathcal{F}^{ij}\right)^{-1} = (\tau+\tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2+\xi_\delta^2+\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\xi_\delta^2+\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}, \tag{22}$$

$$PI_g \equiv \mathbb{V}\left(\beta_z\tilde{z}+\beta_\delta\tilde{\delta}|\mathcal{F}^{ij}\right)^{-1} = (\tau+\tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2+\xi_\delta^2+\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\left(\xi_\delta\beta_z-\xi_z\beta_\delta\right)^2+\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}, \tag{23}$$

and so the relative price informativeness $v = \frac{PI_t}{PI_g}$ is given by (19). Using the same terminology as in the simplified model, if there are three equilibria, we call the one with the smallest v the G-equilibrium, the one with the largest v the T-equilibrium, and the one with a medium v the M-equilibrium.[15] Formally, we have

Proposition 3. *When there are three equilibria, they can be ranked according to the relative price informativeness to traditional investors v. In the T-equilibrium $v^T > 1$; in the G-equilibrium $v^G < 1$; in the M-equilibrium $v^M \in \left(v^G, v^T\right)$.*

Possibility of equilibrium multiplicity naturally raises the question about equilibrium selection. A common selection approach suggests that stable equilibria are more likely to be played. Recall that ξ_δ is a fixed point of $J(\xi_\delta)$ as in (20). We call an equilibrium

[15]By Proposition 1, two equilibria exist when $\tau_n = \tau_n^*$ and $\alpha \neq \frac{1}{2}$. In what follows, we do not analyze this knife-edge case to save space. Results are available upon request.

stable if the dynamics around the equilibrium ξ_δ^* are locally stable, i.e. $\frac{\partial[J(\xi_\delta)-\xi_\delta]}{\partial \xi_\delta}\Big|_{\xi_\delta=\xi_\delta^*} < 0$.[16] Under this criterion, if the system is pushed to an off-equilibrium point $\xi_\delta^* + \epsilon$, it tends to move back to the equilibrium point ξ_δ^* if $|\epsilon|$ is sufficiently small. In Figure 2, stable/unstable equilibria are those intersections of $J(\xi_\delta)$ and ξ_δ for which the derivative of $J(\xi_\delta)$ is below/above one.

Proposition 4. *If equilibrium is unique, it is stable. If there are three equilibria, the T- and G-equilibria are stable and the M-equilibrium is unstable.*

Proposition 4 suggests that investors are unlikely to coordinate on the M-equilibrium when the G- and T-equilibria exist. The M-equilibrium also has counter-intuitive properties. For example, in the M-equilibrium, when the mass of one investor group increases, the price becomes *less* informative to investors of this group (this is formally established in Proposition 5 below). In other words, investors should coordinate to trade *less* actively when there are more investors with the same preferences. In what follows, we characterize all equilibria but put less focus on the M-equilibrium when the multiplicity is possible.

4 Growth of green investors

In this section, we examine impacts of the recent trend of growing investors' awareness about firms' ESG performances. Using the model of Section 3, we characterize how the price informativeness and the firm's cost of capital respond to an increase in the green investor share α in Sections 4.1 and 4.2. We then discuss empirical implications of our results in Section 4.3. Proofs and derivations for this section are in Appendix B.

4.1 Price informativeness

Proposition 5 characterizes how absolute and relative price informativeness, PI_t, PI_g, and v, change with the green investor share α.

[16] Under this criterion, a fixed point of the nonlinear differential equation $\frac{d\xi_{\delta,t}}{dt} = J(\xi_{\delta,t}) - \xi_{\delta,t}$ is locally stable. Notably, a formal evaluation of stability requires a dynamic extension of our model, which is beyond the scope of this paper. However, this criterion is similar to the one derived in the literature introducing recursive-least-squares (adaptive) learning in settings a la Grossman and Stiglitz (1980) (Bray, 1982; Marcet and Sargent, 1989; Heinemann, 2009).

Proposition 5. *If* $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$*, there is a unique equilibrium in which* $\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} < 0$*,* $\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha} > 0$*, and* $\frac{dv}{d\alpha} < 0$*. If* $\tau_n > \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$*, there exists* $\underline{\alpha} \in \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ *and* $\bar{\alpha} = 1 - \underline{\alpha}$ *such that*[17]

(i) if $\alpha < \underline{\alpha}$*, there is a unique T-equilibrium in which* $v^T > 1$*;*

(ii) if $\alpha > \bar{\alpha}$*, there is a unique G-equilibrium in which* $v^G < 1$*;*

(iii) if $\alpha \in (\underline{\alpha}, \bar{\alpha})$*, there are three equilibria and* $v^T > v^M > v^G$*.*

Moreover, in the T- and G-equilibria, $\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} < 0$*,* $\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha} > 0$*, and* $\frac{dv}{d\alpha} < 0$*; in the M-equilibrium,* $\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} > 0$*,* $\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha} < 0$*, and* $\frac{dv}{d\alpha} > 0$*.*

Suppose first that the exogenous noise is large, i.e. $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$. By Proposition 2, the multiple equilibria region is largest when the investor base consists of equal masses of green and traditional investors, $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, if equilibrium is unique for $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, it is unique for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.

As α increases, the equilibrium price coefficients change such that the price becomes more informative to green investors and less informative to traditional investors. First, for given individual trading intensities, a larger α means that the price becomes more aligned with the preferences of green investors simply and thus more informative to them because they are responsible for a larger share of trades in the market. Second, individual trading intensities adjust. Green investors, facing a lower residual risk, trade more actively, whereas traditional investors reduce their trading activity. Panel (A) in Figure 3 illustrates how the relative price informativeness varies with the green investor share.

If the exogenous noise is small, i.e. $\tau_n > \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$, equilibrium multiplicity is possible when masses of traditional and green investors are similar, that is, α is close to $\frac{1}{2}$. Start from an economy with few green investors ($\alpha < \underline{\alpha}$). Here, traditional investors significantly outweigh green investors. There exists a unique T-equilibrium in which the price is informative mostly about the monetary component, resulting in $v > 1$. As α increases and crosses $\underline{\alpha}$, the feedback look becomes sufficiently strong to support the G-equilibrium in which the price is more informative to green investors, $v < 1$. Interestingly, the G-equilibrium is sustainable even if green investors constitute a minority in the investor

[17] Although there is a unique equilibrium if $\alpha < \underline{\alpha}$ and $\alpha > \bar{\alpha}$, we refer to it as either a T- or G-equilibrium, respectively, because the equilibrium outcomes, such as the price coefficients and price informativeness, are continuous at $\alpha = \underline{\alpha}$ and $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$ as shown in panel (B) of Figure 3.

base, i.e. $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$. Eventually, when the share of green investors becomes sufficiently large, $\alpha > \bar{\alpha}$, there exists a unique G-equilibrium.

Panel (B) in Figure 3 shows relative price informativeness v in this case. Similar to the case of large exogenous noise, as α increases, the price becomes more informative to green investors and less informative to traditional investors in the stable T- and G-equilibria. Different from the case of large exogenous noise, however, there can be discontinuous jumps in the price informativeness due to switches across equilibria.

(A) Unique equilibrium, $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$ (B) Multiplicity is possible, $\tau_n > \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$

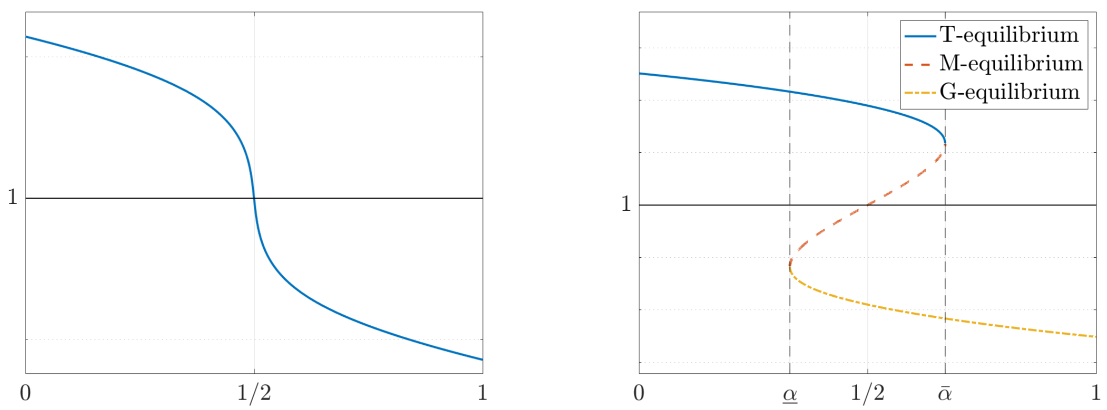

Figure 3: Relative price informativeness to traditional investors v as a function of the green investor share α. Y-axes are in the log scale.

4.2 Cost of capital

In our model, the monetary return on the risky asset is $\tilde{z} - \tilde{p}$. Therefore, the expected monetary return is

$$\mathbb{E}(\tilde{z} - \tilde{p}) = -p_0 = \frac{\gamma}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g}. \tag{24}$$

In what follows, we refer to $\mathbb{E}(\tilde{z} - \tilde{p})$ as the firm's cost of capital and denote it by CoC. CoC, therefore, is the expected financial return which captures the firm's cost of capital from the perspective of the manager who only values firm's financial performance. Such a metric is also commonly considered as a cost of capital measure in the literature.[18] (24) is

[18] In our setting, the expected financial return does not necessarily capture the expected return for all firm investors because green investors also value firm's non-monetary performance. However, if $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ have zero means, the expected return for green investors is the same as (24): $\mathbb{E}(\beta_z \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta \tilde{\delta} - \tilde{p}) = -p_0$.

also closely related to the earnings-to-price ratio that is frequently analyzed in empirical research and by practitioners.

As is standard in the REE settings (e.g. Easley and O'Hara, 2004), the cost of capital defined by (24) reflects the compensation required by risk-averse investors for their investment risks. In our environment, it is determined by the weighted average of price informativeness to traditional and green investors. Proposition 6 characterizes how CoC changes with the share of green investors α.

Proposition 6. *If $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$, there is a unique equilibrium in which $\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} \gtreqless 0$ if $\alpha \lesseqgtr \frac{1}{2}$. If $\tau_n > \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$, in the T-equilibrium, $\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} > 0$; in the G-equilibrium, $\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} < 0$; in the M-equilibrium, $\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} \gtreqless 0$ if $\alpha \lesseqgtr \frac{1}{2}$.*

Consider first the case of large exogenous noise, i.e. $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$, such that there always exist a unique equilibrium. This case is illustrated by panel (A) of Figure 4. Suppose that $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$, that is, the mass of traditional investors is larger than the mass of green investors. A marginal effect of α on CoC can be decomposed in two components,

$$\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} = -\frac{\gamma}{((1-\alpha)PI_t + \alpha PI_g)^2} \frac{1}{m} \left(\underbrace{PI_g - PI_t}_{\text{Direct effect}} + \underbrace{(1-\alpha)\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} + \alpha \frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha}}_{\text{Indirect effect}} \right),$$

The direct effect reflects the change in the cost of capital due to to the change in the investor base composition holding price informativeness PI_t and PI_g fixed. If $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$, $PI_g < PI_t$ by Proposition 5, that is, green investors face higher residual risk when investing in the stock. As a result, the direct effect drives the cost of capital up.

The indirect effect captures the change in the cost of capital due to adjustments in the equilibrium price coefficients and, hence, price informativeness. By Proposition 5, the price informativeness to traditional and green investors move in the opposite directions as the composition of investor base changes: $\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} < 0$ and $\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha} > 0$. Nevertheless, the indirect effect also pushes the cost of capital up if $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$. The key force behind this result is as follows. As the share of green investors α grows, the price becomes more associated with the non-monetary component, i.e. ξ_δ goes up. However, an increase in ξ_δ also allows traditional investors to use their non-monetary signals more actively to trade against green investors along the $\tilde{\delta}$-dimension. Trades by traditional investors thus prevent ξ_δ and PI_g from sharp increases. This effect is particularly strong if the magnitude of

At the end of this section, we discuss the cost of capital measure if $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ have non-zero means.

traditional investors' trading intensity is high, namely, if traditional investors face low investment risk ($\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ and $PI_t > PI_g$).

In sum, when the investor base consists mostly of traditional investors, an increase in the green investor share leads to an increase the overall information risk and, therefore, in the cost of capital. In contrast, when the majority of investors have green preferences ($\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$), the signs of both direct and indirect effects flip, and the cost of capital declines in α. The cost of capital reaches its maximum when the masses of the two groups are equal, that is, when investor heterogeneity is high and trades by green and traditional investors introduce substantial amounts of noise to each other.

Suppose now that the exogenous noise is small, i.e. $\tau_n > \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$. Then multiple equilibria are possible. The comparative statics of CoC with respect to α for this case is shown in Panel (B) of Figure 4. In the T-equilibrium, traditional investors dominate the trading and $PI_t > PI_g$. Similar to the unique equilibrium case, an increase in α leads to a larger CoC through both direct and indirect channels. The opposite is true in the G-equilibrium in which the stock is primarily traded by green investors.

(A) Unique equilibrium, $\tau_n \leq \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$ (B) Multiplicity is possible, $\tau_n > \tau_n^* \left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta_\delta\right)$

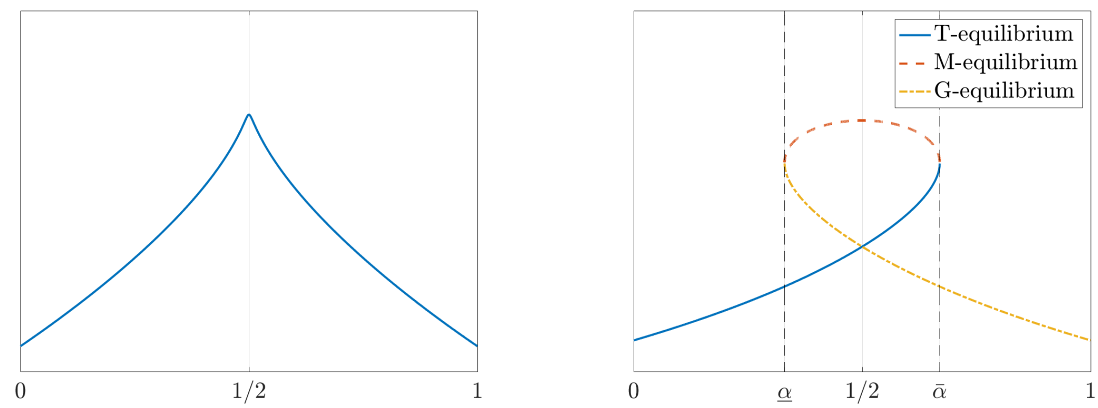

Figure 4: Cost of capital CoC as a function of the green investor share α. Y-axes are in the log scale.

So far we have analyzed the cost of capital for a firm with zero average monetary and non-monetary payoffs, that is, when both $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ have zero means. We now characterize how the cost of capital changes with the green investor share for a firm with non-zero expected payoffs.

Corollary 1. *Suppose that* $\tilde{z} \sim N(\mu_z, \tau^{-1})$ *and* $\tilde{\delta} \sim N(\mu_\delta, \tau^{-1})$*. Then*

$$CoC = \mathbb{E}(\tilde{z} - \tilde{p}) = \frac{\gamma}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g} + c_z \mu_z + c_\delta \mu_\delta,$$

where $c_z = \frac{(1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta}{\beta_\delta \xi_z + (1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta} > 0$ *and* $c_\delta = -\frac{\beta_\delta \xi_\delta}{\beta_\delta \xi_z + (1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta} < 0$*. Moreover,* $\frac{dc_z}{d\alpha} > 0$ *and* $\frac{dc_\delta}{d\alpha} < 0$ *except for the M-equilibrium. In the M-equilibrium,* $\frac{dc_z}{d\alpha} < 0$ *and* $\frac{dc_\delta}{d\alpha} > 0$*.*

Corollary 1 delivers two main results. First, the firm's cost of capital increases in its expected monetary output μ_z and decreases in its expected non-monetary output μ_δ. Recall that we define CoC as the expected financial return, that is, as the cost of capital from the perspective of the firm's manager who values only the monetary output $\tilde{z}$. From the manager's perspective, an increase in μ_z is not fully reflected in the stock price in the presence of green investors because they do not value monetary performance as much as the manager. In contrast, a higher μ_δ implies a higher demand from green investors, which drives the stock price up. However, the expected monetary output is unchanged.

Second, as the green investor share increases, the cost of capital becomes more sensitive to both μ_z and μ_δ, that is, the absolute values of c_z and c_δ increase in α. With more investors valuing non-monetary performance, the average preference of investors deviates more from that of the firm manager. As a result, from the manager's perspective, the firm is more under-compensated for an increase in μ_z and more over-compensated for an increase in μ_δ.

Finally, it is worth commenting on a proper measure of the cost of capital in our model. The expected financial return (24) measures the firm's cost of capital from the perspective of the firm manager who only cares about firm's financial performance. In reality, firm managers are likely to have such preferences because their compensations are usually tied to stock prices and firms' earnings rather than non-monetary metrics such as carbon emissions. Within our framework, one may also consider a manager who values both payoff components such that the cost of capital is $\mathbb{E}\left(\beta_z^F \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta^F \tilde{\delta} - \tilde{p}\right)$. The results of Corollary 1 are preserved if the preferences of the manager and traditional investors are sufficiently close.[19]

[19] An interesting question in this respect is how the manager's preferences are related to those of heterogeneous investors, some of whom have non-pecuniary considerations (Hart and Zingales, 2017). We leave this for future exploration.

4.3 Empirical implications

In this section, we discuss some empirical implications of our results presented in Sections 4.1-4.2 and describe possible ways to test them.

Price informativeness Proposition 5 states that as the green investor share increases, the price becomes more informative about the non-monetary payoff and less informative about the monetary payoff. These predictions are testable. To do so, the first step is to estimate price informativeness about the monetary and non-monetary fundamentals. The approach developed by Davila and Parlatore (2018) can be useful here. Using their methodology, one can recover price informativeness about various payoff components via simple regressions of (changes in) individual stock prices on (changes in) earnings and some measures of environmental impact (for example, changes in firm-level carbon emissions used by Bolton and Kacperczyk, 2021). Bai, Philippon, and Savov (2016) propose a related approach which implies estimating the predictive power of asset prices for future variation in cash flows and non-monetary output.

The second step is to test whether investor composition (e.g., fraction of institutional investors with ESG-related objectives in the overall investor base) is associated with different price informativeness about the monetary and non-monetary fundamentals. Since investor composition is likely to be correlated with characteristics of the production technology (i.e., green investors hold on average greener stocks), one can in addition control for average firm-level emissions or ESG ratings.

Cost of capital Experiments and surveys consistently suggest that investors care about non-monetary aspects of firms' operations and are willing to sacrifice financial returns for non-pecuniary benefits (Martin and Moser, 2016; Riedl and Smeets, 2017; Barber et al., 2021). However, when comparing costs of capital or expected asset returns of green and traditional firms, existing empirical literature documents mixed results. Some papers find a negative association between ESG performance and stock returns. This implies a high cost of equity for firms with bad ESG performance, for example, sin firms (Hong and Kacperczyk, 2009), heavy polluters (Bolton and Kacperczyk, 2021), and firms with low corporate social responsibility (CSR) scores (El Ghoul, Guedhami, Kwok, and Mishra, 2011; Chava, 2014; Ng and Rezaee, 2015). At the same time, Avramov, Cheng, Lioui, and Tarelli (2021) show that the ESG-alpha relation can be insignificant or positive when uncertainty about ESG performance is high. Derwall, Guenster, Bauer, and Koedijk (2005) find higher expected returns for eco-efficient portfolios. Similarly, for cost of debt, some papers find a lower yield for green bonds (Baker et al., 2018; Zerbib, 2019), while others find no statistically significant difference between green and brown bonds for the same issuer (Larcker and Watts, 2020; Tang and Zhang, 2020; Flammer, 2021).

Our results can be useful to interpret the above-mentioned mixed empirical evidence.[20] On the one hand, Corollary 1 implies that green firms with a high expected non-monetary output enjoy a lower cost of capital because green investors are willing to pay a premium for their greenness (similar to, for example, Pastor et al., 2021). On the other hand, green investors tend to divest traditional firms and invest in green firms. As a result, green firms are likely to have a more diverse investor base than traditional firms. According to Proposition 6, this implies a higher cost of capital for green firms due to a higher aggregate information risk. Note that the two channels can be tested separately. For example, to tease out the effect of the investor base diversity, one can compare costs of capital of firms with similar ESG ratings but different investor bases.

Price volatility and trading volume Another theoretical prediction of our model is that there might be multiple equilibria in the financial markets, as long as the exogenous noise is not too large. When multiplicity is possible, asset price might experience large fluctuations due to equilibrium switches. Such switches are also likely to be associated with large trading volumes because different equilibria are marked by different trading intensities by traditional and green investors. Our results suggest that multiple equilibria are more likely to arise when the masses of green and traditional investors are similar and exogenous noise is small. One can test if stocks with these properties indeed are more likely to experience price jumps and large flows across traditional and green investors.

5 Improvements in non-monetary information

Despite the growing interest toward ESG investing, there is a lack of clarity and consistency in the definition and measurement of ESG. For example, the average correlation of ESG ratings provided by six large raters is only 0.54 (Berg, Kölbel, and Rigobon, 2020). To address this problem, policy makers around the world have made a series of efforts to improve the quality of information about firms' ESG performances available to investors. For instance, in May of 2020 the SEC Investor Advisory Committee recommended updat-

[20]It is worth noting that our model features only one risky asset and thus our results cannot be directly used to make predictions about cross-sectional returns. A formal analysis of a multi-asset economy is beyond the scope of this paper.

ing public company reporting requirements to include ESG factors (SEC, 2020), while the EU regulator has already put in place a disclosure regulation that requires market participants and financial advisers to provide ESG-related information about certain financial products (Regulation EU 2019/2088). According to Carrots & Sticks, there are more than 600 ESG reporting requirements across over 80 countries, including the world's 60 largest economies (van der Lugt et al., 2020). In addition, firms also increasingly disclose ESG-related information voluntarily. Governance & Accountability Institute finds that in 2019 90% of companies included in S&P500 published ESG reports, a marked increase from 20% in 2011 (GAI, 2020).

In this section, we consider an improvement in the precision of non-monetary information. Sections 5.1-5.3 lay out the model and describe our results. Section 5.4 discusses empirical implications. Proofs and derivations for this section are in Appendix C.

5.1 Extended setup

To study how improvements in non-monetary information affect the outcomes, we generalize the information structure of our main model. First, we assume that the prior precisions of the two fundamentals are no longer identical, $\tilde{z} \sim N(0, \tau^{-1})$ and $\tilde{\delta} \sim N\left(0, (\lambda\tau)^{-1}\right)$, where $\lambda > 0$. Second, the precisions of private signals that investors receive also differ by a factor of λ, i.e. $\tilde{s}_z^i \sim N(\tilde{z}, \tau_s^{-1})$ and $\tilde{s}_\delta^i \sim N\left(\tilde{\delta}, (\lambda\tau_s)^{-1}\right)$ for any investor i. The extended setup reduces to our main model when $\lambda = 1$.[21] Comparative statics with respect to λ reveal the impacts of changes in the quality of non-monetary information.

Equilibrium characterization of the extended setup is similar to that of the main model. In particular, we show that the system of equilibrium conditions takes the same form as that in the main model after a proper change of variables. As a result, main results of Section 3 hold in this case. Specifically, there are up to three equilibria with two of them being stable that differ by their relative price informativeness. To save space, we delegate these analyses to Appendix C and below analyze comparative statics of interest.

Analytically characterizing how the key equilibrium outcomes change with respect to λ for all possible values of this parameter is challenging in this quite general setup. In Section 5.2, we focus on the case where λ is small, that is, non-monetary information

[21]The model becomes much less tractable if the factor λ for priors is different from that for signals. We have verified the generality of the main results of Section 5.2 with numerical examples in this more general case (not reported to save space).

is noisy in comparison with monetary information. This assumption makes analytical characterization feasible. At the same time, we believe that it also reflects the current state of things for many companies.

5.2 Price informativeness and cost of capital

Price informativeness Price informativeness to traditional and green investors in the extended setup are given by

$$PI_t \equiv \mathbb{V}\left(\tilde{z}|\mathcal{F}^{ij}\right)^{-1} = (\tau+\tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2\lambda + \xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}},$$
$$PI_g \equiv \mathbb{V}\left(\beta_z\tilde{z} + \beta_\delta\tilde{\delta}|\mathcal{F}^{ij}\right)^{-1} = (\tau+\tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2\lambda + \xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{(\xi_\delta\beta_z - \xi_z\beta_\delta)^2 + (\beta_z^2\lambda + \beta_\delta^2)\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}.$$

An improvement in the quality of non-monetary information affects price informativeness through two channels. First, a higher λ directly helps investors make better inferences, resulting in an increase in PI_t and PI_g. Specifically, holding price coefficients ξ_z and ξ_δ fixed, it is easy to verify that $\frac{\partial PI_t}{\partial\lambda} > 0$ and $\frac{\partial PI_g}{\partial\lambda} > 0$. Notably, although traditional investors do not value the non-monetary payoff, more precise information about it allows them to make a better inference about the monetary payoff from the price. Second, there is an indirect effect of an increase in λ. Specifically, an increase in λ changes investors' trading behaviors and thus the equilibrium price coefficients. Proposition 7 describes the comparative statics results of the price coefficients and the price informativeness with respect to λ.

Proposition 7. *There exists a $\bar{\lambda} > 0$ such that if $\lambda \in (0, \bar{\lambda})$, equilibrium is unique, and*

(i) $\frac{d\xi_\delta}{d\lambda} > 0$; $\frac{d\xi_z}{d\lambda} \lesseqgtr 0$ *if* $\beta_z \lesseqgtr \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}m_t\right)^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}$;

(ii) $\frac{dPI_g}{d\lambda} > 0$; $\frac{dPI_t}{d\lambda} \lesseqgtr 0$ *if* $\beta_z \lesseqgtr \frac{3}{2}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}$.

Proposition 7 shows that better non-monetary information always leads to an increase in the price coefficient ξ_δ and makes the price more informative to green investors. Since green investors value the non-monetary payoff, they increase their trading intensity on their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals in response to an increase in λ. As a result, more $\tilde{\delta}$-information gets incorporated in the price.

At the same time, the impacts of better non-monetary information on ξ_z and the price informativeness to traditional investors are more convoluted. Specifically, if the preference heterogeneity across traditional and green investors is large, green investors not only increase their trading intensity along the $\tilde{\delta}$-dimension but also trade substantially more aggressively against their $\tilde{z}$-signals in response to an increase in λ. As a result, less monetary information gets incorporated in the price: ξ_z decreases. Furthermore, if the preference heterogeneity is sufficiently large, the indirect channel dominates the direct channel, and the price informativeness to traditional investors declines.

As shown by the cutoffs in Proposition 7, the responses of ξ_z and PI_t to changes in λ depend on other model parameters, in particular, on the mass of green investors m_g. If m_g is high, green investors' aggregate trading against their $\tilde{z}$-information is strong, strengthening the negative indirect channel. Hence, the price informativeness to traditional investors declines even if the preference heterogeneity is not that large.

Cost of capital That price informativeness PI_t and PI_g can respond to changes in λ in opposite directions suggests that the impact of better non-monetary information on the cost of capital may be positive or negative. The expression for the cost of capital in (24) preserves in this extended setup. Differentiating it with respect to λ, we get

$$\frac{dCoC}{d\lambda} = -\gamma \frac{m_t \frac{dPI_t}{d\lambda} + m_g \frac{dPI_g}{d\lambda}}{\left(m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g\right)^2}.$$

The sign of this derivative depends on the weighted average of the changes in the price informativeness across the two investor groups.

Proposition 8. *There exists a $\bar{\lambda} > 0$ such that if $\lambda \in (0, \bar{\lambda})$, $\frac{dCoC}{d\lambda} \gtrless 0$ if $\beta_z \lessgtr \frac{3}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2}$.*

Proposition 7 shows that, if the preference heterogeneity is large, price informativeness PI_g and PI_t move in the opposite directions in response to an increase in λ. Proposition 8 establishes a related result for the cost of capital: For a sufficiently large preference heterogeneity, the reduction in PI_t dominates the improvement in PI_g, and the cost of capital increases in λ. Note, however, that the cost of capital always declines in λ if the cutoff for β_z in Proposition 8 is negative. This happens, for example, if the mass of green investors is small. In this case, green investors' elevated trading activity after an increase in λ do not diminish price informativeness to traditional investors too much.

5.3 Precise non-monetary information

In this section, we demonstrate via numerical example that the results of Propositions 7 and 8 tend to hold for a wide range of λ's. We pick parameters so that $\frac{dPI_t}{d\lambda} < 0$ and $\frac{dCoC}{d\lambda} > 0$ for sufficiently imprecise non-monetary information. We compute PI_t, PI_g and CoC as functions of λ and plot them in Figure 5. We find that multiple equilibria are possible when λ is close to one, that is, when monetary and non-monetary information have similar precisions. When λ is small, the only possible equilibrium is the T-equilibrium, in which trading is dominated by traditional investors. Green investors choose not to trade actively because the non-monetary payoff is very uncertain. Naturally, this equilibrium exists as long as λ is sufficiently small. Importantly, we find that the comparative statics results established in Propositions 7 and 8 hold for all values of λ if the T-equilibrium is played. This finding is reassuring because it confirms that our predictions continue to hold even if λ is not small.

(A) PI to traditional investors, PI_t (B) PI to green investors, PI_g (C) Cost of capital, CoC

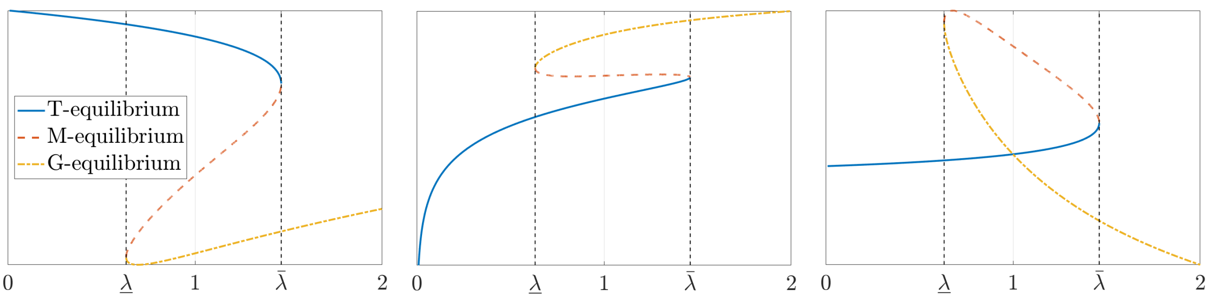

Figure 5: Price informativeness to traditional (panel A) and green (panel B) investors and cost of capital (panel C) as functions of the relative precision of monetary information λ. Y-axes are in the log scale. Parameters used: $m_t = m_g = 1$, $\beta_\delta = \beta_z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, $\gamma = 1$, $\tau_s = 5$, $\tau = 1$, $\tau_n = 4$.

5.4 Empirical implications and discussions

Proposition 7 sends an important message to regulators that push for more ESG-related information provision through, for example, mandatory disclosures. Specifically, the conventional wisdom that more precise information always helps investors make more informed decisions does not necessarily hold if investors have heterogeneous preferences. In particular, we show that better non-monetary information may encourage investors to trade against one other. As a result, better non-monetary information can reduce the price informativeness about firms' cash flows which adversely affects traditional investors' learning from the price and increases their investment risk.[22]

Proposition 8 shows that with sufficient heterogeneity in preferences across investors, improving the precision of non-monetary information can increase the firm's financing cost. This may discourage firms from voluntary disclosure of such information. This potentially can explain why—despite regulators' efforts—the quality of ESG-related information is still quite low in the eyes of many market participants (Eccles, Kastrapeli, and Potter, 2017; Berg et al., 2020; Ilhan, Krueger, Sautner, and Starks, 2020). In other words, even though firms are mandated to publish more ESG reports, they may benefit from limiting informativeness of these reports.

Existing empirical evidence does not provide a clear picture of the relationship between voluntary ESG disclosures and cost of capital (see the review by Christensen, Hail, and Leuz, 2019). Focusing on voluntary disclosure, Richardson and Welker (2001) document a significantly positive relation between ESG disclosure quality and cost of equity capital, while Plumlee, Brown, Hayes, and Marshall (2015) present evidence for a negative association. Clarkson, Fang, Li, and Richardson (2013) find no significant association and Dhaliwal, Li, Tsang, and Yang (2011) find a significantly negative association only for firms with high ESG performance and no significant association overall. However, using evidence based on voluntary disclosure can be misleading as firms may choose to disclose for signalling reasons. Predictions of our model might be more applicable for understanding the impacts of mandatory disclosure (e.g. Chen, Hung, and Wang, 2018; Krueger, Sautner, Tang, and Zhong, 2021).

Importantly, when examining the role of non-monetary information, one should take into account that it can also be informative about cash flows if the monetary and non-monetary payoff components are correlated. In particular, in our model, a positive correlation between the two components is equivalent to preferences of traditional and green investors being more aligned (see Section 3.1 and Appendix D). Propositions 7-8 then imply that better non-monetary information is less likely to reduce the price informativeness to traditional investors and increase the cost of capital.

[22]It is important to mention that our paper does not make any welfare statements. Our goal is rather to point out that there might be certain negative consequences of policies aimed at improving the quality of non-monetary information.

6 Conclusion

In light of the growing appetite for ESG investing, we analyze the interactions between green and traditional investors in the financial market. Due to preference heterogeneity, trading by one group of investors makes the asset price less informative to the other group, who thus find it riskier to hold the asset. Such interactions give rise to a number of novel results. First, multiple equilibria with different pricing functions may coexist. Second, an increase in the green investor share leads to a reduction in the price informativeness about firm's monetary performance and, at the same time, may increase the firm's cost of capital. Finally, better information about firms' non-monetary performance can make the price less informative to traditional investors and increase the firm's cost of capital.

We believe that our model has a wide range of applications in asset markets where investors with heterogeneous preferences interact and affect each other's investment choices. In addition to financial markets, our model might also be useful for non-financial assets, such as real estate and arts and collectibles, for which investors are likely to have heterogeneous preferences.[23]

Going forward, our model can be extended along several dimensions. It is interesting to explore information acquisition incentives of heterogeneous investors. It is also important to understand how asset prices are formed in a setting with multiple firms that differ in terms of their monetary and non-monetary performances. Another extension can explore real implications of our results, that is, a feedback from the financial market to corporate decisions.

[23] A 2018 survey conducted by the U.S. Trust finds that millennial collectors are more likely to view pieces of arts as investment objects than older generations, who are mostly concerned about their aesthetic values.

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Appendix

Appendix A: A.1 derives equation (21); A.2 proves Proposition 1; A.3 proves Proposition 4; A.4 proves Proposition 2. Appendix B contains proofs for Section 4. It also proves Proposition 3. Appendix C contains proofs for Section 5. Appendix E analyzes the model with a general information structure and discusses conditions required for multiplicity of equilibria in the trading stage. Appendix F shows that trading stage features unique equilibrium when investors have homogeneous preferences but heterogeneous information.

Proofs frequently involve some tedious yet straightforward algebraic manipulations, which we perform via Matlab Symbolic Math Toolbox. Therefore, we often omit intermediate steps and present only final results. These omitted derivations are available upon request.

A Equilibrium characterization

A.1 Preliminary derivations

We start by deriving the quintic equation (21) for ξ_δ. From (1), it follows that the aggregate demand for stock from investors of group $j \in \{t, g\}$ is given by

$$D^j(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{p}) = m^j \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\tilde{z}\beta_z^j \frac{\tau_s}{\tau+\tau_s} + \tilde{\delta}\beta_\delta^j \frac{\tau_s}{\tau+\tau_s} + \left(p_z \beta_z^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta \beta_\delta^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s}\right) \frac{\tilde{p} - p_0 - \tilde{z} p_z \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau} - \tilde{\delta} p_\delta \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau}}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}} - \tilde{p}}{\frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} - \frac{\left(p_z \beta_z^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta \beta_\delta^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s}\right)^2}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}}}. \tag{25}$$

Plugging (25) in the market clearing condition, $D^t\left(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{q}\right) + D^g\left(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{q}\right) + \tilde{n} = 1$, and then equalizing coefficients in front of $\tilde{z}$, $\tilde{\delta}$ and $\tilde{n}$, we get

$$\xi_z = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s \left[m_t + m_g \frac{\beta_z\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_\delta}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \kappa}\right], \tag{26}$$

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s \left[-m_t \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa} + m_g \frac{\beta_\delta\left(\xi_z^2 + \kappa\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_z}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \kappa}\right], \tag{27}$$

where $\xi_z = \frac{p_z}{p_n}$, $\xi_\delta = \frac{p_\delta}{p_n}$, and where we define $\kappa = \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}$ to simplify notations.

Consider a linear combination of the two equations:

$$\xi_z\beta_z + \xi_\delta\beta_\delta = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s\left(m_g + \beta_z m_t - \beta_\delta m_t \frac{\xi_\delta\xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2+\kappa}\right),$$

from which ξ_z can be expressed as a function of ξ_δ as

$$\xi_z = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g + \beta_z\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t - \xi_\delta\beta_\delta\right)\left(\xi_\delta^2+\kappa\right)}{\beta_z\left(\xi_\delta^2+\kappa\right) + \beta_\delta\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\xi_\delta}. \tag{28}$$

Substituting in this expression for ξ_z, we can reduce the system (26)-(27) into equation (21) of one unknown ξ_δ. For brevity, we re-scale the masses of investors and define $\hat{m}_g = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s\beta_\delta m_g$ and $\hat{m}_t = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s\beta_\delta m_t$. Then equation (21) can be written as

$$\xi_\delta^5 - \hat{m}_g\xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\hat{m}_g\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \left(\kappa^2 + \hat{m}_t^2\kappa\right)\xi_\delta - \hat{m}_g\kappa^2 = 0. \tag{29}$$

A.2 Number of equilibria and noise precision

This section proves Proposition 1. The proof consists of three parts. A.2.1 establishes that equation (29) has at least one and at most three real roots. A.2.2 proves the existence of the threshold τ_n^*. A.2.3 shows that non-normalized price coefficients have conventional signs, i.e. $p_0 < 0$, $p_z, p_\delta, p_n > 0$.

A.2.1 Number and signs of roots

Claim 1. *Equation (29) has at least one and at most three real roots. All real roots are positive and are below $\hat{m}_g$.*

Proof of Claim 1.

All real roots of equation (29) are positive because coefficients of odd powers of ξ_δ are positive and coefficients of even powers of ξ_δ are negative. It is also easy to see that all roots are below $\hat{m}_g$ because the left-hand side of equation (29) is clearly positive for all $\xi_\delta \geq \hat{m}_g$.

In principle, equation (29) can have from one to five real roots. Below we show that it can have at most three real roots. Denote the left-hand side of (29) by

$$f(\xi_\delta) = \xi_\delta^5 - \hat{m}_g \xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa \xi_\delta^3 - 2\kappa \hat{m}_g \xi_\delta^2 + \left(\kappa^2 + \hat{m}_t^2 \kappa\right) \xi_\delta - \hat{m}_g \kappa^2. \tag{30}$$

Taking first and second derivatives of $f(\xi_\delta)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi_\delta} &= 5\xi_\delta^4 - 4\hat{m}_g \xi_\delta^3 + 6\kappa \xi_\delta^2 - 4\hat{m}_g \kappa \xi_\delta + \kappa^2 + \hat{m}_t^2 \kappa, \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \xi_\delta^2} &= 20\xi_\delta^3 - 12\hat{m}_g \xi_\delta^2 + 12\kappa \xi_\delta - 4\hat{m}_g \kappa.\end{aligned}$$

The equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \xi_\delta^2} = 0 \tag{31}$$

has a unique real root because its discriminant is negative: $\Delta \propto -\kappa \left(\left(\hat{m}_g^2 - \kappa\right)^2 + 4\kappa^2\right) < 0$, where $\propto$ denotes proportionality up to a positive constant. The root of (31) is positive because coefficients of odd powers of ξ_δ are positive and coefficients of even powers of ξ_δ are negative. Moreover, it is below $\hat{m}_g$ because $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \xi_\delta^2}\big|_{\xi_\delta \geq \hat{m}_g} > 0$. Hence, $f(\xi_\delta)$ has a unique inflection point $\xi_\delta^{infl} \in (0, \hat{m}_g)$ such that $f(\xi_\delta)$ is concave if $\xi_\delta < \xi_\delta^{infl}$ and convex if $\xi_\delta > \xi_\delta^{infl}$. Given also that $f(\xi_\delta)$ is a continuous function, it follows that it can have at most three intersections with the zero line. □

A.2.2 Number of roots and precision of noise trading

Rewrite (29) as

$$\frac{1}{\kappa} \left(\xi_\delta^3 + \kappa \xi_\delta - \alpha \hat{m} \kappa\right) \left(\xi_\delta^2 - \alpha \hat{m} \xi_\delta + \kappa\right) = -\left(1 - 2\alpha\right) \hat{m}^2 \xi_\delta. \tag{32}$$

Denote the left-hand side of the expression above by

$$g(\xi_\delta) = \frac{1}{\kappa} \left(\xi_\delta^3 + \kappa \xi_\delta - \alpha \hat{m} \kappa\right) \left(\xi_\delta^2 - \alpha \hat{m} \xi_\delta + \kappa\right). \tag{33}$$

We start by establishing several useful properties of $g(\xi_\delta)$ in Lemma 1.

Lemma 1. *Define $g(\xi_\delta)$ as in (33). Define $\xi_\delta^* = \xi_\delta^*(\kappa, \alpha\hat{m})$ implicitly as*

$$(\xi_\delta^*)^3 + \kappa\xi_\delta^* - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa = 0. \tag{34}$$

1. *$g(\xi_\delta)$ has a unique inflection point ξ_δ^{infl} such that $g(\xi_\delta)$ is concave on $(-\infty, \xi_\delta^{infl})$ and convex on $(\xi_\delta^{infl}, \infty)$.*

2. *If $\kappa \geq \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$ then $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi_\delta} > 0$; equation $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$ has a unique solution $\xi_\delta^* \in (0, \alpha\hat{m})$; $g(\xi_\delta)$ is convex on $(\xi_\delta^*, \alpha\hat{m})$.*

3. *If $\kappa < \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$ then equation $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$ has three solutions, $\xi_\delta^{g,1}$, $\xi_\delta^{g,2}$ and ξ_δ^*, such that $0 < \xi_\delta^{g,1} < \sqrt{\kappa} < \xi_\delta^* < \xi_\delta^{g,2} < \alpha\hat{m}$.*

Proof of Lemma 1.

The first statement of this lemma directly follows from Part 1 because $\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial \xi_\delta^2} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \xi_\delta^2}$. In what follows, we prove the second and third statements of the lemma.

Case 1: $\kappa \geq \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$.

Take the first derivative of $g(\xi_\delta)$:

$$\kappa\frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi_\delta} = 5\xi_\delta^4 - 4\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^3 + 6\kappa\xi_\delta^2 - 4\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta + \kappa^2 + \alpha^2\hat{m}^2\kappa =$$
$$\frac{1}{16}(2\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m})^2\left(20\xi_\delta^2 + 4\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + 5\alpha^2\hat{m}^2\right) + \left(\kappa - \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2\right)\left(6\xi_\delta^2 - 4\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + \kappa + \frac{5}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2\right).$$

Because $\kappa \geq \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$, $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi_\delta} > 0$ and $g(\xi_\delta)$ is an increasing function. Furthermore, $g(0) < 0$ and $g(\alpha\hat{m}) > 0$ so $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$ has a unique solution $\xi_\delta^* \in (0, \alpha\hat{m})$. Note that ξ_δ^* satisfies (34). Indeed, consider (33) that defines $g(\xi_\delta)$. If $\kappa > \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$ then $\xi_\delta^2 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + \kappa$ is always positive. If $\kappa = \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$ then the solution to $\xi_\delta^2 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + \kappa = 0$ coincides with ξ_δ^*, defined by (34).

Finally, we show that $g(\xi_\delta)$ is convex on $(\xi_\delta^*, \alpha\hat{m})$. Take second derivative of $g(\xi_\delta)$:

$$\frac{1}{4}\kappa\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial \xi_\delta} = 5\xi_\delta^3 - 3\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^2 + 3\kappa\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa. \tag{35}$$

Plugging (34) to (35), we get

$$\frac{1}{4}\kappa\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial \xi_\delta} = 5\xi_\delta^3 - 3\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^2 + 3\kappa\xi_\delta - (\xi_\delta^*)^3 - \kappa\xi_\delta^* \overset{\xi_\delta \geq \xi_\delta^*}{\geq} \left(4\xi_\delta^2 - 3\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + 2\kappa\right)\xi_\delta.$$

The largest real root of the term in parentheses (if exists) is given by

$$\frac{3\alpha\hat{m} + \sqrt{9\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 32\kappa}}{8} \overset{\kappa \geq \frac{1}{4}\hat{\alpha}^2 m^2}{\leq} \frac{1}{2}\alpha\hat{m}.$$

Note that $\xi_\delta^* \geq \frac{1}{2}\alpha\hat{m}$ if $\kappa \geq \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$. Indeed, if $\kappa = \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$, (34) implies $\xi_\delta^* = \frac{1}{2}\alpha\hat{m}$. Furthermore, applying the implicit function theorem to (34), we can see that $\frac{d\xi_\delta^*}{d\kappa} > 0$ for $\xi_\delta^* \in (0, \alpha\hat{m})$. Therefore, $\frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial \xi_\delta^2} > 0$ if $\xi_\delta \in (\xi_\delta^*, \alpha\hat{m})$.

Case 2: $\kappa < \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$.

Consider equation $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$, where $g(\xi_\delta)$ is given by (33). Define $\xi_\delta^{g,1}$ and $\xi_\delta^{g,2}$ as roots of

$$\xi_\delta^2 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta + \kappa = 0.$$

Then

$$\xi_\delta^{g,1} = \frac{\alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_\delta^{g,1} = \frac{\alpha\hat{m} + \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{2}.$$

Clearly, $0 < \xi^{g,1} < \sqrt{\kappa}$ and $\sqrt{\kappa} < \xi_\delta^{g,2} < \alpha\hat{m}$ if $\kappa < \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$.

The third root of $g(\xi_\delta)$ is given by ξ_δ^* that solves (34). Clearly, $\xi_\delta^* > \sqrt{\kappa}$ if $\kappa < \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$. Furthermore, $\xi_\delta^* < \xi_\delta^{g,2}$. Indeed, evaluate the left-hand side of (34) at $\xi_\delta^{g,2}$:

$$\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m} + \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{2}\right)^3 + \kappa\frac{-\alpha\hat{m} + \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{2} \overset{\kappa < \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2}{>} \left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m} + \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{2}\right)^3 + \frac{-\alpha^3\hat{m}^3 + \sqrt{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2 - 4\kappa}}{8} > 0.$$

Therefore, $\xi_\delta^* < \xi_\delta^{g,2}$.

□

We now proceed to proving the main result of Section A.2.2.

Claim 2. *For any* $\alpha = \frac{m_g}{m_t + m_g} \in (0, 1)$, $\hat{m}_t, \hat{m}_g > 0$, $\hat{m} = \hat{m}_t + \hat{m}_g$, $\exists \tau_n^*(\alpha, \hat{m}) > 0$ *such* *that $\forall \tau_n \in (0, \tau_n^*)$ equation (29) has a unique solution; for $\tau_n = \tau_n^*$ it has two solutions when $\alpha \neq \frac{1}{2}$ and a unique solution when $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$; $\forall \tau_n > \tau_n^*$ it has three solutions.*

Proof of Claim 2.

First, note that the statement of the claim for $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ follows from Lemma 1. In what follows, we focus on the case $\alpha \neq \frac{1}{2}$.

The remainder of the proof proceeds in several steps. In Lemmas 2 and 3, we show that there exist $\underline{\kappa}$ and $\bar{\kappa}$ such that equation (32) has one solution when $\kappa > \bar{\kappa}$ and three solutions when $\kappa < \underline{\kappa}$. In Lemma 4, we show that if for a given κ equation (32) has one or three solutions, then it has one or three solutions for any $\hat{\kappa}$ above or below the given κ, respectively. Finally, we show that there exists κ^* such that equation (32) has two solutions, and any increase or decrease in κ implies that (32) has one or three solutions, respectively. Since $\kappa = \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n}$, there is a one-to-one mapping between κ and τ_n for given τ and τ_s. The conditions on κ then can be translated into conditions on τ_n.

Lemma 2. *$\forall \kappa \geq \bar{\kappa} = \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2 \hat{m}^2$ equation (32) has a unique solution.*

Proof of Lemma 2.

Suppose that $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$. Then equation (32) has a unique solution because the left-hand side increases in ξ_δ by Lemma 1, $g(0) < 0$ and $g(\alpha\hat{m}) > 0$, while the right-hand side decreases in ξ_δ and its value at $\xi_\delta = 0$ is zero. This case is illustrated by the intersecting solid blue line and dashed red line in Figure 6.

Assume now that $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$. In this case, both the left-hand side and the right-hand side of equation (32) increase in ξ_δ. They still have only one intersection because, by Lemma 1, the left-hand side of (32) is an increasing convex function $\forall \xi_\delta \in (\xi_\delta^*, \alpha\hat{m})$, where ξ_δ^* is the unique real root of equation $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$. This case is illustrated by the intersecting solid blue line and dot-dashed yellow line in Figure 6.

□

Lemma 3. *$\exists \underline{\kappa} \in (0, \bar{\kappa})$ such that $\forall \kappa \in (0, \underline{\kappa})$ equation (32) has three solutions.*

Proof of Lemma 3.

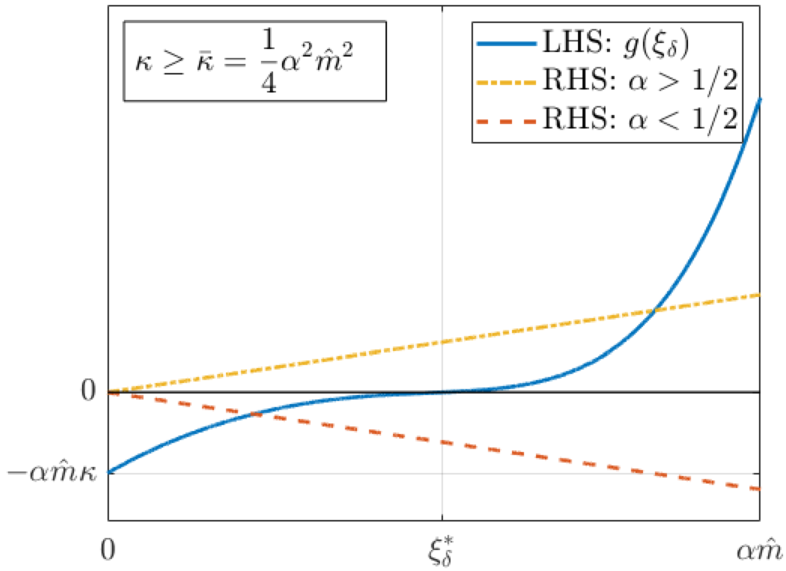

Figure 6: Unique solution to equation (32).

Write (32) in its original form as

$$\begin{aligned} f(\xi_\delta) =& \xi_\delta^5 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \left(\kappa^2 + (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\right)\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa^2 = \\ & (\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m})\left(\xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa^2\right) + (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\xi_\delta = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that $f(\alpha\hat{m}) = (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\xi_\delta > 0$. At the same time, we can always pick a sufficiently small $\kappa_1 > 0$ such that $\forall \kappa \in (0, \kappa_1]$,

$$\begin{aligned} & f\left(\alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa}\right) = \\ & -\sqrt{\kappa}\left(\left(\alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa}\right)^4 + 2\kappa\left(\alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa}\right)^2 + \kappa^2\right) + (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\left(\alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa}\right) < 0. \end{aligned}$$

Notice also that $f(0) < 0$. Evaluate $f(\cdot)$ at $\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2}\kappa + \kappa$

$$\begin{aligned} & f\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2}\kappa + \kappa\right) = \kappa^2\Bigg[\kappa^3\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2} + 1\right)^5 - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa^2\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2} + 1\right)^4 + \\ & 2\kappa^2\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2} + 1\right)^3 - 2\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2} + 1\right)^2 + \kappa\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2} + 1\right) + \\ & (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\Bigg]. \end{aligned}$$

$\exists \kappa_2 > 0$ such that $\forall \kappa \in (0, \kappa_2)$, $f\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2}\kappa + \kappa\right) > 0$ because the last term in the expression in brackets, $(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2$, does not depend on κ, while the other terms are proportional to κ^b, $b = 1, 2, 3$.

Finally, define κ_3 such that $\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2}\kappa_3 + \kappa_3 = \alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa_3}$. Therefore, $\forall \kappa \in (0, \kappa_3)$, $\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{(1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2}\kappa + \kappa < \alpha\hat{m} - \sqrt{\kappa}$. Define $\underline{\kappa} = \min\{\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3\}$. Then $\forall \kappa \in (0, \underline{\kappa})$ a continuous function $f(\xi_\delta)$ changes its sign from negative to positive (at least) twice. Hence equation (32) has (at least) three solutions. Since it cannot have more than three solutions, it must be that it has exactly three solutions. □

Lemma 4. *For any $\kappa > 0$, if equation (32) has three solutions at κ, then it has three solutions $\forall \hat{\kappa} \in (0, \kappa)$; if equation (32) has one solution at κ, then it has one solution $\forall \hat{\kappa} > \kappa$.*

Proof of Lemma 4.

Since the result trivially holds when $\kappa \in (0, \underline{\kappa}]$ and $\kappa \geq \bar{\kappa}$, where $\bar{\kappa}$ and $\underline{\kappa}$ are defined in Lemmas 2 and 3, we focus on the case when $\kappa \in (\underline{\kappa}, \bar{\kappa})$. In particular, $\kappa < \bar{\kappa} = \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2$.

Consider equation $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$, where $g(\xi_\delta)$ is defined by (33). For $\kappa < \bar{\kappa}$, this equation has three solutions. Differentiate $g(\xi_\delta)$ with respect to κ:

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa} = -\frac{1}{\kappa^2}\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right)\left(\xi_\delta + \sqrt{\kappa}\right)\left(\xi_\delta - \sqrt{\kappa}\right)\left(\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\right). \tag{36}$$

Then $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa} < 0$ if $\xi_\delta \in (0, \sqrt{\kappa})$ and $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa} > 0$ if $\xi_\delta \in (\sqrt{\kappa}, \alpha\hat{m})$. In particular, notice that $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa}\big|_{\xi_\delta = \xi_\delta^*} > 0$ where ξ_δ^* solves (34). This is because $\xi_\delta^* \in (\sqrt{\kappa}, \alpha\hat{m})$ by Lemma 1.

In what follows, we evaluate the number of roots of equation (32). We split our analyses in two cases.

Case 1: $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$

Suppose $\exists \kappa \in (\underline{\kappa}, \bar{\kappa})$ such that equation (32) has three solutions. This case is illustrated in Figure 7. From the graph it is evident that the smallest root ξ_δ^i of (32) is smaller than $\xi_\delta^{g,1}$—the smallest root of $g(\xi_\delta) = 0$ defined in Lemma 1. By Lemma 1, $\xi_\delta^{g,1} < \sqrt{\kappa}$, therefore, $\xi_\delta^i < \xi_\delta^{g,1} < \sqrt{\kappa}$. Furthermore, solution with these properties exists for any value of κ.

The other two roots are above ξ_δ^* and $\sqrt{\kappa}$: $\xi_\delta^{iii} > \xi_\delta^{ii} > \xi_\delta^* > \sqrt{\kappa}$. Expression for $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa}$ (36) implies that a marginal decrease in κ shifts $g(\xi_\delta)$ (blue solid line) downwards

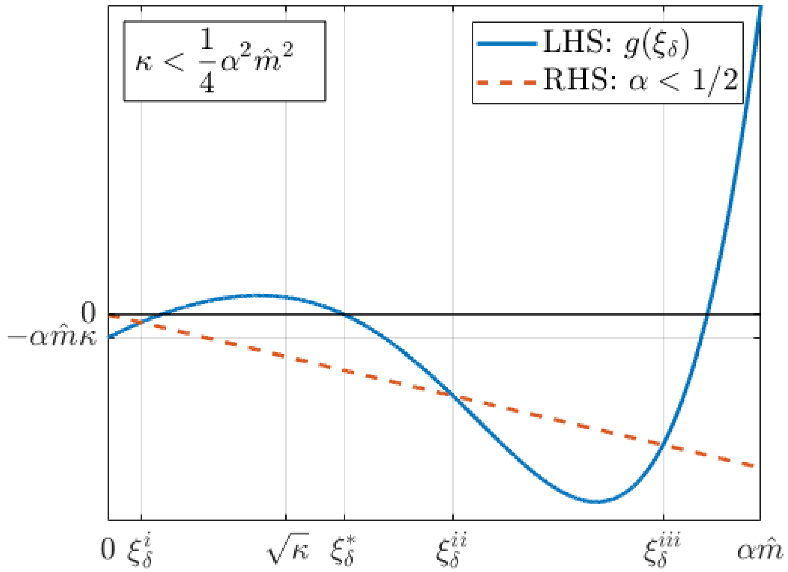

Figure 7: Three solutions to equation (32) when $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$.

$\forall \xi_\delta \in (\sqrt{\kappa}, \alpha\hat{m})$. At the same time, the right-hand side of equation (32) (red dashed line) does not depend on κ and thus does not move. Therefore, for a marginally smaller κ equation (32) still has three solutions.

An analogous argument holds when for a given κ there is a unique solution to (32): then a marginal increase in κ shifts the relevant part of $g(\xi_\delta)$ up, while the right-hand side line does not move. Then equation (32) still has unique solution.

Case 2: $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$

Suppose $\exists \kappa \in (\underline{\kappa}, \bar{\kappa})$ such that equation (32) has three solutions. This case is illustrated in Figure 8. In this graph, two thin black lines (marked with crosses and circles) are tangent to the concave and the convex part of $g(\xi_\delta)$. Recall that by Lemma 1 $g(\xi_\delta)$ has a unique inflection point ξ_δ^{infl}, and it is concave on $\xi_\delta \in (0, \xi_\delta^{infl})$ and convex on $(\xi_\delta^{infl}, \alpha\hat{m})$. Two tangent points, $\xi_\delta^{tang,1} < \xi_\delta^{infl} < \xi_\delta^{tang,2}$, solve

$$h(\xi_\delta) = \frac{\partial g(\xi_\delta)}{\partial \xi_\delta}\xi_\delta - g(\xi_\delta) = \frac{1}{\kappa}\left(4\xi_\delta^5 - 3\alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^4 + 4\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \hat{\alpha} m\kappa^2\right) = 0.$$

Notice that $\frac{\partial h}{\partial \xi_\delta} = \xi_\delta \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial \xi_\delta^2}$. Therefore, $h(\xi_\delta)$ is decreasing on $\xi_\delta \in (0, \xi_\delta^{infl})$ and is increasing on $\xi_\delta \in (\xi_\delta^{infl}, \alpha\hat{m})$.

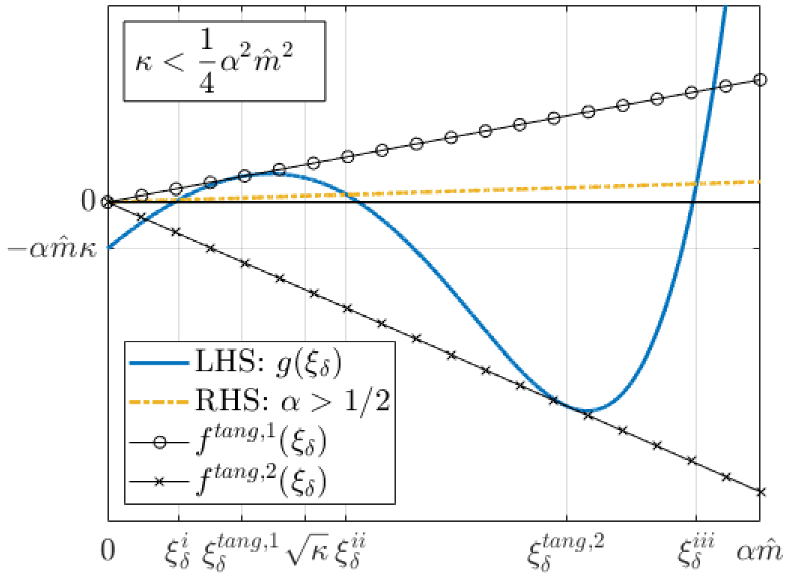

Figure 8: Three solutions to equation (32): $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$.

Evaluate $h(\xi_\delta)$ at $\sqrt{\kappa}$:

$$h\left(\sqrt{\kappa}\right) = 4\kappa\left(2\sqrt{\kappa} - \alpha\hat{m}\right) \overset{\kappa<\bar{\kappa}=\frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2}{<} 0.$$

Because $h(0) > 0$, $h(\alpha\hat{m}) > 0$ and $h\left(\sqrt{\kappa}\right) < 0$, $h(\xi_\delta) = 0$ has two solutions $\xi_\delta^{tang,1} < \sqrt{\kappa} < \xi_\delta^{tang,2}$.[24] The two tangent lines shown in Figure 8 lines going through zero are described by equations $f^{tang,k}(\xi_\delta) = \frac{g\left(\xi_\delta^{tang,k}\right)}{\xi_\delta^{tang,k}}\xi_\delta$, $k = 1, 2$.

The right-hand side of equation (32), i.e. $-(1-2\alpha)\,\hat{m}^2\xi_\delta$, intersects $g(\xi_\delta)$ three times when its slope is smaller than the slope of the tangent line $f^{tang,1}(\xi_\delta)$, so the smallest root of (32) is $\xi_\delta^i < \xi_\delta^{tang,1} < \sqrt{\kappa}$. Expression for $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \kappa}$ (36) implies that a marginal decrease in κ shifts $g(\xi_\delta)$ (blue solid line) upwards $\forall \xi_\delta \in (0, \sqrt{\kappa})$. At the same time, the right-hand side of equation (32) (red dashed line) does not depend on κ and, thus, does not move following the change in κ. Therefore, for a marginally smaller κ equation (32) still has three solutions.

An analogous argument holds if for a given κ there is a unique solution to (32). Then a marginal increase in κ shifts the relevant part of $g(\xi_\delta)$ down, while the right-hand side

[24]Notice also that $\xi_\delta^{tang,1} < \frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{2} < \xi_\delta^{tang,2}$ because $h\left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{2}\right) = \alpha\hat{m}\frac{1}{\kappa}\left(-\frac{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2}{4} + \kappa\right)\left(\frac{\alpha^2\hat{m}^2}{4} + \kappa\right) \overset{\kappa<\frac{1}{4}\alpha^2\hat{m}^2}{<} 0$. This will be used in the proof of Proposition 2.

line does not move. Then equation (32) still has one solution. □

Having proved Lemmas 2-4, we are now ready to complete the proof of Claim 2. From Lemmas 2 and 3, it follows that $\exists \bar{\kappa}^* \geq \underline{\kappa}^* > 0$ such that equation (32) has three solutions when $\kappa \in (0, \underline{\kappa}^*)$ and one solution when $\kappa \in (\bar{\kappa}^*, \infty)$. Moreover, by Lemma 4, it must be the case that for $\kappa \in [\underline{\kappa}^*, \bar{\kappa}^*]$, equation (32) has two solutions. It must be the case, however, that $\underline{\kappa}^* = \bar{\kappa}^*$. To see this, focus on the case $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$ without loss of generality. Equation (32) then has two solutions if and only if the left-hand side of (32) coincides with the tangent line $f^{tang,1}(\xi_\delta)$ (see Figure 8). However, any marginal increase or decrease in κ leaves equation (32) with one or three solutions, respectively.

Finally, recall that by definition $\kappa = \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}$. Given τ and τ_s, define $\tau_n^* = \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\kappa^*}$. Then equation (32) has two solutions if $\tau_n = \tau_n^*$, one solution if $\tau_n \in (0, \tau_n^*)$ and three solutions if $\tau_n > \tau_n^*$. □

A.2.3 Signs of price coefficients

Claim 3. $p_0 < 0$, $p_z > 0$, $p_\delta > 0$, $p_n > 0$.

Proof of Claim 3.

From Part 1, all solutions to (29) are positive and below $\hat{m}_g = \alpha\hat{m}$. Equation (28) implies

$$\xi_z = \frac{(\hat{m}_g + \beta_z\hat{m}_t - \xi_\delta\beta_\delta^2)(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa)}{\beta_\delta\beta_z(\xi_\delta^2+\kappa) + \beta_\delta\hat{m}_t\xi_\delta} \overset{\xi_\delta < \hat{m}_g}{>} \frac{(\hat{m}_g + \beta_z\hat{m}_t - \hat{m}_g\beta_\delta^2)(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa)}{\beta_\delta\beta_z(\xi_\delta^2+\kappa) + \beta_\delta\hat{m}_t\xi_\delta} \overset{\beta_\delta \leq 1}{>} 0.$$

Recall that $\xi_\delta = \frac{p_\delta}{p_n}$ and $\xi_z = \frac{p_z}{p_n}$. Therefore, p_z, p_δ and p_n have the same sign.

Matching price coefficients in the market clearing condition implies

$$\frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} = \frac{1}{\gamma}p_n\left[m_g\frac{(1+p_n^2\kappa) - (p_z\beta_z + p_\delta\beta_\delta)}{(p_z\beta_\delta - p_\delta\beta_z)^2 + p_n^2\kappa} + m_t\frac{(1+p_n^2\kappa) - p_z}{p_\delta^2 + p_n^2\kappa}\right].$$

Clearly, if p_z, p_δ and p_n are all negative, then the right-hand side is negative. Therefore, p_z, p_δ and p_n are all positive.

We are left to show that $p_0 < 0$. Again, by matching coefficients in the market clearing condition, we have

$$-\frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} = \frac{1}{\gamma}p_0\left[\frac{m_g}{(\beta_z p_\delta - \beta_\delta p_z)^2 + p_n^2\kappa} + \frac{m_t}{p_\delta^2 + p_n^2\kappa}\right](1+p_n^2\kappa).$$

Therefore, $p_0 < 0$. □

Proposition 1 follows from the results of A.2.1, A.2.2 and A.2.3.

A.3 Stability of equilibria

Plugging expression (28) for $\xi_z(\xi_\delta)$ in the right-hand side of (27), we can write $\xi_\delta = J(\xi_\delta)$. Moreover, $J(\xi_\delta) - \xi_\delta = -k(\xi_\delta) \times f(\xi_\delta)$, where $k(\xi_\delta) > 0\ \forall \xi_\delta$ and $f(\xi_\delta)$ is given by (30). Then at any solution ξ_δ^{root} we have

$$\frac{\partial\left[J(\xi_\delta) - \xi_\delta\right]}{\partial \xi_\delta}\Big|_{\xi_\delta = \xi_\delta^{root}} = -k(\xi_\delta^{root})f'(\xi_\delta^{root}).$$

From our analyses in Appendix A.2.1, it follows that $f(\xi_\delta)$ has a unique inflection point ξ_δ^{infl} such that $f(\xi_\delta)$ is concave on $(-\infty, \xi_\delta^{infl})$ and convex on $(\xi_\delta^{infl}, \infty)$. The shape of $f(\xi_\delta)$ is illustrated in Figure 1. If solution is unique, $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) > 0$. When there are three roots $\xi_\delta^i < \xi_\delta^{ii} < \xi_\delta^{iii}$, $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) > 0$ for $\xi_\delta^{root} = \xi_\delta^i, \xi_\delta^{iii}$ and $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) < 0$ for $\xi_\delta^{root} = \xi_\delta^{ii}$. Since ξ_δ^i, ξ_δ^{ii} and ξ_δ^{iii} correspond to T-, M- and G-equilibria, respectively, Proposition 4 follows.

A.4 Comparative statics of τ_n^*

This section establishes comparative statics properties of τ_n^* stated in Proposition 2.

Proof of Proposition 2.

Comparative statics with respect to $\hat{m}$

Divide (32) by $\hat{m}^2$ to get

$$\frac{1}{\hat{m}^2}g\left(\xi_\delta, \hat{m}, \kappa\right) = \frac{1}{\kappa}\left[\frac{1}{\hat{m}^2}\left(\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\right)\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right)^2 + \alpha^2\xi_\delta\right] = -\left(1-2\alpha\right)\xi_\delta. \qquad (37)$$

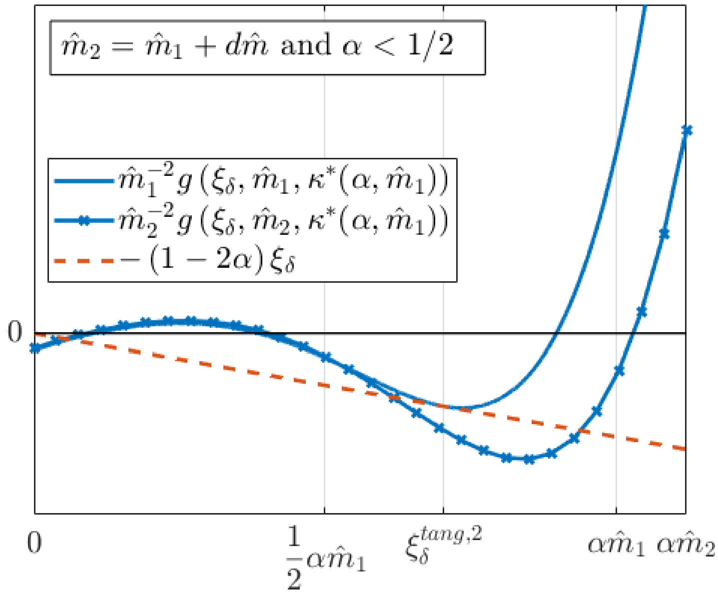

Figure 9: Comparative statics of $\kappa^*(\alpha, \hat{m})$ with respect to $\hat{m}$.

Then

$$\frac{\partial\left[\frac{\kappa}{\hat{m}^2}g\right]}{\partial\hat{m}} = \frac{\alpha\hat{m} - 2\xi_\delta}{\hat{m}^3}\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right)^2,$$

so that $\frac{\kappa}{\hat{m}^2}g$ increases in $\hat{m}$ when $\xi_\delta \in \left(0, \frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{2}\right)$ and decreases in $\hat{m}$ when $\xi_\delta \in \left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}}{2}, \alpha\hat{m}\right)$.

Suppose that $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$. Fix $\hat{m}_1 > 0$. By definition, at $\tau_n = \tau_n^*(\alpha, \hat{m}_1)$ equation (37) has two solutions. This is illustrated by the solid blue and the red dashed lines in Figure 9, which intersect twice (in particular, the largest intersection $\xi_\delta^{tang,2}$ is a tangent point). Recall that $\xi_\delta^{tang,2} > \frac{\alpha\hat{m}_1}{2}$ (see footnote 24). Therefore, a marginal increase in $\hat{m}$ from $\hat{m}_1$ to $\hat{m}_1 + d\hat{m}$ shifts the curve $\frac{1}{\hat{m}_1^2}g(\xi_\delta, \hat{m}_1, \kappa^*(\alpha, \hat{m}_1))$ down $\forall\xi_\delta \in \left(\frac{\alpha\hat{m}_1}{2}, \alpha\hat{m}_1\right)$, as shown in Figure 9 (crossed blue solid line). The right-hand side of (37) does not depend on $\hat{m}$ and thus does not move. Therefore, there exist three solutions to (32) when $\hat{m} = \hat{m}_1 + d\hat{m}$. From Lemma 4, it then follows that $\frac{\partial\tau_n^*}{\partial\hat{m}} < 0$.

Analogous arguments can be made to show that $\frac{\partial\tau_n^*}{\partial\hat{m}} < 0$ when $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$.

Comparative statics with respect to α

Fix $\alpha_1 < \frac{1}{2}$. Adding $\alpha_1^2 \hat{m}^2 \xi_\delta$ to both sides of equation (29), we get

$$\frac{1}{\kappa}\left(\xi_\delta^5 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \left(\kappa^2 + \alpha_1^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\right)\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa^2\right) = -\left((1-\alpha)^2 - \alpha_1^2\right)\hat{m}^2\xi_\delta. \tag{38}$$

By definition, at $\alpha = \alpha_1$ and $\tau_n = \tau_n^*(\alpha_1, \hat{m})$ equation (38) has two solutions. In particular, the left-hand side of (38) corresponds to $g(\xi_\delta)$ and the right-hand side of (38) corresponds to $f^{tang,2}(\xi_\delta)$ in Figure 8. Denote the left-hand side of (38) by $l(\xi_\delta, \alpha, \alpha_1, \kappa)$. Note that $l(\xi_\delta, \alpha, \alpha, \kappa) = g(\xi_\delta, \alpha, \kappa)$, where $g(\xi_\delta, \alpha, \kappa)$ is defined by (33).

Consider a marginal increase in α from α_1 to $\alpha_1 + d\alpha$. That shifts the left-hand side of (38) down and the right-hand side of (38) up. Figure 8 then implies that the equation

$$l\left(\xi_\delta, \alpha_1 + d\alpha, \alpha_1, \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\tau_n^*(\alpha_1, \hat{m})}\right) = -\left((1 - \alpha_1 - d\alpha)^2 - \alpha_1^2\right)\hat{m}^2\xi_\delta$$

has three solutions. From Lemma 4, it then follows that $\tau_n^*(\alpha_1 + d\alpha, \hat{m}) < \tau_n^*(\alpha_1, \hat{m})$. Hence, $\frac{\partial \tau_n^*}{\partial \alpha} < 0$.

Analogous arguments can be made to show that $\frac{\partial \tau_n^*}{\partial \alpha} > 0$ when $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$.

□

B Growth of green investors

B.1 Price informativeness

In this section, we analyze how price informativeness changes as the fraction of green investors α increases and prove Proposition 5. We also argue at the end of this section that Proposition 3 follows from the proof of Proposition 5.

Proof of Proposition 5.

Denote $\tilde{x} = \beta_\delta \tilde{z} - \beta_z \tilde{\delta}$ and $\xi_x = \beta_\delta \xi_z - \beta_z \xi_\delta$. The system of equations (26)-(27) can then be written as

$$\xi_x^2 + \kappa = \alpha \frac{1}{\gamma} \tau_s \beta_\delta m \frac{\kappa}{\xi_\delta}, \tag{39}$$

$$\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa = (1-\alpha) \frac{1}{\gamma} \tau_s \beta_\delta m \frac{\kappa}{\xi_x}. \tag{40}$$

Clearly, both ξ_x and ξ_δ are positive. Taking derivatives of (39)-(40) with respect to α, we obtain

$$\begin{cases} 2\xi_x \xi_\delta \xi_x' + (\xi_x^2 + \kappa)\xi_\delta' - \kappa \frac{1}{\gamma} \tau_s \beta_\delta m = 0, \\ (\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa)\xi_x' + 2\xi_x \xi_\delta \xi_\delta' + \kappa \frac{1}{\gamma} \tau_s \beta_\delta m = 0. \end{cases}$$

Here we use the prime symbol to denote derivatives with respect to α. Summing the two equations, we get

$$\left(\beta_\delta^2 + 2\xi_x \xi_\delta + \kappa\right) \xi_x' + (\xi_x^2 + 2\xi_x \xi_\delta + \kappa)\xi_\delta' = 0. \tag{41}$$

Rewriting definitions (22) and (23), we get

$$PI_t = \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\beta_\delta^2} \frac{2\beta_z \xi_x \xi_\delta + \xi_\delta^2 + \xi_x^2 + \beta_\delta^2 \kappa}{\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa},$$

$$PI_g = \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\beta_\delta^2} \frac{2\beta_z \xi_x \xi_\delta + \xi_\delta^2 + \xi_x^2 + \beta_\delta^2 \kappa}{\xi_x^2 + \kappa},$$

$$v = \frac{PI_t}{PI_g} = \frac{\xi_x^2 + \kappa}{\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa}. \tag{42}$$

Below we analyze the comparative statics of PI_t, PI_g and v with respect to α.

Comparative statics of PI_t and PI_g with respect to α

$$\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} = \frac{\tau + \tau_s}{\beta_\delta^2} \frac{\left(2\beta_z \xi_x' \xi_\delta + 2\beta_z \xi_x \xi_\delta' + 2\xi_\delta \xi_\delta' + 2\xi_x \xi_x'\right)\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right) - \left(2\beta_z \xi_x \xi_\delta + \xi_\delta^2 + \xi_x^2 + \beta_\delta^2 \kappa\right) 2\xi_\delta \xi_\delta'}{\left(\xi_\delta^2 + \kappa\right)^2}.$$

Using (41) to express $\xi_x' = \xi_x'\left(\xi_\delta', \xi_\delta, \xi_x\right)$, we can rewrite this expression as

$$\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha} = -\xi_\delta' \times A_1\left(\xi_\delta, \xi_x\right),$$

where $A_1(\xi_\delta, \xi_x)$ is a function that takes positive values for $\xi_\delta > 0$ and $\xi_x > 0$. Hence, the sign of $\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha}$ is the same as the sign of $-\xi'_\delta$.

Using the same approach as for PI_t, we find that

$$\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha} = \xi'_\delta \times A_2(\xi_\delta, \xi_x),$$

where $A_2(\xi_\delta, \xi_x)$ is a function that takes positive values for $\xi_\delta > 0$ and $\xi_x > 0$. Hence, the sign of $\frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha}$ is the same as the sign of ξ'_δ.

Comparative statics of v with respect to α

$$\frac{dv}{d\alpha} = \frac{\frac{dPI_t}{d\alpha}PI_g - \frac{dPI_g}{d\alpha}PI_t}{PI_g^2} = \frac{-\xi'_\delta\left(A_1(\xi_\delta, \xi_x)PI_g + A_2(\xi_\delta, \xi_x)PI_t\right)}{PI_g^2}.$$

Hence, the sign of $\frac{dv}{d\alpha}$ is the same as the sign of $-\xi'_\delta$.

Comparative statics of ξ_δ with respect to α

ξ_δ is implicitly defined by equation (21), which we also show below.

$$f(\xi_\delta, \alpha) = \xi_\delta^5 - \alpha\hat{m}\xi_\delta^4 + 2\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\alpha\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + \left[\kappa^2 + (1-\alpha)^2\hat{m}^2\kappa\right]\xi_\delta - \alpha\hat{m}\kappa^2 = 0,$$

where we again denote $\hat{m} = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s\beta_\delta m$. Using the implicit function theorem, we get

$$\xi'_\delta = \frac{\hat{m}\xi_\delta^4 + 2\hat{m}\kappa\xi_\delta^2 + 2(1-\alpha)\hat{m}^2\kappa\xi_\delta + \hat{m}\kappa^2}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi_\delta}}.$$

Therefore, the sign of ξ'_δ is the same as the sign of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi_\delta}$.

From our analyses in Appendix A.2.1, it follows that $f(\xi_\delta)$ has a unique inflection point ξ_δ^{infl} such that $f(\xi_\delta)$ is concave on $(-\infty, \xi_\delta^{infl})$ and convex on $(\xi_\delta^{infl}, \infty)$. The shape of $f(\xi_\delta)$ is illustrated in Figure 1. If solution is unique, $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) > 0$. When there are three roots $\xi_\delta^i < \xi_\delta^{ii} < \xi_\delta^{iii}$, $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) > 0$ for $\xi_\delta^{root} = \xi_\delta^i, \xi_\delta^{iii}$ and $f'(\xi_\delta^{root}) < 0$ for $\xi_\delta^{root} = \xi_\delta^{ii}$. This proves the comparative statics part of Proposition 5.

Relative price informativeness across equilibria

Suppose that multiple equilibria are possible, that is, $\tau_n > \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, m\beta_\delta\right)$. The existence of

$\bar{\alpha}$ and $\underline{\alpha}$, defined in Proposition 5, follows from Proposition 2. Notice that at $\alpha = \underline{\alpha}$ and $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$, there are two equilibria such that $\xi_\delta^T(\underline{\alpha}) < \xi_\delta^M(\underline{\alpha}) = \xi_\delta^G(\underline{\alpha})$ and $\xi_\delta^T(\bar{\alpha}) = \xi_\delta^M(\bar{\alpha}) < \xi_\delta^G(\bar{\alpha})$.

Figure 10 shows ξ_δ as a function of α, where the monotonicity properties of ξ_δ with respect to α have been established above. In particular, $\xi_\delta(\alpha)$ is an increasing function in the T- and G-equilibria and is a decreasing function in the M-equilibrium.

From (39)-(40) imply $\xi_\delta(\alpha)$ and $\xi_x(\alpha)$ are symmetric around $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ such that that $\xi_\delta(\alpha) = \xi_x(1-\alpha)$. This is illustrated in Figure 10 for the T-equilibrium. This symmetry implies that $1 - \underline{\alpha} = \bar{\alpha}$. Further, it implies that in the T-equilibrium $\xi_\delta(\alpha) < \xi_x(\alpha)$. Using the definition of the relative price informativeness υ (42), we conclude that in the T-equilibrium $\upsilon^T > 1$. Analogously, in the G-equilibrium $\upsilon^G < 1$. Finally, $\upsilon^T > \upsilon^M > \upsilon^G$. $\square$

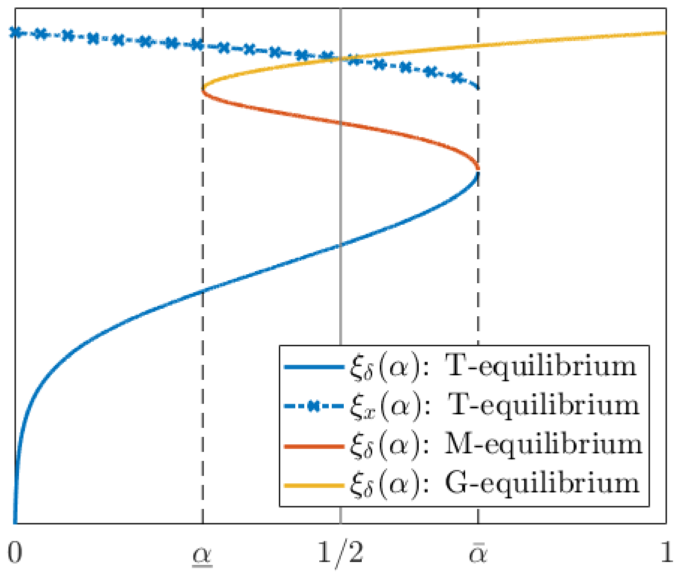

Figure 10: ξ_δ and $\xi_x = \beta_\delta \xi_z - \beta_z \xi_\delta$ as functions of the fraction of green investors α. Y-axes are in the log scale. Parameters are selected such that the equilibrium multiplicity is possible, that is, $\tau_n > \tau_n^*\left(\frac{1}{2}, m\beta_\delta\right)$.

Note that the last part of the above proof also proves Proposition 3. This proof also implies the following corollary that we will use below.

Corollary 2. *If equilibrium is unique, $\xi_\delta' > 0$ and $\xi_\delta \gtreqless x$ if $\alpha \gtreqless \frac{1}{2}$. If multiplicity is possible, $\xi_\delta' > 0$ and $\xi_\delta < \xi_x$ in the T-equilibrium, $\xi_\delta' > 0$ and $\xi_\delta > \xi_x$ in the G-equilibrium, and $\xi_\delta' < 0$ and $\xi_\delta \gtreqless \xi_x$ if $\alpha \lesseqgtr \frac{1}{2}$ in the M-equilibrium.*

B.2 Cost of capital

In this section, we prove Proposition 6 and Corollary 1.

First, we express the cost of capital in its general form when the firm's expected output is non-zero, i.e. $CoC = \mathbb{E}[\tilde{z} - \tilde{p}] = \mu_z - p_0 - p_z\mu_z - p_\delta\mu_\delta$. Note that in this general case, the coefficients p_z, p_δ and p_n of the pricing function remain the same as in the zero-mean case. p_0 becomes

$$p_0 = \frac{\gamma\left(\frac{\tau}{\tau_s}\left(\mu_z\xi_z + \mu_\delta\xi_\delta\right) - 1\right)}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g}.$$

Substituting in the expressions for the pricing coefficients, the cost of capital can be expressed as

$$CoC = c_z\mu_z + c_\delta\mu_\delta + \frac{\gamma}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g}, \tag{43}$$

where $c_z = \frac{(1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta}{\beta_\delta\xi_z + (1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta}$ and $c_\delta = -\frac{\beta_\delta\xi_\delta}{\beta_\delta\xi_z + (1-\beta_z)\xi_\delta}$. Note that if $\mu_z = \mu_\delta = 0$, this expression reduces to (24).

Proof of Proposition 6.

When $\mu_z = \mu_\delta = 0$,

$$CoC = \frac{\gamma}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g}.$$

Using (41) to differentiate CoC with respect to α, we get

$$\frac{dCoC}{d\alpha} = -\left(\xi_\delta - \xi_x\right)\xi_\delta' \times A_3(\xi_\delta, \xi_x),$$

where $A_3(\xi_\delta, x)$ is a function that takes positive values for $\xi_\delta > 0$ and $\xi_x > 0$. Then the comparative statics of CoC with respect to α follow from Corollary 2. □

Proof of Corollary 1.

Equation (43) shows that CoC is linear in μ_z and μ_δ. Below we analyze the comparative statics of c_z and c_δ with respect to α. First, note that $c_z = -\frac{1-\beta_z}{\beta_\delta}c_\delta$. Therefore, we focus on the sign of $\frac{dc_\delta}{d\alpha}$. $\frac{dc_z}{d\alpha}$ always has an opposite sign.

Recall that $\xi_x = \beta_\delta \xi_z - \beta_z \xi_\delta$. Hence,

$$c_\delta = -\frac{\beta_\delta \xi_\delta}{\xi_x + \xi_\delta} \Rightarrow c'_\delta = \frac{dc_\delta}{d\alpha} = -\beta_\delta \frac{\xi'_\delta \xi_x - \xi_\delta \xi'_x}{(\xi_x + \xi_\delta)^2}$$

Substitute $\xi'_x = \xi'_x(\xi'_\delta, \xi_\delta, \xi_x)$ from (41) to obtain $c'_\delta = -\xi'_\delta \times A_4(\xi_\delta, x)$, where $A_4(\xi_\delta, \xi_x)$ is a function that takes positive values for $\xi_\delta > 0$ and $\xi_x > 0$. □

C Improvements in non-monetary information

In this section, we consider the setting discussed in Section 5. When $\lambda > 0$, demand for the stock from investors of type j is

$$D^j(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{p}) = \frac{m^j}{\gamma} \frac{\tilde{z}\beta_z^j \frac{\tau_s}{\tau+\tau_s} + \tilde{\delta}\beta_\delta^j \frac{\lambda\tau_s}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s} + \left(p_z \beta_z^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta \beta_\delta^j \frac{1}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s}\right) \frac{\tilde{p} - p_0 - \tilde{z} p_z \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau} - \tilde{\delta} p_\delta \frac{\lambda\tau_s}{\lambda\tau_s+\lambda\tau}}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}} - \tilde{p}}{\left(\beta_z^j\right)^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + \left(\beta_\delta^j\right)^2 \frac{1}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s} - \frac{\left(p_z \beta_z^j \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta \beta_\delta^j \frac{1}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s}\right)^2}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_\delta^2 \frac{1}{\lambda\tau+\lambda\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}}}.$$

Imposing the market clearing condition (2), we obtain the system

$$\xi_z = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s \left[m_t + m_g \frac{\beta_z \left(\xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\kappa\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_\delta}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \left(\beta_z^2 \lambda + \beta_\delta^2\right)\kappa} \right], \tag{44}$$

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{1}{\gamma}\lambda\tau_s \left[-m_t \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\kappa} + m_g \frac{\beta_\delta \left(\xi_z^2 + \kappa\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_z}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \left(\beta_z^2 \lambda + \beta_\delta^2\right)\kappa} \right]. \tag{45}$$

Denote $\hat{\kappa} = \lambda\kappa = \lambda\frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n}$, $\hat{\beta}_\delta = \frac{\beta_\delta}{\sqrt{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}}$, $\hat{\beta}_z = \sqrt{1-\hat{\beta}_\delta^2} = \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}\beta_z}{\sqrt{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}}$, $\hat{m}_g = m_g \lambda \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}}$, $\hat{m}_t = m_t\sqrt{\lambda}$ and $\hat{\xi}_z = \xi_z\sqrt{\lambda}$. Then the system becomes

$$\hat{\xi}_z = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s \left[\hat{m}_t + \hat{m}_g \frac{\hat{\beta}_z \left(\xi_\delta^2 + \hat{\kappa}\right) - \xi_\delta \hat{\xi}_z \hat{\beta}_\delta}{\left(\hat{\xi}_z \hat{\beta}_\delta - \xi_\delta \hat{\beta}_z\right)^2 + \hat{\kappa}} \right],$$

$$\xi_\delta = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s \left[-\hat{m}_t \frac{\xi_\delta \hat{\xi}_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \hat{\kappa}} + \hat{m}_g \frac{\hat{\beta}_\delta \left(\hat{\xi}_z^2 + \hat{\kappa}\right) - \xi_\delta \hat{\xi}_z \hat{\beta}_z}{\left(\hat{\xi}_z \hat{\beta}_\delta - \xi_\delta \hat{\beta}_z\right)^2 + \hat{\kappa}} \right].$$

Note that it has the same structure as (26)-(27). Therefore, adjusted versions of Propositions 1 and 2 hold, where m, α and β_δ are substituted by, respectively, $\hat{m} = \hat{m}_t + \hat{m}_g$,

$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\hat{m}_g}{\hat{m}}$ and $\hat{\beta}_\delta$.

Analytically characterizing comparative statics of the endogenous objects such as price coefficients, price informativeness and cost of capital, with respect to λ is nontrivial. In what follows, we investigate the model under assumption that λ is small. We linearize price coefficients ξ_z and ξ_δ around $\lambda = 0$ and investigate the comparative statics of the linearized solution. To do so, we proceed in three steps. First, we separately solve the model for the case $\lambda = 0$. Second, we use the system of equations (44)-(45), derived under assumption $\lambda > 0$, to get equation (46) that implicitly defines ξ_δ. We then show that if λ is sufficiently small, there exists a unique solution to this equation that is smooth in λ around 0. Moreover, the solution to this equation coincides with the solution derived in Step 1 when $\lambda = 0$. In the third step, we linearize the solution of equation (46) around $\lambda = 0$ and prove Propositions 7 and 8.

Step 1: Solving the model when $\lambda = 0$.

When $\lambda = 0$, prior and signals about the non-monetary component $\tilde{\delta}$ are infinitely imprecise. Therefore, the price cannot be informative about $\tilde{\delta}$ in any equilibrium so that $p_\delta = 0$ and $\tilde{p} = p_0 + p_z\tilde{z} + p_n\tilde{n} = p_0 + p_n(\xi_z\tilde{z} + \tilde{n})$. Green investors do not trade the stock because its payoff is infinitely risky to them. As a result, the equilibrium price coefficients are shaped by trading activities of traditional and noise investors only. In particular, demand for the stock from traditional investors is

$$D^t(\tilde{z}, \tilde{p}) = m_t \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\tilde{z}\frac{\tau_s}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_z \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} \frac{\tilde{p} - p_0 - \tilde{z} p_z \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_s+\tau}}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}} - \tilde{p}}{\frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} - \frac{\left(p_z \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s}\right)^2}{p_z^2 \frac{1}{\tau+\tau_s} + p_n^2 \frac{1}{\tau_n}}}.$$

The market clearing condition is $D^t(\tilde{z}, \tilde{p}) + \tilde{n} = 1$. By matching the price coefficients, it is straightforward to show that $p_n > 0$, $p_z > 0$, $p_0 < 0$, $\xi_z = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t$. In addition, because $p_\delta = 0$, $\xi_\delta = 0$.

Step 2: Equation for ξ_δ when $\lambda > 0$.

When $\lambda > 0$, we can use system (44)-(45) to get a quintic equation of ξ_δ, analogous to equation (21) in the main text:

$$f\left(\xi_\delta\right) = \xi_\delta^5 - \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\xi_\delta^4 + 2\lambda\kappa\xi_\delta^3 - 2\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\lambda^2\kappa\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\xi_\delta^2 + \left[\lambda^2\kappa^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2\lambda^2\kappa\frac{\beta_\delta^2}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right]\xi_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\lambda^3\kappa^2\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2} = 0, \tag{46}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$f\left(\xi_\delta\right) = \left(\xi_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right)\left(\xi_\delta^2+\lambda\kappa\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2\lambda^2\kappa\frac{\beta_\delta^2}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\xi_\delta = 0.$$

When $\lambda = 0$, this equation has a unique solution $\xi_\delta = 0$, which coincides with the one derived in Step 1. When $\lambda > 0$, there always exists a positive solution because $f(0) < 0$ and $f(\infty) > 0$. Moreover, all solutions are below $\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}$. When λ is sufficiently small, the solution is unique. Indeed, differentiate (46) and observe that for $\xi_\delta \in \left(0, \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right)$,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi_\delta} > -4\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right)^4 - 4\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\lambda\frac{\beta_\delta}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right)^2\lambda\kappa + \lambda^2\kappa\left(\kappa + \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2\frac{\beta_\delta^2}{\lambda\beta_z^2+\beta_\delta^2}\right).$$

When λ is sufficiently small, the last positive term is larger in absolute terms than the first two negative terms. Therefore, $f\left(\xi_\delta\right)$ is strictly increasing on the relevant interval, which guarantees that there exists a unique solution $\xi_\delta\left(\lambda\right)$. Moreover, the function $\xi_\delta\left(\lambda\right)$ is smooth in the neighborhood of zero because $f\left(\xi_\delta, \lambda\right)$ is smooth in the neighborhood of $(0, 0)$.

Step 3: Linearization.

Because $\xi_\delta\left(\lambda\right)$ is smooth around $\lambda = 0$, we can use its Taylor series to approximate it around this point. Write $\xi_\delta = \xi_{\delta,1}\lambda + o\left(\lambda\right)$, where $\xi_{\delta,1}$ does not depend on λ, and plug it in (46). Omitting higher order terms, we obtain

$$\xi_{\delta,1} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\kappa}{\beta_\delta\left(\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa\right)} > 0.$$

Similarly, we have $\xi_z = \xi_{z,0} + \xi_{z,1}\lambda + o(\lambda)$. Using equation (44), we get

$$\xi_{z,0} = \frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{z,1} = \xi_{\delta,1}\frac{1}{\beta_\delta}\left[\beta_z - \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa}\right].$$

The linear term of ξ_z is negative when $\beta_z < \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2+\kappa}$, which proves part (i) of Proposition 7.

Next, we linearize price informativeness. Recall that price informativeness are given by

$$PI_t = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2\lambda + \xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\kappa}{\xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\kappa} \quad \text{and} \quad PI_g = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{\xi_z^2\lambda + \xi_\delta^2 + \lambda\kappa}{(\xi_\delta\beta_z - \xi_z\beta_\delta)^2 + (\beta_z^2\lambda + \beta_\delta^2)\kappa}.$$

For green investors, we have

$$PI_{g,0} + PI_{g,1}\lambda = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{\xi_{z,0}^2\lambda + \lambda\kappa}{\xi_{z,0}^2\beta_\delta^2 + \beta_\delta^2\kappa} \Rightarrow PI_{g,0} = 0, \quad PI_{g,1} = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{1}{\beta_\delta^2} > 0.$$

For traditional investors, we have

$$PI_{t,0} + PI_{t,1}\lambda = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{\xi_{z,0}^2\lambda + 2\xi_{z,1}\xi_{z,0}\lambda^2 + \xi_{\delta,1}^2\lambda^2 + \lambda\kappa}{\xi_{\delta,1}^2\lambda^2 + \lambda\kappa} \Rightarrow$$

$$PI_{t,0} = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa}{\kappa}, PI_{t,1} = (\tau + \tau_s)\frac{2\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\xi_{\delta,1}}{\kappa\beta_\delta}\left(\beta_z - \frac{3}{2}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa}\right).$$

Clearly, $PI_{t,1} < 0$ if and only if $\beta_z - \frac{3}{2}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2+\kappa} < 0$, which proves part (ii) of Proposition 7.

Finally, recall that $CoC = \frac{\gamma}{m_t PI_t + m_g PI_g}$ and so

$$\frac{dCoC}{d\lambda} \propto -\left(\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\frac{dPI_t}{d\lambda} + \left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\frac{dPI_g}{d\lambda}\right),$$

where $\propto$ denotes proportionality up to a positive term. Using $PI_{g,1}$ and $PI_{t,1}$ derived above, we have

$$m_t \frac{dPI_t}{d\lambda} + m_g \frac{dPI_g}{d\lambda} = m_t PI_{t,1} + m_g PI_{g,1} + o(1) =$$
$$(\tau + \tau_s) \frac{2\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2}{\beta_\delta^2\left(\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa\right)} \left[\beta_z - \frac{3}{2}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_g\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2 + \kappa}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\tau_s m_t\right)^2}\right] + o(1).$$

If the expression in the brackets is negative, CoC declines in λ for a sufficiently small λ. This proves Proposition 8.

D Correlated payoff components

This section considers the model in which the monetary payoff component $\tilde{z}$ and the non-monetary payoff component $\tilde{\delta}$ are correlated with a correlation coefficient $\rho \in (-1, 1)$. As in the main model, the stock payoff to traditional investors is $\tilde{z}$ and the stock payoff to green investors is $\beta_z\tilde{z} + \beta_\delta\tilde{\delta}$. We normalize $\beta_z^2 + 2\beta_z\beta_\delta\rho + \beta_\delta^2 = 1$ such that traditional and green investors are exposed to the same ex-ante variance from holding the stock.

Define orthogonalized payoff components

$$\tilde{x} = \tilde{z}, \tag{47}$$
$$\tilde{y} = \frac{\tilde{\delta} - \rho\tilde{z}}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}. \tag{48}$$

By construction, $\tilde{x}$ and $\tilde{y}$ have the same variance τ^{-1} as $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$. Furthermore, they are uncorrelated. Intuitively, $\tilde{y}$ represents "purely" non-monetary output that is completely unrelated to cash flows.

We can write investors' preferences over the orthogonalized payoff components (47)-(48) in the following way. Traditional investors still value only one component $\tilde{x}$. For green investors, the stock payoff is $\beta_x\tilde{x} + \beta_y\tilde{y}$, where

$$\beta_x = \beta_z + \beta_\delta\rho,$$
$$\beta_y = \beta_\delta\sqrt{1-\rho^2}.$$

Note that $\beta_x^2 + \beta_y^2 = \beta_z^2 + 2\beta_z\beta_\delta\rho + \beta_\delta^2 = 1$.

We assume that each investor i irrespective of her type observes two uncorrelated private signals $\tilde{s}_x^i \sim N(\tilde{x}, \tau_s^{-1})$ and $\tilde{s}_y^i \sim N(\tilde{y}, \tau_s^{-1})$. Signals about $\tilde{y}$ represent information about "purely" non-monetary output that is unrelated to cash flows; signals about $\tilde{x}$ represent information about cash flows, including cash flow-relevant information investors receive from learning about firm's non-monetary performance. For example, $\tilde{s}_x^i$ might include information about how eco-friendly firm's products are and thus how strong the demand from eco-conscious consumers is going to be. Note that this information environment is equivalent to the one in which investors receive correlated signals about the non-orthogonalized payoff components $\tilde{s}_z^i \sim N(\tilde{z}, \tau_s^{-1})$ and $\tilde{s}_\delta^i \sim N\left(\tilde{\delta}, \tau_s^{-1}\right)$, with the same correlation coefficient ρ as between $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$.[25]

Therefore, by orthogonalizing payoff components and defining investors' preferences over these components, we get back to the main model of Section 3, in which the payoff components are uncorrelated. The following proposition summarizes the equivalence result.

Proposition 9. *The following two models are equivalent:*

1. *A model in which payoff components are correlated,* $Corr(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}) = \rho$*; signals are correlated* $Corr(\tilde{s}_z^i, \tilde{s}_\delta^i) = \rho$ *for any investor i; stock payoff to traditional investors is $\tilde{z}$; stock payoff to green investors is* $\beta_z \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta \tilde{\delta}$.

2. *A model in which payoff components* $\tilde{x} = \tilde{z}$ *and* $\tilde{y} = \frac{\tilde{\delta} - \rho \tilde{z}}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}$ *and investor signals about them are uncorrelated; stock payoff to traditional investors is $\tilde{x}$; stock payoff to green investors is* $(\beta_z + \beta_\delta \rho)\tilde{x} + (\beta_\delta \sqrt{1-\rho^2})\tilde{y}$.

Proposition 9 is intuitive. In particular, it states that a positive correlation between the payoff components effectively make traditional and green investors' preferences more aligned. That is, a high realization of the non-monetary payoff component benefits not only green investors, who directly value the non-monetary output, but also traditional investors because it tends to be associated with a higher realization of the monetary payoff component.

[25]Equal correlation $\text{Corr}(\tilde{z}, \tilde{\delta}) = \text{Corr}(\tilde{s}_z^i, \tilde{s}_\delta^i) = \rho$ is crucial to keep the model analytically tractable.

E General information structure

In our main analyses, we consider an analytically tractable case when traditional and green investors have access to information of the same quality. In this section, we explore the role of information structure for our main results. In particular, we establish that our results about the existence of multiple equilibria in the trading game and the nature of these equilibria are robust to rather general assumptions about information available to investors.

First, we allow $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ to have different ex ante variances, τ_z^{-1} and τ_δ^{-1}, respectively. Second, traditional and green investors receive informative signals about $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ of potentially different precisions. In particular, investor i of type $j \in \{t, g\}$ receives two private signals, $\tilde{s}_z^{ij} \sim N\left(\tilde{z}, \left(\tau_{s_z}^j\right)^{-1}\right)$ and $\tilde{s}_\delta^{ij} \sim N\left(\tilde{\delta}, \left(\tau_{s_\delta}^j\right)^{-1}\right)$. Given their preferences, we assume that traditional/green investors receive some useful information about $\tilde{z}/\tilde{\delta}$, namely, $\tau_{s_z}^t > 0$ and $\tau_{s_\delta}^g > 0$. Other signals can be in principle uninformative, $\tau_{s_\delta}^t \geq 0$ and $\tau_{s_z}^g \geq 0$. Finally, we maintain our baseline assumptions: masses of traditional and green investors are positive, $m_t > 0$ and $m_g > 0$; investors' risk aversion parameter is $\gamma > 0$; traditional investors care only about $\tilde{z}$ and green investors care about $\beta_z \tilde{z} + \beta_\delta \tilde{\delta}$, where $\beta_z \geq 0$ and $\beta_\delta > 0$; noise traders' demand is $\tilde{n} \sim N\left(0, \tau_n^{-1}\right)$.

Under general information structure, the system of equations (26)-(27) for ξ_z and ξ_δ becomes

$$\xi_z = m_t \tau_{s_z}^t + m_g \tau_{s_z}^g \frac{\beta_z \left(\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau_\delta + \tau_{s_\delta}^g}{\tau_n}\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_\delta}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \left(\beta_z^2 \left(\tau_\delta + \tau_{s_\delta}^g\right) + \beta_\delta^2 \left(\tau_z + \tau_{s_z}^g\right)\right) \frac{1}{\tau_n}}, \tag{49}$$

$$\xi_\delta = -m_t \tau_{s_\delta}^t \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau_\delta + \tau_{s_\delta}^t}{\tau_n}} + m_g \tau_{s_\delta}^g \frac{\beta_\delta \left(\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau_z + \tau_{s_z}^g}{\tau_n}\right) - \xi_\delta \xi_z \beta_z}{\left(\xi_z \beta_\delta - \xi_\delta \beta_z\right)^2 + \left(\beta_z^2 \left(\tau_\delta + \tau_{s_\delta}^g\right) + \beta_\delta^2 \left(\tau_z + \tau_{s_z}^g\right)\right) \frac{1}{\tau_n}}. \tag{50}$$

In (49)-(50), we set $\gamma = 1$. This is without loss of generality because it is equivalent to redefining the masses of traditional and green investors.

Proposition 10. *Fix $m_t > 0$, $m_g > 0$, $\gamma > 0$, $\beta_z \geq 0$, $\beta_\delta > 0$, $\tau_{s_z}^t > 0$, $\tau_{s_\delta}^t \geq 0$, $\tau_{s_z}^g \geq 0$, $\tau_{s_\delta}^g > 0$. For any $\tau_n > 0$, an equilibrium with a linear price $\tilde{p} = p_0 + p_z \tilde{z} + p_\delta \tilde{\delta} + p_n \tilde{n}$ exists. Moreover, for a sufficiently large τ_n multiple equilibria exist if one of the following conditions is satisfied:*

(i) $\tau_{s_\delta}^t > 0$ and $\tau_{s_z}^g > 0$;

(ii) $\tau^t_{s_\delta} > 0$, $\tau^g_{s_z} = 0$, *and either* $\dfrac{4\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2 \tau^t_{s_z} \tau^t_{s_\delta}}{m_g^2 \left(\tau^g_{s_\delta}\right)^2} < 1$ *or* $\beta_z > 0$*;*

(iii) $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$, $\tau^g_{s_z} > 0$, *and* $\dfrac{4 m_g \tau^g_{s_\delta} \left(\tau^g_{s_z} m_g + \beta_z m_t \tau^t_{s_z}\right)}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2 \left(\tau^t_{s_z}\right)^2} < 1$*;*

(iv) $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$, $\tau^g_{s_z} = 0$, $\beta_z > 0$ *and* $\dfrac{4\beta_z m_g \tau^g_{s_\delta}}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t \tau^t_{s_z}} < 1$.

Below, we first discuss Proposition 10 and then formally prove it at the end of this section.

Discussion

Proposition 10 emphasizes the importance of the information structure for the existence of multiple equilibria in the trading stage. In particular, they arise when investors have access to information about fundamentals that they value differently. To see it clearly, it is instructive to consider a special case when green investors care only about the $\tilde{\delta}$-component, i.e. $\beta_z = 0$. For a sufficiently small exogenous noise τ_n, multiple equilibria always arise as long as traditional and green investors receive *some* informative signals about $\tilde{\delta}$ and $\tilde{z}$, respectively. In an equilibrium that resembles the T-equilibrium, the price is closely associated with $\tilde{z}$ and is thus very informative to traditional investors. This incentivizes them to trade the stock intensively. In particular, they actively trade against their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals, virtually offsetting the impact of green investors who trade in the opposite direction. The price is, therefore, weakly associated with $\tilde{\delta}$. Analogously, there is an equilibrium that resembles the G-equilibrium, where the price is closely associated with $\tilde{\delta}$.

Notice that the multiplicity is possible even if only one group of investors receive signals about the factor they do not value, e.g. $\tau^t_{s_\delta} > 0$ and $\tau^g_{s_z} = 0$ (the case where $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$ and $\tau^g_{s_z} > 0$ is analogous). In the absence of relevant signals about $\tilde{z}$, green investors are not able to offset traditional investors' trading along the $\tilde{z}$-dimension. The price is always informative to traditional investors because the price coefficient ξ_z is shaped solely by their trading activities. The multiplicity is still possible due to trading in the opposite directions along the $\tilde{\delta}$-dimension. It requires, however, that the mass of traditional investors is small and their private signals are not precise relative to those of green investors, i.e. $\frac{4\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2 \tau^t_{s_z} \tau^t_{s_\delta}}{m_g^2 \left(\tau^g_{s_\delta}\right)^2} < 1$. If this is not the case, traditional investors dominate the trading along the $\tilde{\delta}$-dimension and the price is uniquely defined. Note that if green investors care about the $\tilde{z}$-component, multiple equilibria are always possible for a sufficiently small noise. If $\beta_z > 0$, preferences of green and traditional investors are partially aligned. Green investors benefit to some extent from traditional investors' trading as they can learn about $\tilde{z}$ from the price. The price is less noisy to them, and they trade more aggressively based on their $\tilde{\delta}$-signals.

Finally, the equilibrium is always unique when investors are informed only about the factors they care about, i.e. $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = \tau^g_{s_z} = 0$. In this case, there is no trading in the opposite directions because the investors' information sets are orthogonal. This case is studied in Rahi and Zigrand (2018) and Rahi (2021). As in the previous case, multiple equilibria might arise if $\beta_z > 0$. In this case, signals received by green investors are not perfectly aligned with what they value and, therefore, they benefit from the information about $\tilde{z}$ contained in the price.

Overall, Proposition 10 shows that, under fairly general assumptions on the information structure, the price might not be uniquely pinned down if the stock is traded by investors with heterogeneous valuations. Equilibria differ in terms of which investor group most actively trades the stock and which factors the price is mostly informative about. There are two key requirements for the multiplicity to emerge. First, investors of one group need to possess *some* information about the fundamental that investors of the other group value. That allows investors with heterogeneous preferences to trade against each other based on the same information. Second, the amount of exogenous noise should be small; otherwise, the price is always an imprecise signal to all rational investors.

Proof of Proposition 10.

As in other proofs, this one involves many tedious yet straightforward algebraic manipulations, which we frequently perform via Matlab Symbolic Math Toolbox and do not show.

The first part of the proof involves the reduction of (49)-(50) to a polynomial equation either for ξ_δ or ξ_z. Depending on the values of signal precisions, this equation is either cubic or have a higher odd order. For cubic equations, we investigate the number of roots using the sign of the discriminant. For higher order equations, the analysis is conceptually similar to the proof of Lemma 3. In particular, we prove that, for a sufficiently large τ_n, there are at least three distinct real roots by showing that the polynomial changes its sign at least three times.

Getting a polynomial equation for either ξ_z or ξ_δ from the system (49)-(50) involves different steps when $\beta_z = 0$ and $\beta_z > 0$, so we analyze these two cases separately. Each case is further split into four subcases that jointly cover all possible values of signal precisions. In some of those subcases, we introduce new notation. Since subcases are independent from one another, the additional notation is case-specific, that is, we might use the same notation in different subcases to denote different objects.

Case 1: $\beta_z = 0$.

The system (49)-(50) simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned} \xi_z &= m_t \tau^t_{s_z} - \hat{m}_g \tau^g_{s_z} \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau_z + \tau^g_{s_z}}{\tau_n}}, \\ \xi_\delta &= \hat{m}_g \tau^g_{s_\delta} - m_t \tau^t_{s_\delta} \frac{\xi_\delta \xi_z}{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau_\delta + \tau^t_{s_\delta}}{\tau_n}}, \end{aligned} \tag{51}$$

where we denote $\hat{m}_g = \frac{1}{\beta_\delta} m_g$.

Case 1.1: $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = \tau^g_{s_z} = 0$.

If investors receive signals only about fundamentals they care about, the equilibrium in the trading stage is trivially unique: $\xi_z = m_t \tau^t_{s_z}$ and $\xi_\delta = \hat{m}_g \tau^g_{s_\delta}$.

Case 1.2: $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$ **and** $\tau^g_{s_z} > 0$**.**

If only green investors receive informative signals about $\tilde{\delta}$, their trading activity solely determines the corresponding price coefficient, $\xi_\delta = \hat{m}_g \tau^g_{s_\delta}$. ξ_z solves the following equation:

$$\xi_z^3 - \xi_z^2 \left[m_t \tau^t_{s_z} \right] + \xi_z \left[\frac{\tau_z + \tau^g_{s_z}}{\tau_n} + \hat{m}_g^2 \tau^g_{s_z} \tau^g_{s_\delta} \right] - m^t \tau^t_{s_z} \frac{\tau_z + \tau^g_{s_z}}{\tau_n} = 0. \tag{52}$$

This equation has a real root because it is cubic. It has only positive real roots since the coefficients of odd/even powers are positive/negative. It has three distinct real roots when its discriminant is positive. The discriminant can be written as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$D = \sum_{i=0}^{3} d_i \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n} \right)^i,$$

where $d_0 = \hat{m}_g^4 m_t^2 \left(\tau^g_{s_z} \tau^g_{s_\delta} \tau^t_{s_z} \right)^2 - 4 \hat{m}_g^6 \left(\tau^g_{s_z} \tau^g_{s_\delta} \right)^3$. For a sufficiently large τ_n, $D > 0$ if $d_0 > 0$.

Therefore, for a sufficiently large τ_n, (52) has three distinct real roots if

$$\frac{4\hat{m}_g^2 \tau_{s_\delta}^g \tau_{s_z}^g}{m_t^2 \left(\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2} = \frac{4 m_g^2 \tau_{s_\delta}^g \tau_{s_z}^g}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2 \left(\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2} < 1.$$

Case 1.3: $\tau_{s_\delta}^t > 0$ and $\tau_{s_z}^g = 0$.

This case is analogous to **Case 1.2**. There are three solutions to (51) if τ_n is sufficiently large and

$$\frac{4\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2 \tau_{s_\delta}^t \tau_{s_z}^t}{m_g^2 \left(\tau_{s_z}^g\right)^2} < 1.$$

Case 1.4: $\tau_{s_\delta}^t, \tau_{s_z}^g > 0$.

Since the first equation of (51) is linear in ξ_δ, we can straightforwardly write $\xi_\delta = \xi_\delta(\xi_z)$. Plugging it in the second equation of the system, we obtain the following equation for ξ_z:

$$f(\xi_z) = \sum_{i=0}^{9} a_i \xi_z^i = 0. \tag{53}$$

Moreover, $a_9 = 1$ and $a_0 = a_{0,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3$, where $a_{0,3} < 0$ does not depend on τ_n. Then there exists at least one positive real root. Let's now show that there exists at least three positive real roots for a sufficiently large τ_n. Our approach is analogous to the proof of Lemma 3, so we keep the proof brief.

We can write

$$\begin{aligned}
a_0 &= a_{0,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3, \\
a_1 &= a_{1,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{1,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3, \\
a_2 &= a_{2,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{2,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3, \\
a_3 &= a_{3,1}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + a_{3,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{3,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3,
\end{aligned}$$

where $a_{i,j}$ are coefficients that do not depend on τ_n. Moreover, $a_{0,3} < 0$ and $a_{1,2} > 0$.

Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at $-\frac{a_{0,3}}{a_{1,2}}\frac{1}{\tau_n}+c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}>0$ for some $c_1>0$, we obtain

$$f\left(-\frac{a_{0,3}}{a_{1,2}}\frac{1}{\tau_n}+c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)=a_{1,2}c_1\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3+o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, $f\left(-\frac{a_{0,3}}{a_{1,2}}\frac{1}{\tau_n}+c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)>0$.

Next, we can write (53) also as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$f\left(\xi_z\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{3}b_i(\xi_z)\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^i,$$

where

$$b_0(\xi_z)=\xi_z^4\left(\xi_z-m_t\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2\left(\xi_z^2\left(\xi_z-m_t\tau_{s_z}^t\right)+\hat{m}_g^2\tau_{s_z}^g\tau_{s_\delta}^g\xi_z\right)+\hat{m}_g^2m_t\left(\tau_{s_z}^g\right)^2\tau_{s_\delta}^t\xi_z^5\left(\xi_z-m_t\tau_{s_z}^t\right).$$

Then, evaluating $f\left(\cdot\right)$ at $m_t\tau_{s_z}^t-\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}$, we obtain

$$f\left(m_t\tau_{s_z}^t-\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2},\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)=-\hat{m}_g^2m_t\left(\tau_{s_z}^g\right)^2\tau_{s_\delta}^t\left(m_t\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^5\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}+o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right).$$

Therefore, for a sufficiently large τ_n, $f\left(m_t\tau_{s_z}^t-\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right)<0$ and $m_t\tau_{s_z}^t-\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}>-\frac{a_{0,3}}{a_{1,2}}\frac{1}{\tau_n}+c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}>0$. Furthermore, because $a_9>0$, for any $\tau_n>0$ $f\left(\xi_z\right)>0$ if ξ_z is sufficiently large. Hence, we have shown that (53) has at least three (positive real) solutions for ξ_z if τ_n is sufficiently large.

Case 2: $\beta_z>0$.

We now work with the system (49)-(50).

Case 2.1: $\tau_{s_\delta}^t=\tau_{s_z}^g=0$.

The price coefficient ξ_z is $m_t \tau^t_{s_z}$. ξ_δ solves

$$\xi_\delta^3[\beta_z^2] - \xi_z^2\left[2\beta_z\beta_\delta m_t\tau^t_{s_z}\right] + \xi_z\left[\left(\beta_z^2\left(\tau_\delta + \tau^g_{s_\delta}\right) + \beta_\delta^2\tau_z\right)\frac{1}{\tau_n} + m_g m_t \tau^g_{s_\delta}\tau^t_{s_z}\beta_z + \left(\beta_\delta m_t\tau^t_{s_z}\right)^2\right] - m_g\tau^g_{s_\delta}\beta_\delta\left(\left(m_t\tau^t_{s_z}\right)^2 + \frac{\tau_z}{\tau_n}\right) = 0. \tag{54}$$

This equation has a real root because it is cubic. It has only positive real roots since the coefficients of odd/even powers are positive/negative. It has three distinct real roots when its discriminant is positive. The discriminant can be written as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$D = \sum_{i=0}^{3} d_i\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^i,$$

where $d_0 = \beta_z^4 m_g^2 m_t^3\left(\tau^t_{s_z}\right)^3\left(\tau^g_{s_\delta}\right)^2\left(m_t\tau^t_{s_z}\beta_\delta^2 - 4\beta_z m_g\tau^g_{s_\delta}\right)$. For a sufficiently large τ_n, $D > 0$ if $d_0 > 0$. Therefore, for a sufficiently large τ_n, (54) has three distinct real roots if

$$\frac{4\beta_z m_g\tau^g_{s_\delta}}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t\tau^t_{s_z}} < 1.$$

Case 2.2: $\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$ **and** $\tau^g_{s_z} > 0$.

Notice that $\xi_\delta\beta_\delta\tau^g_{s_z} + \xi_z\beta_z\tau^g_{s_\delta}$ is constant, so $\xi_z(\xi_\delta)$ is a linear function. Plugging it back to (50), we obtain the following equation for ξ_δ:

$$f(\xi_\delta) = \sum_{i=0}^{3} a_i\xi_\delta^i = 0, \tag{55}$$

where $a_1, a_3 > 0$ and $a_0, a_2 < 0$. This equation has a real root because it is cubic. It has only positive real roots since the coefficients of odd/even powers are positive/negative. It has three distinct real roots when its discriminant is positive. The discriminant can be written as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$D = \sum_{i=0}^{3} d_i\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^i,$$

where

$$d_0 = \frac{m_g^2}{\beta_z^2}\left(m_g\tau_{s_z}^g + \beta_z m_t \tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2\left(\tau_{s_\delta}^g\beta_z^2 + \tau_{s_z}^g\beta_\delta^2\right)^2\left(\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2\left(\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2 - 4\tau_{s_z}^g\tau_{s_\delta}^g m_g^2 - 4\beta_z m_g m_t \tau_{s_\delta}^g\tau_{s_z}^t\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, $D > 0$ if $d_0 > 0$. Therefore, for a sufficiently large τ_n, (55) has three distinct real roots if

$$\frac{4\tau_{s_z}^g\tau_{s_\delta}^g m_g^2 + 4\beta_z m_g m_t \tau_{s_\delta}^g\tau_{s_z}^t}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2\left(\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2} = \frac{4m_g\tau_{s_\delta}^g\left(\tau_{s_z}^g m_g + \beta_z m_t\tau_{s_z}^t\right)}{\beta_\delta^2 m_t^2\left(\tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2} < 1.$$

Case 2.3: $\tau_{s_\delta}^t > 0$ **and** $\tau_{s_z}^g = 0$.

The price coefficient ξ_z is $m_t\tau_{s_z}^t$. ξ_δ solves

$$f(\xi_\delta) = \sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i\xi_\delta^i = 0. \tag{56}$$

Moreover, $a_5 = \beta_z^2$ and $a_0 = a_{0,1}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + a_{0,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2$, where $a_{0,1}, a_{0,2} < 0$ do not depend on τ_n. Then there exists at least one positive real root. Let's now show that there exists at least three positive real roots for a sufficiently large τ_n. Our approach is analogous to the proof of Lemma 3, so we keep the proof brief.

We can write

$$a_0 = a_{0,1}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + a_{0,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2,$$
$$a_1 = a_{1,0} + a_{1,1}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + a_{1,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2,$$

where $a_{i,j}$ are coefficients that do not depend on τ_n. Moreover, $a_{0,1} < 0$ and $a_{1,0} > 0$. Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at $-\frac{a_{0,1}}{a_{1,0}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n} > 0$ for some $c_1 > 0$, we obtain

$$f\left(-\frac{a_{0,1}}{a_{1,0}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) = a_{1,0}c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n} + o\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, $f\left(-\frac{a_{0,1}}{a_{1,0}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) > 0$.

Next, we can write (56) also as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$f(\xi_\delta) = \sum_{i=0}^{2} b_i(\xi_\delta) \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^i,$$

where

$$b_0(\xi_\delta) = \xi_z \left(\xi_z^2 + m_t^2 \tau_{s_z}^t \tau_{s_\delta}^t\right) \left(\beta_z \xi_\delta - \beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2 + m_t m_g \tau_{s_\delta}^g \tau_{s_z}^t \xi_\delta^2 \left(\beta_z \xi_\delta - \beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t\right).$$

Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at $\frac{1}{\beta_z}\left(\beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right)$, we obtain

$$f\left(\frac{1}{\beta_z}\left(\beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right)\right) = -m_t m_g \tau_{s_\delta}^t \tau_{s_z}^t \left(\frac{1}{\beta_z}\beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right).$$

Therefore, for a sufficiently large τ_n, $f\left(\frac{1}{\beta_z}\left(\beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right)\right) < 0$ and, at the same time, $\frac{1}{\beta_z}\left(\beta_\delta m_t \tau_{s_z}^t - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) > -\frac{a_{0,1}}{a_{1,0}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1 \frac{1}{\tau_n} > 0$. Furthermore, because $a_5 > 0$, for any $\tau_n > 0$ $f(\xi_\delta) > 0$ if ξ_δ is sufficiently large. Hence, we have shown that (56) has at least three (positive real) solutions for ξ_δ if τ_n is sufficiently large.

Case 2.4: $\tau_{s_\delta}^t, \tau_{s_z}^g > 0$.

Notice that $\xi_z \beta_z \tau_{s_\delta}^g + \xi_\delta \beta_\delta \tau_{s_z}^g$ is linear in ξ_z, so we can straightforwardly write $\xi_z = \xi_z(\xi_\delta)$. Plugging it back to (50), we obtain the following equation for ξ_δ:

$$f(\xi_\delta) = \sum_{i=1}^{9} a_i \xi_\delta^i = 0. \tag{57}$$

Moreover, $a_9 > 0$ and $a_0 < 0$. Then there exists at least one positive real root. Let's now show that there exists at least three real roots for a sufficiently large τ_n. Our approach is analogous to the proof of Lemma 3, so we keep the proof brief.

We can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_0 &= a_{0,4}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3 + a_{0,5}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^4, \\
a_1 &= a_{1,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{1,4}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3 + a_{1,5}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^4, \\
a_2 &= a_{2,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{2,4}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3, \\
a_3 &= a_{3,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) + a_{3,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2 + a_{3,4}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^3, \\
a_4 &= a_{4,2}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) + a_{4,3}\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^2,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a_{i,j}$ are coefficients that do not depend on τ_n. Moreover, $a_{0,4} < 0$ and $a_{1,3} > 0$. Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at $-\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n} > 0$ for some $c_1 > 0$, we obtain

$$
f\left(-\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) = a_{1,3}c_1\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^4 + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^4\right).
$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, $f\left(-\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right) > 0$.

Next, we can write (57) also as a polynomial of $\frac{1}{\tau_n}$:

$$
f(\xi_\delta) = \sum_{i=0}^{5} b_i(\xi_\delta)\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^i,
$$

where $b_0(\xi_\delta)$ has a root at $\xi_\delta = \check{\xi}_\delta = \frac{\beta_\delta\left[m_g\tau^g_{s_z}\tau^g_{s_\delta} + \beta_z m_t\left(\tau^t_{s_z}\tau^g_{s_\delta} - \tau^g_{s_z}\tau^t_{s_\delta}\right)\right]}{\left(\beta_z^2\tau^g_{s_\delta} + \beta_\delta^2\tau^g_{s_z}\right)}$. Note that under our benchmark assumptions, $\tau^t_{s_z}\tau^g_{s_\delta} - \tau^g_{s_z}\tau^t_{s_\delta} = 0$ and $\check{\xi}_\delta > 0$. Moreover, $\check{\xi}_\delta > 0$ as long as traditional/green investors are relatively better informed about $\tilde{z}/\tilde{\delta}$-payoff component. Therefore, we consider $\check{\xi}_\delta > 0$ as a more empirically relevant case. However, for the sake of completeness, we also study the case $\check{\xi}_\delta \leq 0$ separately.

Case 2.4.1: $\check{\xi}_\delta > 0$. Evaluate $b_0(\cdot)$ at $\check{\xi}_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}$ to obtain

$$
b_0\left(\check{\xi}_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = -c_2\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right),
$$

where c_2 is a positive coefficient which does not depend on τ_n. Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at the same point, we obtain

$$f\left(\check{\xi}_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = -c_2\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, the above expression is negative and, at the same time, $\check{\xi}_\delta - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} > -\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n} > 0$. Furthermore, because $a_9 > 0$, for any $\tau_n > 0$ $f(\xi_\delta) > 0$ if ξ_δ is sufficiently large. Hence, we have shown that (57) has at least three (positive real) solutions for ξ_δ if τ_n is sufficiently large.

Case 2.4.2: $\check{\xi}_\delta < 0$. Evaluate $b_0(\cdot)$ at $\check{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}$ to obtain

$$b_0\left(\check{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = c_2\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right),$$

where c_2 is the same positive coefficient as in Case 2.4.1. Then, evaluating $f(\cdot)$ at the same point, we obtain

$$f\left(\check{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = c_2\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, the above expression is positive and, at the same time, $\check{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} < 0 < -\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}$. Furthermore, because $a_9 > 0$, for any $\tau_n > 0$ $f(\xi_\delta) < 0$ if ξ_δ is sufficiently large in absolute terms and negative. Hence, we have shown that (57) has at least three real solutions for ξ_δ if τ_n is sufficiently large (recall that $f(0) = a_0 < 0$).

Case 2.4.3: $\check{\xi}_\delta = 0$.

In this case, $b_0(\cdot)$ can be written as

$$b_0(\xi_\delta) \overset{\check{\xi}_\delta = 0}{=} A\xi_\delta^6 \sum_{i=0}^{3} b_{0,i}\xi_\delta^i,$$

where $A > 0, b_{0,3} > 0, b_{0,0} > 0$. Then there exists $\hat{\xi}_\delta < 0$ that solves $b_0(\xi_\delta) = 0$ such that

$$b_0\left(\hat{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = c_3\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right),$$

where c_3 is a positive constant. Moreover, at this point

$$f\left(\hat{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right) = c_3\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} + o\left(\left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2}\right).$$

For a sufficiently large τ_n, the above expression is positive and, at the same time, $\hat{\xi}_\delta + \left(\frac{1}{\tau_n}\right)^{1/2} < 0 < -\frac{a_{0,4}}{a_{1,3}}\frac{1}{\tau_n} + c_1\frac{1}{\tau_n}$. Furthermore, because $a_9 > 0$, for any $\tau_n > 0$ $f(\xi_\delta) < 0$ if ξ_δ is sufficiently large in absolute terms and negative. Hence, we have shown that (57) has at least three real solutions for ξ_δ if τ_n is sufficiently large (recall that $f(0) = a_0 < 0$).

□

F Investors with homogeneous preferences

The key assumption we make throughout the paper is that there are two groups of investors with heterogeneous stock valuations. Because of the preference heterogeneity, they use information about the same fundamentals differently and trade in the opposite directions, which might give rise to multiple equilibria that differ in the relative price informativeness about the two fundamentals. We show the robustness of this result to general assumptions on the information structure in Appendix E.

The goal of this section is to show that the preference heterogeneity is an essential ingredient for the equilibrium multiplicity. In particular, we explore a model that features two groups of investors that have homogeneous preferences but might have different information about the two fundamentals. The key difference between our setting and Goldstein and Yang (2015) is that we allow investors of both groups to receive informative signals about both fundamentals. As we discuss in Appendix E, this is crucial to support multiple equilibria in the trading stage when investors' preferences are heterogeneous. Our key result here is that equilibrium in the trading stage is unique when preferences are homogeneous.

We consider the same framework as described in Section 3 with several differences. First, we assume that both groups of investors have the same stock valuation, $\beta_z\tilde{z} + \beta_\delta\tilde{\delta}$. For consistency, we keep denoting the two groups using t and g subscripts. The masses of the two groups are m_t and m_g. Without loss of generality, we set the utility weights $\beta_z = \beta_\delta = 1$ and the risk aversion parameter $\gamma = 1$. Further, we assume that t/g-

investors specialize in particular types of information and, thus, receive signals about $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ with precisions of $\tau_s/\lambda\tau_s$ and $\lambda\tau_s/\tau_s$, respectively. Without loss of generality, we assume $\lambda \in [0,1]$. The priors for $\tilde{z}$ and $\tilde{\delta}$ are assumed to be the same, $\tau_z = \tau_\delta = \tau$.[26]

Market clearing implies the following system of equations for ξ_z and ξ_δ:

$$\xi_z = \tau_s \left[m_t \frac{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau+\lambda\tau_s}{\tau_n} - \xi_\delta\xi_z}{(\xi_z - \xi_\delta)^2 + (2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda))\frac{1}{\tau_n}} + m_g\lambda \frac{\xi_\delta^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n} - \xi_\delta\xi_z}{(\xi_z - \xi_\delta)^2 + (2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda))\frac{1}{\tau_n}} \right],$$

$$\xi_\delta = \tau_s \left[m_t\lambda \frac{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau+\tau_s}{\tau_n} - \xi_\delta\xi_z}{(\xi_z - \xi_\delta)^2 + (2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda))\frac{1}{\tau_n}} + m_g \frac{\xi_z^2 + \frac{\tau+\lambda\tau_s}{\tau_n} - \xi_\delta\xi_z}{(\xi_z - \xi_\delta)^2 + (2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda))\frac{1}{\tau_n}} \right].$$

Denote $x \equiv \xi_\delta - \xi_z$. It is easy to see that, given x, ξ_z and ξ_δ are uniquely pinned down. Furthermore, the system can be simplified to the following quintic equation for x:

$$f(x)g(x) = (1-\lambda)^2 (1+\lambda)\, \tau_n \tau_s^3 m_g m_t x, \tag{58}$$

where

$$f(x) = x\left(x^2\tau_n + 2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda)\right) + x\tau_n\tau_s^2\left(\lambda\left(m_g^2 + m_t^2\right) + m_g m_t\left(1+\lambda^2\right)\right) - \tau\tau_s\left(m_g - m_t\right)(1-\lambda),$$

$$g(x) = x^2\tau_n + 2\tau + \tau_s(1+\lambda).$$

Clearly, (58) has a unique solution $x = 0$ when $\lambda = 1$. Suppose now that $\lambda < 1$ and $m_g > m_t$ (case of $m_g \leq m_t$ can be considered analogously). Our goal is to show that (58) has unique solution.

Note that there exists a unique $\underline{x} > 0$ such that $f(\underline{x}) = 0$. Moreover, $\forall x \geq \underline{x}$ $f(x)g(x)$ is an increasing convex function. Then there exists exactly one solution to (58) when $x \geq 0$.

Let's now show that there is no solutions when $x < 0$. First, $f(0)g(0) < 0$. Second, $f(x)g(x)$ is increasing and concave when $x < 0$. Finally, the derivative of $f(x)g(x)$ at 0 is $f'(0)g(0) + f(0)g'(0) > (1+\lambda^2)(1+\lambda)\tau_n\tau_s^3 m_g m_t > (1-\lambda)^2(1+\lambda)\tau_n\tau_s^3 m_g m_t$. So the right-hand side of (58) is always above the left-hand side when $x < 0$. We, therefore, have established the following proposition.

[26] These assumptions on the information structure can be further relaxed (at the expense of tractability but without changing the final result) by allowing for different prior precisions and more general signal precisions. The analyses are available upon request.

Proposition 11. *If investors have homogeneous preferences, there exists a unique equilibrium with a linear stock price.*

We conclude that the equilibrium multiplicity in the trading game requires investors to have heterogeneous stock valuations. Otherwise, trading behaviors of investors are closely aligned and the price can never be informative to one group but not to the other.