



Organizing product innovation: knowledge and incentives

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Outline

- Introduction
- What do we know about the use and effectiveness of incentives in firms – theory and evidence (Prendergast)
- Information technology and workplace organization, briefly (Bresnahan et al.)
- The effect of “new” work practices on innovative performance (Laursen/Foss)
- The risk-incentive trade-off: Performance Pay, Delegation, and Multitasking under Uncertainty and innovativeness (Foss/Laursen)
- Class work: Innovation, delegation and incentives: Problems and opportunities

Basic agency theory and evidence



- P-A theory typically assumes:
 - “Principals” and “Agents”
 - The agent performs a work task for the principal
 - Principals and agents produce a joint surplus
 - Principals are risk neutral and agents are risk adverse
 - Principals and agents have a conflict of interest



Basic agency theory and evidence



- P-A theory typically assumes (con't):
 - Principals can only imperfectly observe the effort of agents (information asymmetry)
 - Impossible to observe the *input* to the work task
 - and it is impossible to measure work *output* precisely
 - Agents can be compensated through an hourly wage or through pay-for-performance
 - Since agents are risk adverse they demand a high premium for accepting risk in the standard P-A model

Basic agency theory and evidence

The basic P-A model:

$$x = e + \varepsilon,$$

where x is output, e is effort by the employee, and ε is an error term. The error term has a variance, σ^2 . σ^2 can be said to represent uncertainty.

- e is unobservable for the principal and σ^2 is uncontrollable for the agent.
- The principal's problem is to choose s so that the agent puts in effort, but is not overburdened with risk

Basic agency theory and evidence

- The second-best contract, specifying how much to pay the agent, can take the following form :

$$s(x) = \alpha x + \beta,$$

where α is a measure of high-powered incentives (“the piece rate”) and β is a transfer from the principal to the agent (that serves to satisfy the participation constraint)

- An analysis of the conditions that leads to maximization of the (certain) joint surplus gives rise to the following conclusions:
 - r varies inversely with α (r expresses the coefficient of risk aversion).
 - σ^2 varies inversely with α .
- This is the trade-off between risk-sharing and provision of incentives to supply effort.

Basic agency theory and evidence

- Issues (Prendergast, 1999)
 - The problem with an hourly wage is that it does not give agents incentives to do an effort
 - However, incentives may give rise to dysfunctional behavioural responses
 - People may do only what they are paid for;
 - even when it is not warranted
 - It may also crowd out “extrinsic motivation”
 - When agents have several tasks we call this “multitasking”



Basic agency theory and evidence

- Issues (con't) (Prendergast, 1999)
- Subjective performance evaluation
 - Can often be necessary, but has problems because of:
 - “Brown nosing” of supervisors
 - Supervisors may give rewards that only deviate a little from a norm
 - Supervisors are reluctant to give bad marks to poorly performing employees
 - Team production concerns
 - Free riding problems emerge when compensation is given to a team
 - Relative performance evaluation
 - Is efficient, when the environment is versatile, so that agents are not penalized when common demand declines



Basic agency theory and evidence

- Empirical evidence
 - Agents do respond to incentives
 - Despite free riding problems, there appear to be significant productivity benefits from rewarding teams (due to peer pressure?)
 - Better wages attract better workers (pay-for-performance gives higher wages)
 - Although wages are higher, productivity gain can often (much) more than compensate for this, when pay-for-performance is applied

Basic agency theory and evidence

- Empirical evidence (con't)
 - Often, though, do incentives (both subjective and objective performance indicators) have unintended negative consequences
 - The jury is still out on the performance of relative performance evaluation
 - The evidence on the trade-off between risk and incentives is mixed (more about that later!)

The relationship between information technology, workplace organization and skilled labor

- The productivity benefits of information technology (IT) depends on investments in complementary changes in workplace organization.
- Complementarity between activities obtains if “... doing more of one thing increases the returns to doing (more of) the others” (Milgrom and Roberts, 1995: 181).

The relationship between information technology, workplace organization and skilled labor

- The evidence (Besnahan et al., 2002):
 - Supports the complementarity for productivity outcomes
 - And find that the complementarity positively increases the demand for skilled labor
 - In other words falling IT prices -> increased use of “new” work organization (team work), skilled labor and IT -> innovations -> higher productivity
 - However, innovation is measured as relative differences in the same industry in multifactor productivity – it is not measured directly.



*New HRM Practices,
complementarities, and the impact on
innovation performance, CJE, 2003
(joint with Nicolai J Foss)*

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Organizational Complementarities: Motivation



- Recent research in contract economics (and in management research) has focussed the application of HRM (work) practices and on complementarities between them:
 - However the theoretical link between innovation performance and HRMP complementarities has not been clearly identified
 - The effect of HRMP complementarities on innovation performance has not been empirically tested

Measuring complementarities: Two methods



- Athey and Stern (NBER WP, 1998):
 - the “correlation approach”
 - the “production function approach”

Hypotheses (i)



- **H1:** The application of HRMP practices is conducive to innovation because:
 - The application of HRM practices may increase the level of decentralisation;
 - team practices, involving job-rotation are likely to provide coordination advantages in the sense that engineers (or “workers”) perform several tasks and therefore understand the technological problems of colleagues better;
 - teams often bring together knowledge and skills which — prior to then introduction of teams — existed separately, potentially resulting in incremental process and product improvements.

Hypotheses (ii)

- **H2:** However, the effect of such practices is stronger when the HRMPs are applied in 'systems', rather than alone.


The data

- Survey data from the DISKO project, 1996
- 684 manufacturing and 1,216 non-manufacturing firms (total of 1900 firms)
- The dependent variable, innovation:
 - if non-innovator then inno = 0
 - if the firm introduced new product/service new to:
 - the firm, then inno = 1
 - the country, then inno = 2
 - the world, then inno = 3

The independent variables

- The empirical model:

$$A_i = \alpha SIZE_i + \gamma SECT_i + \delta LINK_i + \phi EXREL_i + \varphi SUBSID_i + \eta_j HRMP_i^j + \dots + \eta_n HRMP_i^n + \varepsilon_i,$$

- However, HRMPs should be looked at from a systemic point of view  principal components analysis is one way of doing that

Factor loadings from PCA

| Variable | Factor 1 | Factor 2 |
|---|----------|----------|
| HRMP1: Interdisciplinary workgroups | 0.71 | 0.14 |
| HRMP2: Quality circles | 0.66 | 0.15 |
| HRMP3: Systems for collection of employee proposals | 0.65 | 0.04 |
| HRMP4: Planned job rotation | 0.62 | 0.08 |
| HRMP5: Delegation of responsibility | 0.57 | 0.03 |
| HRMP6: Integration of functions | 0.65 | -0.05 |
| HRMP7: Performance related pay | 0.55 | 0.05 |
| HRMP8: Firm-internal training | 0.14 | 0.90 |
| HRMP9: Firm-external training | 0.02 | 0.92 |
| Cumulative % | 0.33 | 0.50 |

[Regression table](#) in portrait

Correlations amongst HRM systems and the firm's sectoral affiliation

| | Factor 1 | p-value | Factor 2 | p-value |
|--------------------------|----------|---------|----------|---------|
| Scale intensive | 0.16 | 0.000 | 0.05 | 0.031 |
| Supplier dominated | 0.08 | 0.001 | -0.09 | 0.000 |
| Science based | 0.12 | 0.000 | 0.02 | 0.490 |
| Specialised suppliers | 0.15 | 0.000 | -0.07 | 0.002 |
| Crafts | -0.20 | 0.000 | -0.11 | 0.000 |
| Wholesale trade | 0.00 | 0.936 | 0.08 | 0.001 |
| Specialised services | -0.17 | 0.000 | 0.06 | 0.006 |
| Scale intensive services | -0.05 | 0.041 | -0.09 | 0.000 |
| ICT intensive services | 0.03 | 0.178 | 0.12 | 0.000 |

The Role of Organization for Technological Innovation

- 'Technological opportunity' (or sectoral affiliation) matters for innovation;
- strong external linkages (vertical and to knowledge institutions) matter as well;
- HRMPs matter, but much stronger when applied in systems, rather than alone;
- 'successful' HRMP systems are not equally important across sectors.

Uncertainty and Organizational forms

- OK, so the chosen organizational set-up matters for the ability to innovate;
- ...but does the external environment ("uncertainty") matter for the chosen organizational set-up?



Performance Pay, Delegation, and Multitasking under Uncertainty and Innovativeness: An Empirical Investigation, JEBO, 2005 (joint with Nicolai J Foss)

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Background

- Problems with standard agency theory:
 - incentive pay and uncertainty (observed by Prendergast, 2002, JPE)
 - restrictions on workers' activities (the Holmström-Milgrom hypothesis).

Theory (i)

- In standard PA-theory, the agent receives a larger share of the joint surplus, the lower his/her aversion is to risk (in other words, α , the "piece rate," and r , the coefficient of risk aversion varies inversely)
- Environmental uncertainty has the effect of adding observation error to performance measures (i.e., increase measurement cost) This increases the risk that is imposed on agents.
- Accordingly, the testable prediction is that risk and performance pay correlate negatively

Theory (ii)

- However, as Prendergast (2002) documents, this prediction has not fared well in the face of the available empirical evidence.
- Specifically, Prendergast considers the available empirical evidence for the four classes of occupation of executives, sharecroppers, franchisees, and sales force workers:
 - In the case of **executive compensation**, the evidence is "inconclusive".
 - For **sharecroppers**, the fraction that they retain turns out to be increasing in the noisiness of financial returns that is directly counter to the agency prediction.
 - Evidence from studies of **franchising** suggest that the choice of whether to keep outlets in-house or franchise them is influenced by uncertainty in a direction opposite to the prediction of agency theory
 - The evidence on **sales force** integration is inconclusive.

Theory (iii)

- The standard model may be extended in various ways, notably by introducing monitoring considerations. In the "standard" setting, higher risk leads to more monitoring, because higher risk leads to a fall in high powered incentives (α), which in turn reduces effort, prompting an increase in monitoring
- Therefore, the costs of measuring the agent's performance in the various activities play a key role for how much the agent will be restricted.
- A key prediction from their multitask-agency model is that the more costly it is to measure the agent's performance in his/her main activities, the more his/her flexibility will be restricted.
- Since risk and measurement cost can reasonably be assumed to correlate directly, this reasoning would predict that as risk increases, the agent will tend to become increasingly constrained.

Theory (iv)

- In reality, much knowledge about how to optimally carry out the task resides with the agent, and may be too costly to transfer to corporate headquarters (or other managerial layers), because of problems of eliciting the correct information or because the relevant knowledge is of a highly “impacted,” tacit or complex, kind.
- In this situation, delegation co-locates decision rights with this knowledge.
- Accordingly, the benefits from delegation are probably underestimated in the standard PA-model;
- and delegation generates incentive pay based on output.
- This is consistent with recent PA-model by Prendergast 2002, JPE

Theory (vi)

The Prendergast P-A model:

- The agents are assumed to be risk-neutral.

$$x_i = e_i + \varepsilon_i,$$

where x_i is output, e_i is effort by the employee, and ε_i is an error term. The error term has a variance, σ^2 . σ^2 can be said to represent uncertainty.

- e_i is unobservable for the principal and ε_i (for all i) is known for the agent, but not for the principal (who only knows the underlying distribution).
- The agent can choose the activity j to work on so that $x_j - C(e_j) + B_j$ is maximized. $C(e_j)$ is the cost of supplying effort and B_j is personal benefit.
- Higher uncertainty (σ^2) \rightarrow more delegation \rightarrow delegation (choice of activity — for instance, the engineer chosen which solution to work on) generates incentive pay based on output.

Theory (v)

- The Holmström and Milgrom hypothesis:
 - The more costly it is to measure the agent’s performance in his/her main activities, the more his/her flexibility will be restricted
 - However, again, asymmetrical information about work tasks may obtain

Hypotheses (i)

- **Hypothesis 1:** *There is an overall positive and significant relation between environmental uncertainty and the use of performance pay.*

Hypotheses (ii)

- **Hypothesis 2a:** *Delegation and environmental uncertainty are positively correlated.*
- **Hypothesis 2b:** *After controlling for delegation, there will be no relationship between uncertainty and performance pay*

Hypotheses (iii)

- **Hypothesis 3:** *The strength of the correlation between environmental uncertainty and the use of performance pay is sector dependent, so that the correlation within more “dynamic” sectors is stronger than in less “dynamic” sectors*

Hypotheses (iv)

- **Hypothesis 4:** *Firms that are placed in environments characterized by high uncertainty will restrict the activities that their employees can engage in less than those that are placed in low uncertainty environments.*

How to measure uncertainty?

- The previous literature has used e.g.:
 - The average proportion of discontinued outlets in the franchising sector
 - The number of calls it takes to close a sale, averaged across the salespeople at the responding firm
 - For the analysis of sharecroppers, the coefficient of variation of yield has been used
 - Variation over time of aggregate sales data
 - Survey-based data, assessing the stability in sales and forecasting accuracy
 - For executive pay, variation in returns

How to measure uncertainty?

- We consider three measures of uncertainty:
 - The extent to which firms are innovative
 - The perceived increase in the level of competition
 - Previous within-industry variance in profitability.

The empirical model

- The set-up:

$$\text{Prob}(O_i = 0..j) = \chi \text{SECT}_i + \alpha \text{LOGSIZE}_i + \varphi \text{SUBSID}_i + \eta \text{INNO} + \psi \text{COMP}_i + \omega \text{PROFITVAR} + \varepsilon_i,$$

where $\text{Prob}(O_i = 0..j)$ expresses the firms' probability of adopting a given organizational practice (such as pay-for-performance or delegation of responsibility) to a certain degree within the firm ("0" = no use, "1" = less than 25% of the workforce involved, "2" = 25-50% of the workforce, and "3" = more than 50% of the workforce involved).

- SECT = Sectoral affiliation
- SIZE = Number of employees
- SUBSID = Subsidiary of a larger firm
- INNO = Innovation (level of novelty)
- COMP = Increase in the level of competition
- PROFITVAR = Within-firm/industry variance in profitability

The Data

- Survey data from the DISKO project, 1996
- 684 manufacturing and 1,216 non-manufacturing firms (total of 1900 firms)
- We select a sub-sample of firms with more than 30 employees (993 firms in total).

Descriptive statistics for a set of DISKO variables (N = 993)

| | | Number of firms | % of sample |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Industry affiliation | Low-KI | 390 | 39.3 |
| | Medium-KI | 366 | 36.9 |
| | High-KI | 237 | 23.9 |
| Number of employees (SIZE*) | 31-100 employees | 312 | 31.4 |
| | 101-200 employees | 203 | 20.4 |
| | 200+ employees | 478 | 48.1 |
| Subsidiary (SUBSID) | No | 409 | 41.2 |
| | Yes | 584 | 58.8 |
| Competition (COMP) | Strongly decreased | 1 | 0.1 |
| | Somewhat decreased | 10 | 1.0 |
| | Unchanged | 194 | 19.5 |
| | Somewhat increased | 339 | 34.1 |
| | Strongly increased | 449 | 45.2 |
| Product innovation (INNOF) | No innovation | 391 | 39.4 |
| | Innovation new to the firm (INNOC) | 434 | 43.7 |
| | Innovation new to the country (INNOC) | 89 | 9.0 |
| | Innovation new to the world (INNOC) | 79 | 8.0 |
| Pay-for-performance (PPAY) | Not used | 525 | 52.9 |
| | < 25% of the workforce | 194 | 19.5 |
| | 25-50% of the workforce | 79 | 8.0 |
| | > 50% of the workforce | 195 | 19.6 |
| Delegation (DR) | Not used | 103 | 10.4 |
| | < 25% of the workforce | 240 | 24.2 |
| | 25-50% of the workforce | 265 | 26.7 |
| | > 50% of the workforce | 385 | 38.8 |
| Quality circles (QC) | Not used | 522 | 52.6 |
| | < 25% of the workforce | 264 | 26.6 |
| | 25-50% of the workforce | 111 | 11.2 |
| | > 50% of the workforce | 96 | 9.7 |
| Planned job rotation (PIR) | Not used | 550 | 55.4 |
| | < 25% of the workforce | 288 | 29.0 |
| | 25-50% of the workforce | 93 | 9.4 |
| | > 50% of the workforce | 62 | 6.2 |

Econometric issues

- The dependent variables are discrete and inherently ordered multinomial-choice variables; accordingly the ordered probit model is applied as the main means of estimation
- However, we have argued that uncertainty gives rise to adoption of delegation of responsibility which in turn gives rise to pay-for-performance, therefore we may have an endogeneity-problem
- Nevertheless, if we assume independence between the error terms in these two equations, and further assume that errors are normally distributed, then the equations can be estimated one by one (but these assumptions may be wrong).
- Possible solution: Joint estimation using a bivariate probit model (although there is a serious limitation with bivariate probit models in this context)

Ordered probit estimation explaining the adoption of delegation and pay-for-performance (N = 993) [Marginaleffects.ppt](#)

| Dependent variable | Model (i) | | Model (ii) | | Model (iii) | | Model (iv) | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---------|--------------------------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|---------|
| | PPAY | | DR | | PPAY | | PPAY x DR | |
| | (Pay-for-performance) | | (Delegation of responsibility) | | (Pay-for-performance) | | Pay-for-perform. times delegation | |
| Independent variables | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value |
| CONSTANT | -0.980 | 0.000 | 0.225 | 0.308 | -1.205 | 0.000 | -1.127 | 0.000 |
| LOW_KI | Benchmark | | | | | | | |
| MEDIUM_KI | 0.048 | 0.581 | 0.172 | 0.038 | 0.020 | 0.815 | 0.020 | 0.824 |
| HIGH_KI | -0.046 | 0.640 | 0.236 | 0.013 | -0.087 | 0.383 | -0.018 | 0.855 |
| LOGSIZE | 0.125 | 0.002 | 0.105 | 0.009 | 0.109 | 0.008 | 0.128 | 0.002 |
| SUBSID | 0.152 | 0.054 | 0.077 | 0.317 | 0.142 | 0.074 | 0.182 | 0.023 |
| INNOF | 0.212 | 0.013 | 0.219 | 0.006 | 0.178 | 0.037 | 0.264 | 0.002 |
| INNOC | 0.262 | 0.062 | -0.016 | 0.911 | 0.263 | 0.065 | 0.318 | 0.024 |
| INNOW | 0.477 | 0.002 | 0.217 | 0.117 | 0.446 | 0.003 | 0.503 | 0.001 |
| COMP | -0.017 | 0.728 | 0.075 | 0.092 | -0.026 | 0.601 | -0.010 | 0.837 |
| PROFITVAR | 3.049 | 0.000 | 1.477 | 0.293 | 2.841 | 0.000 | 2.879 | 0.000 |
| DELEGATION (DR) | | | | | 0.194 | 0.000 | | |
| Log likelihood | -1144.73 | | -1265.37 | | -1131.67 | | -1396.27 | |
| Restricted log likelihood | -1168.76 | | -1289.07 | | -1168.76 | | -1424.42 | |
| Likelihood ratio test | 0.000 | | 0.000 | | 0.000 | | 0.000 | |

FIML estimates of a bivariate probit model explaining the adoption of delegation and pay-for-performance (N = 993)

| Dependent variable | Model (i) | | Model (ii) | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
| | DR | | PPAY | |
| | (Delegation of responsibility) | | (Pay-for-performance) | |
| Independent variables | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value |
| CONSTANT | -0.160 | 0.636 | -2.079 | 0.000 |
| LOW_KI | Benchmark | | | |
| MEDIUM_KI | 0.115 | 0.387 | -0.018 | 0.850 |
| HIGH_KI | 0.115 | 0.455 | -0.168 | 0.117 |
| LOGSIZE | 0.151 | 0.024 | 0.080 | 0.097 |
| SUBSID | 0.167 | 0.184 | 0.148 | 0.113 |
| INNOF | 0.348 | 0.007 | 0.134 | 0.192 |
| INNOC | 0.047 | 0.820 | 0.284 | 0.062 |
| INNOW | 0.159 | 0.492 | 0.491 | 0.005 |
| COMP | 0.076 | 0.261 | -0.034 | 0.530 |
| PROFITVAR | 4.931 | 0.051 | 1.483 | 0.149 |
| DELEGATION (DR) | | | 1.689 | 0.000 |
| Log likelihood | -965.140 | | | |
| Likelihood ratio test | 0.000 | | | |

Probit estimation explaining the adoption of pay-for-performance, sectoral estimation (N = 993)

| | | Estimate | | p-value | |
|---------------------------|-----------|----------|---------|----------|---------|
| | | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value |
| CONSTANT | Low-KI | -0.764 | 0.047 | | |
| | Medium-KI | -0.602 | 0.109 | | |
| | High-KI | -1.961 | 0.000 | | |
| LOGSIZE | Low-KI | 0.045 | 0.524 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 0.128 | 0.033 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.184 | 0.061 | | |
| SUBSID | Low-KI | 0.275 | 0.034 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 0.021 | 0.872 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.201 | 0.228 | | |
| INNOF | Low-KI | 0.240 | 0.078 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 0.320 | 0.020 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.020 | 0.918 | | |
| INNOC | Low-KI | 0.336 | 0.208 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 0.033 | 0.892 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.460 | 0.055 | | |
| INNOW | Low-KI | 0.240 | 0.411 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 0.478 | 0.033 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.685 | 0.027 | | |
| COMP | Low-KI | 0.029 | 0.693 | | |
| | Medium-KI | -0.150 | 0.069 | | |
| | High-KI | 0.104 | 0.317 | | |
| PROFITVAR | Low-KI | 1.099 | 0.385 | | |
| | Medium-KI | 6.739 | 0.019 | | |
| | High-KI | 8.861 | 0.012 | | |
| Log likelihood | -1134.3 | | | | |
| Restricted log likelihood | -1168.8 | | | | |
| Likelihood ratio test | 0.000 | | | | |

| Dependent variable Independent variables | Model (i) QC (Quality circles) | | Model (ii) PJR (Planned job rotation) | |
|---|--------------------------------------|---------|---|---------|
| | Estimate | p-value | Estimate | p-value |
| | CONSTANT | -1.133 | 0.000 | -1.456 |
| LOW_KI | | | Benchmark | |
| MEDIUM_KI | 0.006 | 0.943 | 0.119 | 0.168 |
| HIGH_KI | 0.226 | 0.021 | 0.021 | 0.832 |
| LOGSIZE | 0.140 | 0.001 | 0.166 | 0.000 |
| SUBSID | 0.203 | 0.014 | 0.066 | 0.414 |
| INNOF | 0.293 | 0.001 | 0.248 | 0.004 |
| INNOC | 0.250 | 0.057 | 0.286 | 0.035 |
| INNOW | 0.184 | 0.202 | 0.412 | 0.004 |
| COMP | 0.005 | 0.908 | 0.070 | 0.136 |
| PROFITVAR | 1.152 | 0.314 | 1.108 | 0.362 |
| Log likelihood | -1122.42 | | -1045.62 | |
| Restricted log likelihood | -1152.94 | | -1073.64 | |
| Likelihood ratio test | 0.000 | | 0.000 | |

Conclusions

- There was an overall positive and significant relation between environmental uncertainty and the use of performance pay in the sense that the likelihood of adopting pay-for-performance increases with firms' ability to produce product innovations, in particular when the majority of the workforce is involved in the pay-for-performance schemes;
- ...and this relationship was found to be the strongest for firms affiliated to high knowledge-intensity sectors.

Conclusions

- Concerning the claim that delegation and environmental uncertainty are positively correlated, we found support for this to the extent that if firms face more uncertain environments, then they are more likely to use delegation of responsibility, conditional on the observation that delegation involves the majority of the workforce.
- Although the parameter for the measure of within-firm/industry variance in profitability turned out not to be significant (albeit positive) in explaining the use of delegation in firms, when using the ordered probit model, the opposite prediction from standard agency theory (a negative relation) found no support in the available evidence.

Conclusions

- Firms which are placed in environments characterized by high uncertainty restrict the activities that their employees can engage in less than those that are placed in low uncertainty environments... (as opposed to the Holmström-Milgrom hypothesis)
-we conjecture that "dynamic" firms often stimulate multitasking for reasons of knowledge-integration and sharing.



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Class work

- using the HBR case on “Innostat”
 - Read the article
 - Answer the related questions in small groups
 - We discuss the possible answers on class