Title
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Capital budgeting in multi-division firms:
Information, agency, and incentives*

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Abstract

We examine optimal capital allocation and managerial compensation in a firm with two investment projects (divisions) each run by a manager who can provide (i) (unverifiable) information about the quality of either or both projects and (ii) (unverifiable) access to valuable resources that can enhance the cash flows of either or both projects. In our model, each manager’s optimal compensation contract is linear in the cash flows of both projects. The firm optimally provides more capital, greater performance pay, and a lower salary to a division manager when she reports (truthfully, in equilibrium) that her project is higher quality. The firm generally underinvests in capital and managers underinvest resources in both projects (relative to the first-best level). We derive numerous cross-sectional predictions about the severity of the underinvestment problem, the sensitivity of investment in one division to the quality of investment opportunities in other divisions, and the relative importance of division-level and firm-level performance-based pay. We also compare investment policies in multi-division firms to single-division firms.
1 Introduction

The long-term health of a firm is determined by the quality of its investments. In a multi-division firm, capital is allocated to investment projects based on reports by division managers who have access to private information about project quality. The eventual success of any project may also require the input and cooperation of other managers who control access to valuable resources within the firm.\(^1\) The firm, however, may not be able to either independently verify the managers’ reports or monitor the actions of managers to ensure that they are deploying and sharing their resources appropriately. Thus, to secure its long-term health, the firm must provide incentives to ensure truthful information flow and the efficient use of its resources.

In this paper, we present a simple model to illustrate these information and incentive problems in a multi-division firm. Specifically, we consider a firm with unlimited access to capital and two investment projects. The optimal amount of capital to allocate to each project depends on its quality which is unknown to the firm’s headquarters. For each project, however, the firm can hire a risk-neutral manager with private information about her own project’s quality and potentially the other project’s quality. Once hired, each manager reports her information (not necessarily truthfully) to headquarters which then allocates capital according to the reports. The veracity of the reports is assumed to be non-verifiable and non-contractible. Once capital is allocated, each project’s cash flows can be enhanced by either or both managers by deploying critical resources under their control. The use of these resources is assumed to be privately costly, non-verifiable, and non-contractible.

To fix ideas, consider a firm with two divisions selling computer hardware and services. Each division has a manager with private information about the demand for its product obtained from extensive time in the field. The demand for hardware is related to the demand for services (and vice-versa) so each manager’s private information is relevant for determining the quality of investment projects in both divisions. Moreover,\(^1\) The fact that the success of investments in one division also depends on the resources available in other divisions may very well be the reason the divisions exist within the same firm. However, we do not explicitly analyze the boundaries of the firm in this paper; rather, we take as given the scope of the firm. We also assume the firm has access to capital but division managers do not, so the firm’s headquarters is indispensable to the production process. Gertner, Scharfstein, and Stein (1994) and Stein (1997) explicitly model the productive role of headquarters to help understand the costs and benefits of internal and external capital markets.
each manager controls resources that are valuable to both projects; for example, the hardware division manager may have relationships with buyers that can be exploited to sell services (and vice-versa). The use of this relationship capital with buyers is costly to the manager and likely to be non-verifiable by the firm.

The firm’s problem is to design managerial compensation contracts and a capital allocation schedule to encourage truthful reporting and the appropriate provision of critical resources. In our model, the optimal managerial compensation contract is linear in both divisions cash flows. Moreover, the firm provides more capital, greater performance-based pay, and a lower salary to a division manager when she reports (truthfully, in equilibrium) that her project is higher quality. The lower salary combined with higher performance-based pay effectively encourages truth telling by making the manager “buy” shares in the firm when she is very optimistic.

In general, the firm invests too little capital and managers allocate too few resources (relative to first-best) to both divisions and this underinvestment problem is more severe when both divisions have relatively poor investment opportunities, the asymmetric information between headquarters and both division managers is greater, division managers have more firm-specific human capital, and division managers have less performance-based pay. We also show that investment in one division is positively related to the quality of investment opportunities in other divisions and this relation is stronger when managerial resource sharing is more important, division managers have more discretion, and division managers have more firm-specific human capital. These predictions suggest refinements to the empirical literature examining the sensitivity of investment in one division to the cash flows and investment opportunities of other divisions in the firm (e.g., Lamont, 1997; Shin and Stulz, 1988). The excess sensitivity of investment to the cash flows of other divisions implies that multi-division firms will invest more (less) in a division than a single-division firm when other divisions in the firm are expected to perform well (poorly). Finally, we derive novel implications for the composition of division manager compensation contracts. For example, consistent with the empirical evidence in Bushman, et al. (1995) and Keating (1997), we show that division managers receive relatively more firm-level performance pay compared to division-level performance pay when they control resources that are more valuable in other divisions.

There is a large theoretical literature examining optimal capital budgeting mechanisms in single-division firms (e.g., Harris and Raviv, 1996; Holmstrom and Ricart i Costa, 1986; Zhang, 1997; Berkovitch and Israel, 1998; Bernardo, Cai, and Luo, 2001;
Garcia, 2001, 2002). This paper extends the analysis in Bernardo, Cai, and Luo (2001) to multi-division firms with productive and information interactions among divisions. Harris, Kriebel, and Raviv (1982) and Antle and Eppen (1985) present models of multi-division firms in which the division manager has private information about the production technology and a preference for capital. These papers do not consider optimal managerial compensation mechanisms but rather focus on the role of transfer prices in allocating capital across divisions. Harris and Raviv (1998) present a model of a single-division firm with multiple investment projects in which the division manager has private information and a preference for capital. Headquarters can learn the information through a costly audit. The optimal mechanism trades off the distortion due to decentralized information and managerial preference for capital against the costs of (endogenously determined) probabilistic auditing. As in Harris, Kriebel, and Raviv (1982), they find regions of under- and over-investment, whereas we find only under-investment. These different predictions follow from their assumption of exogenous compensation contracts (see Bernardo, Cai, and Luo, 2001). Finally, Rajan, Servaes, and Zingales (2000) propose a theoretical model of internal capital markets in which division managers exhibit rent-seeking behavior. In contrast, we consider agency costs due to asymmetric information and managerial moral hazard. Their model assumes managerial incentive schemes are exogenously determined whereas we derive jointly the optimal capital budgeting and managerial compensation mechanism.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents our model. Section 3 derives the first-best capital and managerial resource allocations to be used as a benchmark for the optimal second-best mechanism derived in Section 4. Section 5 discusses the important features of the second-best mechanism and provides directions for future empirical work on capital budgeting and managerial compensation. Section 6 examines the robustness of our capital underinvestment result to alternative specifications for managerial preferences. Section 7 concludes and gives direction for future research.
2 The model

We consider a firm run by a headquarters acting in the interest of the firm’s risk-neutral shareholders. Headquarters has unlimited access to capital and two investment projects. The optimal amount of capital to invest in each project depends on its quality, which is unknown to headquarters. Headquarters, however, can hire a risk-neutral manager for each project who can add value in two ways: first, they have information about their own project’s quality (which may also be relevant for determining the other project’s quality) and second, they have access to critical resources which can enhance the cash flows of either or both projects. The deployment of such resources is assumed to be privately costly to the manager. Examples of critical resources include key personnel, scarce and valuable assets (e.g., distribution network), or access to a relationship (e.g., suppliers and buyers). The classic interpretation of a critical resource in the principal-agent literature is the manager’s own effort. The key point is that the use of critical resources imposes costs on the manager who controls them (e.g., restricts its use in an alternative pet project, depletes valuable political capital) and cannot be contracted upon.\(^2\)

Once hired, each manager is asked to report (simultaneously) her private information to the headquarters, which then chooses the capital allocation to each project based on both reports. Specifically, we assume the project cash flows, denoted \(V_i\) for project \(i = 1, 2\), are given by:

\[
V_i = nk_i + (\alpha e_i + \beta e_{ij})k_i + (\delta t_i + \phi t_j)k_i - 0.5k_i^2 + \epsilon_i,
\]

where the subscript \(j = 2\) \((j = 1)\) when \(i = 1\) \((i = 2)\).

In this specification, \(k_i\) denotes the amount of capital allocated to project \(i\), \(t_i\) denotes the private information of manager \(i\), \(e_i\) denotes the resources employed by manager \(i\) on her own project \(i\), and \(e_{ij}\) denotes the resources employed by manager \(i\) on the other project \(j\). The “quality” of project 1 depends on both \(t_1\) and \(t_2\) where the parameters \(\delta \geq \phi \geq 0\) determine the relative importance of each manager’s information. For

\(^2\)Our model builds on Laffont and Tirole (1986, 1993) who also examine the fundamental tradeoff between moral hazard and asymmetric information. Laffont and Tirole consider the problem of regulating a single monopoly with unobserved efficiency and non-contractible effort. While many of our proof techniques follow their arguments closely, our model has many different features (e.g., multiple agents, capital budgeting) and we are concerned with a very different problem; namely, how information and resource spillovers across divisions affect capital allocations and incentives within a firm.
example, if $\delta = 1$ and $\phi = 0$ only the manager of project 1 has relevant information about the quality of project 1. The parameters $\alpha \geq \beta \geq 0$ reflect the potential impact of each manager’s resources on the project cash flows. The assumptions $\delta \geq \phi$ and $\alpha \geq \beta$ capture the idea that each manager has more impact, via information and resources under her control, on her own project.\footnote{In the special case $\phi = \beta = 0$ the two projects are completely independent and we can analyze each firm separately as in Bernardo, Cai, and Luo (2001).} The $\epsilon_i$ are independent noise terms with mean zero. Finally, $n \geq 0$ is a constant that ensures it is always worthwhile to invest some capital in each project in the socially efficient solution.

The cash flow specification, $V_i$, has many standard and intuitive features. Capital and managerial resources are complementary, implying that the marginal products of each are increasing in the levels of the other. This assumption will be important for the main results of the paper although the specific functional form is not important. Complementarity is a very reasonable assumption if, for example, one interprets managerial resources as effort. Furthermore, the marginal product of capital is increasing in the quality of the project, defined as $(\delta t_1 + \phi t_2)$, which is intuitively appealing and implies that the headquarters will want to allocate more capital to higher quality projects. The noise terms $\epsilon_i$ are independently distributed and capture underlying uncertainty about or measurement errors of project cash flows; we show below that since all agents are risk neutral the additive, mean zero noise terms have no effect on our results.

Headquarters does not know the information, $t_i$, but only knows that $t_i$ is drawn from the interval $[0, \bar{t}]$ according to a distribution $F_i(t)$ with density function $f_i(t)$, where $f_i(t) > 0 \forall t$. We assume that $t_1$ and $t_2$ are independently distributed and that the $t_i$ and $\epsilon_i$ are independently distributed. As is standard in the mechanism design literature, we also assume that the inverse of the hazard rate of $F_i(\cdot)$, denoted $\mu_i(t) = (1 - F_i(t))/f_i(t)$, is decreasing in $t$. It is well known that many common distributions such as the uniform and (truncated) normal distribution have increasing hazard rates.

The deployment of managerial resources imposes costs on the manager. For tractability, we assume a specific functional form for the cost function so that the division managers’ expected utilities are given by:

$$EU_i = Ew_i - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2)$$

where $w_i$ is her compensation, $Ew_i$ is her expected compensation, and the parameter $\gamma$ represents the manager’s private cost of providing (access to) resources under her
control. In Section 6, we examine the effect of including managerial preferences for capital. Finally, we assume that each manager has outside employment opportunities offering the reservation utility \( U \geq 0 \).

The headquarters’ problem is to maximize the expected payoff to shareholders, the residual claimants of the cash flows from the two projects. We assume there are no conflicts of interest between headquarters and shareholders because these issues are not central to our thesis. Headquarters can use two instruments, capital and compensation, to provide incentives for the division managers to tell the truth about project quality and provide appropriate access to resources under their control. Specifically, headquarters designs an optimal mechanism consisting of (i) a capital allocation policy \( k_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) \) depending on each of the division manager’s reports about project quality, \( \hat{t}_i \), and (ii) a compensation schedule \( w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, V_1, V_2) \) depending on both reports and both project outcomes. Importantly, we assume that the private information, \( t_i \), and the managers’ resource allocations, \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \), are not directly observable or verifiable by the headquarters ex post, therefore, contracts cannot be written on these directly.

The sequence of moves of the game is as follows:

date 0: Headquarters offers each manager a mechanism \( \{w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, V_1, V_2), k_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2)\} \)

date 1: The division managers simultaneously report \( \hat{t}_i \).

date 2: Headquarter allocates capital of \( k_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) \) to division \( i \).

date 3: Each division manager allocates resources to each project, \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \).

date 4: The project cash flows are realized and distributed to shareholders less the compensation \( w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, V_1, V_2) \) paid to each division manager.

An alternative specification for the cost function is \( 0.5\gamma(e_1 + e_{12})^2 \). However, this specification is problematic because it always gives corner solutions for the managerial resource allocations. In our cost specification, we assume no interactions between \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \). We have also considered other specifications which allow for interactions. For example, a more general specification is \( \gamma(e_1^2 + e_{12}^2 + \tau e_1 e_{12}) \), where \( \tau < 0 \) implies that \( e_1 \) and \( e_{12} \) are complementary and \( \tau > 0 \) implies that \( e_1 \) and \( e_{12} \) are substitutes. When \( e_1 \) and \( e_{12} \) are complementary, higher \( e_1 \) reduces the marginal cost of \( e_{12} \) and hence induces higher \( e_{12} \). Intuitively, one expects to see more “convergence” between divisions in this case. When \( e_1 \) and \( e_{12} \) are substitutes, higher \( e_1 \) increases the marginal cost of \( e_{12} \) and hence leads to lower \( e_{12} \). Intuitively, one expects to see more “divergence” between divisions. However, solving for the closed form solution in this general case is quite involved technically. In this paper, we focus on the simple case without cost interactions (i.e., \( \tau = 0 \)).
We make the standard assumption in these types of models that headquarters can commit to the capital allocation scheme offered to the managers at date 0. Absent a commitment device, it would be optimal for headquarters to allocate a different level of capital at date 2 than the amount offered at date 0. If the manager knew this, however, she would not report truthfully. Headquarters’ commitment could be the result of (un-modelled) reputational concerns if it intends to play such a game repeatedly (potentially with other managers) in the future. Finally, as is standard in all models with asymmetric information and risk-neutral agents, it is critical for what follows that each division manager observes her private information prior to date 0; otherwise, it would be optimal for the headquarters to sell the firm to the managers because there is no asymmetric information at the time of contracting and the risk-neutral managers are equally efficient at bearing the project quality risk as the risk-neutral headquarters. One plausible example of our timing assumption is that at the time each division manager is hired or promoted, she has knowledge of external factors (e.g., market demand, competitors’ strategies, industry trends, etc.) relevant to the cash flows of projects the firm may consider in the future. Another possibility is that the firm recently acquired one of the divisions and kept its manager to run it in the future. The firm must then choose the appropriate capital budget for the division and the manager’s compensation with the understanding that the manager already has private information about the quality of the division’s existing and potential investment projects.

3 Benchmark case: First-best outcome

To provide a benchmark, we first determine the socially efficient (first-best) solution of the model. The first-best maximizes the expected total surplus (expectation over $\epsilon_i$): 

$$\max_{k_1,k_2,e_{11},e_{12},e_{21}} E(\epsilon_1)V_1 + E(\epsilon_2)V_2 - 0.5\gamma(e_{11}^2 + e_{12}^2) - 0.5\gamma(e_{21}^2 + e_{22}^2).$$

Before we proceed, we make the following parameter assumptions throughout the paper:

(A1) $\gamma > \alpha^2 + \beta^2$;

(A2) $n \left[ 1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{\beta^2}{2(\gamma - \alpha^2)}} \right] \geq (\delta + \phi) \left[ \mu_0 + \bar{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\beta^2}{2(\gamma - \alpha^2)}} \right], \quad$
where $\mu_0 \equiv \max(\mu_1(0), \mu_2(0))$. Assumption (A1) requires that the cost to the manager of using critical resources ($\gamma$) is large relative to the marginal impacts ($\alpha$ and $\beta$) of managerial resources on the project cash flows. Technically, this ensures that the marginal cost of using managerial resources is increasing relatively fast so that the objective function of the optimal mechanism design program is concave. Assumption (A2) requires that (i) the expected net cash flow from each project is sufficiently high (large $n$); or (ii) asymmetric information is not too severe (small $\delta$ and $\phi$); or (iii) resource spillovers are relatively strong (large $\beta$ relative to $\gamma - \alpha^2$). Technically, Assumption (A2) ensures that the solution to the mechanism design program yields interior capital allocations ($k_i > 0$) and resource allocations ($e_i > 0$ and $e_{ij} > 0$). For example, if $n$ is large enough the firm will always want to allocate at least some capital and some profit-sharing to motivate managers to provide resources to each project. This assumption allows us to focus on the most interesting parameter region without having to consider cases where one or more choice variables is at a boundary. None of the qualitative results of the model are affected by this assumption.

**Proposition 1.** The first-best capital allocations and efforts are given by:

$$k_i^{FB} = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1}(n + \delta t_i + \phi t_j)$$

$$e_i^{FB} = \frac{\alpha k_i^{FB}}{\gamma}$$

$$e_{ji}^{FB} = \frac{\beta k_i^{FB}}{\gamma}$$

The proof is in the Appendix. It is intuitively clear and straightforward to show that, in the first-best outcome, the capital allocations and managerial resource allocations increase in $\alpha$ and $\beta$ (importance of managerial resources), increase in $\delta$ and $\phi$ (importance of project quality), increase in $t_1$ and $t_2$ (information about project quality), and decrease in $\gamma$ (manager’s private cost of resource provision). If headquarters could observe $t_1$ and $t_2$, and the managerial resource allocations, $e_i$ and $e_{ij}$, then it should write a complete contract with each division manager specifying the capital allocations and resource choices described in Proposition 1. The salary should be set to levels satisfying the division managers’ participation constraint.
4 Second-best outcome

We now solve for the headquarters’ optimal mechanism, under the assumption that it cannot contract on the managers’ private information, \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \), or the managers’ resource allocations, \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \). By the Revelation Principle we can, without loss of generality, restrict our attention to direct revelation mechanisms in which both division managers report their information truthfully. Thus, the headquarters’ mechanism design problem can be stated as:

\[
\max_{w_i,k_i,e_i,e_{ij}} \int_0^{t_1} \int_0^{t_2} \int_{\epsilon_1}^{\epsilon_2} \int_{\epsilon_1}^{\epsilon_2} [V_1 + V_2 - w_1 - w_2] dG_2 dG_1 dF_1 dF_2
\]

such that

(i) \( \{e_i, e_{ij}\} \in \arg \max E_{\{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2\}} w_i(t_1, t_2, V_1, V_2) - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) \), (IC1)

(ii) \( t_i \in \arg \max E_{t_j,\epsilon_1,\epsilon_2} U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) \), (IC2)

(iii) \( \forall \{t_1, t_2\}, \ E_{t_j,\epsilon_1,\epsilon_2} U_i(t_i, t_i) \geq \bar{U} \), (IR)

(iv) \( \forall \{t_1, t_2\}, \ k_i, e_i, e_{ij} \geq 0 \). (NN)

where \( G_i \) is the distribution of \( \epsilon_i \); \( E_{\{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2\}} \) denotes expectations over the random variables \( \{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2\} \); and \( U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) \) is the utility of manager \( i \) who reports \( \hat{t}_i \), has true type \( t_i \), and assumes that the other manager is reporting her true type. Specifically, \( U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) \equiv w_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j, V_1, V_2) - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) \), where \( V_i = V_i(t_1, t_2, k_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j), e_i, e_{ij}, e_j, e_{ji}, e_i) \) and all the resource allocations, \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \), are ex post optimal for the division managers.

The first incentive compatibility constraint (IC1) requires that the division managers’ resource allocations are ex post optimal. The second incentive compatibility constraint (IC2) requires that it is optimal for each division manager to report truthfully given that the other division manager will also report truthfully. The constraint (IR) is the standard interim individual rationality constraint, requiring that for each division manager type \( t_i \), her expected equilibrium payoff should be at least as large as her outside reservation utility, \( \bar{U} \). The last constraint (NN) requires that capital allocations and resource allocations are non-negative.
Proposition 2. The headquarters’ maximum expected payoff is

\[ E \Pi = 0.5E_{\{t_1, t_2\}} \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \delta \mu_1 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \delta \mu_2 - \phi \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} \right. \\
\left. + \gamma(\mu_1^2 + \mu_2^2)\left(\frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2}\right) \right] - 2\bar{U}. \]

The optimal mechanism can be implemented in dominant strategies by the following capital allocation policy and linear compensation scheme:

\[
k_i = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1}(n + \delta t_i + \phi t_j - \delta \mu_i - \phi \mu_j),
\]
\[
w_i = a_i + b_i V_i + b_{ij} V_j
\]

where

\[
b_i = 1 - \frac{\delta \gamma \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i}, \quad b_{ij} = 1 - \frac{\phi \gamma \mu_i}{\beta^2 k_j},
\]
\[
a_i = \bar{U} + \int_0^{t_1} (\delta b_i k_i + \phi b_{ij} k_j)ds + 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2)
\]
\[-b_i[nk_i + (\alpha e_i + \beta e_{ij})k_i + (\delta t_i + \phi t_j)k_i - 0.5k_i^2]
\]-b_{ij}[nk_j + (\alpha e_j + \beta e_{ij})k_j + (\delta t_j + \phi t_i)k_j - 0.5k_j^2].

The optimal resource allocations implemented are:

\[
e_i = \frac{\alpha k_i}{\gamma} - \frac{\delta \mu_i}{\alpha}, \quad e_{ij} = \frac{\beta k_j}{\gamma} - \frac{\phi \mu_i}{\beta}.
\]

The proof is in the Appendix.\(^5\)

The optimal mechanism can be implemented by a linear managerial compensation contract consisting of salaries, \(a_i\), shares of own-division cash flows, \(b_i\), and shares of other-division cash flows, \(b_{ij}\); and capital allocation schedules, \(k_i\). Moreover, since the optimal mechanism is implementable in dominant strategies, it is not in the interest of the division managers to collude even if they know each other’s private information.

\(^5\)Our proof follows closely the arguments of Laffont and Tirole (1986, 1993), although our model is more general (includes multiple agents and capital budgeting). Laffont and Tirole (1993, pp. 68-73 and pp. 171-172) provides sufficient conditions for the optimality of linear contracts in a model of the optimal regulation of a monopoly. See also McAfee and MacMillan (1986) and Holmstrom and Milgrom (1991) for the description of other settings in which the linear contract is optimal.
(as long as they cannot write binding side contracts). Finally, it is interesting to note that the optimal contract is unaffected by the noise terms, \( \epsilon \). The reason is that the managerial contract trades off the benefit of providing incentives to deploy resources efficiently against the costs of eliciting truthful reporting. In our model, the additive noise term does not affect either (i) the fundamental tradeoff between moral hazard and asymmetric information (e.g., if the noise term \( \epsilon_1 \equiv 0 \) and \( \epsilon_2 \equiv 0 \) and \( t_2 \) are fixed then observing \( V_1 \) will allow the headquarters to infer \( \alpha e_1 + \delta t_1 \) but not \( e_1 \) or \( t_1 \) separately) or (ii) the cost of providing incentives when all agents are risk-neutral. In contrast, noise terms do affect the fundamental tradeoff between providing incentives and risk-sharing in models with moral hazard and risk-averse agents and thus affect the optimal contract in these settings (e.g., the informativeness principle). We include the noise term because it shows that our results hold more generally (deterministic cash flow is a special case) and it is natural to assume that cash flows are subject to measurement errors and other random shocks.\(^6\)

The following corollary illustrates some important features of this mechanism.

**Corollary 1. Monotonicity and comparative statics**

(i) The mechanism \( \{a_i(t_1,t_2), b_i(t_1,t_2), b_{ij}(t_1,t_2), k_i(t_1,t_2)\} \) and managerial resource allocations, \( e_i(t_1,t_2) \) and \( e_{ij}(t_1,t_2) \), are continuous and monotonic over the whole domain \([0, \bar{t}] \times [0, \bar{t}]\). The profit-sharing rules, \( b_i(t_1,t_2) \) and \( b_{ij}(t_1,t_2) \), the capital allocations, \( k_i(t_1,t_2) \), and the managerial resource allocations, \( e_i(t_1,t_2) \) and \( e_{ij}(t_1,t_2) \) are non-decreasing in each argument. The salary \( a_i(t_1,t_2) \) is non-increasing in \( t_i \).

(ii) The capital allocations, \( k_i \), increase with \( \alpha, \beta, t_1, t_2, \) and \( n \); decrease with \( \gamma \); and increase with \( \delta \) (\( \phi \)) when \( t_i \) (\( t_j \)) is high and decrease when \( t_i \) (\( t_j \)) is low.

(iii) The performance-pay \( b_i \) (\( b_{ij} \)) increases with \( \alpha, \beta, t_1, t_2, \) and \( n \), and decreases with \( \gamma \) and \( \delta \); \( b_i \) increases (decreases) with \( \phi \) when \( t_j \) is high (low); and \( b_{ij} \) increases (decreases) with \( \delta \) when \( t_j \) is high (low).

(iv) The managerial resources \( e_i \) (\( e_{ij} \)) increase with \( \alpha, \beta, t_1, t_2, \) and \( n \), and decrease with \( \gamma \); \( e_i \) increases in \( \delta \) (\( \phi \)) when \( t_i \) (\( t_j \)) is high and decreases in \( \delta \) (\( \phi \)) when \( t_i \) (\( t_j \)) is low; and \( e_{ij} \) increases in \( \delta \) (\( \phi \)) when \( t_j \) (\( t_i \)) is high and decreases in \( \delta \) (\( \phi \)) when \( t_j \) (\( t_i \)) is low.

\(^6\)A more technical proof of the robustness of the linear contract to additive noise is given in Laffont and Tirole (1993, pp. 72-73) and the references therein.
The proof is in the Appendix. The optimal mechanism allocates more capital and greater profit-sharing to the manager when she reports a higher project quality. Moreover, more capital and greater profit-sharing is offered to manager 1 when manager 2 reports a higher project quality (and vice-versa). To induce truth-telling, the salary component of the compensation scheme is lower for higher reported project qualities.

The comparative statics for the optimal mechanism can be understood by considering the benefits and costs of providing capital and profit-sharing. On one hand, the marginal benefit of providing capital to project 1 increases in the project quality \( \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 \) and in the importance of managerial resources \( \alpha e_1 + \beta e_{21} \). Moreover, because managerial resources allocated to project 1 are given by \( e_1 = \frac{\alpha b_1 k_1}{\gamma} \) and \( e_{21} = \frac{\beta b_{21} k_1}{\gamma} \), the marginal benefit of providing profit-sharing increases in \( \alpha, \beta, \) and \( k_1 \), and decreases in \( \gamma \). On the other hand, the marginal cost of providing capital and managerial incentives depends on the cost of maintaining incentive compatibility. Specifically, we show in the proof of Proposition 2 in the Appendix (see equation (8)) that incentive compatibility for manager 1 (a similar condition holds for manager 2) requires:

\[
EU_1(t_1) = \bar{U} + \int_0^{t_1} \int_0^t (\delta b_1 k_1 + \phi b_{12} k_2) dF_2 ds_1.
\]

This states that to induce truth-telling, manager 1 of type \( t_1 \) must receive expected utility of \( EU_1(t_1) \) as in equation (1). The term \( \int_0^{t_1} \int_0^t (\delta b_1 k_1 + \phi b_{12} k_2) dF_2 ds_1 \) represents the type-\( t_1 \) manager’s information rents. These information rents are increasing in \( t_1 \). Truth-telling can be achieved with any contract yielding the manager \( EU_1(t_1) \); however, the marginal cost of providing managerial incentives, \( b_1 \) and \( b_{12} \), and capital, \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \), spills over into the information rents that must be paid to all managers with higher quality projects. This increases the marginal cost of offering profit-sharing and capital allocations (especially for low-\( t \) managers). Moreover, these costs are increasing when asymmetric information is more important (high \( \delta \) and \( \phi \)).

Thus, an increase in quality, \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \), increases (decreases) the marginal benefit (cost) of capital and profit-sharing; therefore, capital, managerial resources, and profit-sharing will increase. An increase in the impact of managerial resources, \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \), increases the marginal benefit of capital and profit-sharing; therefore, capital, managerial resources, and profit-sharing will increase. On the other hand, an increase in the resource cost parameter, \( \gamma \), increases the marginal cost of deploying managerial resources (and allocating capital since managerial resources and capital are complementary); therefore, capital, managerial resources, and profit-sharing decrease. Finally, an increase in the
importance of private information, $\delta$ and $\phi$, increases the marginal benefit of capital; however, it also raises the marginal cost of providing capital and managerial incentives, especially for low-quality projects. Thus, for high-project qualities the former effect dominates and capital allocations increase whereas for low-project qualities the latter effect dominates and capital allocations decrease.

The information rents specification in equation (1) highlights the importance of both asymmetric information and moral hazard in our model. If there is no asymmetric information ($\delta = \phi = 0$) headquarters can choose full profit-sharing and the first-best level of capital without increasing managerial information rents. Moreover, if there is no moral hazard ($\alpha = \beta = 0$) headquarters can implement first-best by choosing profit-shares equal to zero and setting capital to their first-best levels without increasing managerial information rents.

5 Interpretation and Empirical Implications

For what follows it will be useful to interpret the key parameters in our model: $\alpha$, $\beta$, $\delta$, $\phi$, and $\gamma$. The parameter $\alpha$ represents both the importance of unverifiable managerial resources for the manager's own project cash flows and the degree of complementarity between these resources and capital, thus we expect $\alpha$ to be greater, for example, when managers have firm-specific human capital. The parameter $\beta$ represents the importance of managerial resources for the cash flows of other projects in the firm, thus we expect $\beta$ to be smaller in more diversified firms. The parameters $\delta$ ($\phi$) represent the importance of the division manager's information for her own (other) project's cash flows. We expect $\delta$ to be greater when asymmetric information between headquarters and the managers is more severe (e.g., R&D on a new drug or technology), and $\phi$ to be greater when there are common factors affecting project cash flows (e.g., market demand in adjacent sales regions, industry trends). Finally, the parameter $\gamma$ represents the cost to the manager of using (unverifiable) resources under her control; however, an alternative and more empirically useful interpretation of $1/\gamma$ (more generally, the inverse of the second derivative of the cost function $1/C''(e)$) is the responsiveness of unverifiable actions to an increase in incentives (Milgrom and Roberts, 1992). In this interpretation, $\gamma$ is higher when the manager has less discretion over job tasks.
5.1 Investment in Capital and Managerial Resources

The following implication demonstrates that in the second-best mechanism there is underinvestment in capital and underutilization of managerial resources.

Implication 1:

(i) The capital allocation is lower than the first-best solution. For each division, the underinvestment in capital is most severe for low-quality projects, becomes less severe when either manager’s report increases, and vanishes for the highest possible quality projects. For a given project quality, the underinvestment decreases in $\gamma$, and increases in $\alpha, \beta, \delta$ and $\phi$.

(ii) Managerial resources are lower than the first-best solution. For each division, the underinvestment in resources is most severe for low-quality projects, becomes less severe when either manager’s report increases, and vanishes for the highest possible quality projects. For a given project quality, the underinvestment of resources in the manager’s own project decreases in $\gamma$, increases in $\beta, \delta$ and $\phi$, and is ambiguous in $\alpha$; and the underinvestment of resources in the other project decreases in $\gamma$, increases in $\alpha, \delta$ and $\phi$, and is ambiguous in $\beta$.

The proof is in the Appendix. As we demonstrated above, incentive compatibility (in the second-best mechanism) requires that when the firm increases its capital allocation to any manager it must also increase the information rents to all higher-type managers. This makes the marginal cost of providing capital high, especially for low-quality projects. Consequently, there is underinvestment of capital in the optimal mechanism (relative to the first-best) and the underinvestment problem is more severe for lower quality projects. By allocating less capital and less profit-sharing to low-quality projects, headquarters reduces the incentive costs for high-quality projects where it matters most. From equation (1) we see that the marginal cost of providing capital is more severe when $\delta$ and $\phi$ are larger, thus the underinvestment problem is more severe when there is more asymmetric information. Moreover, the marginal cost of providing capital is higher when profit-sharing is higher and the latter increases in $\alpha$ and $\beta$ and decreases $\gamma$. Thus, the underinvestment problem is more severe when managerial resources are more important and when the manager has more discretion. Finally, managerial resource allocations are increasing in the manager’s profit share and the capital allocated to each project. However, since the second-best mechanism provides too little capital
and less-than-full profit-sharing, there is also underinvestment in managerial resources relative to the first-best.

Our underinvestment result contrasts with Harris and Raviv (1996, 1998) and Harris, Kreibel, and Raviv (1982), who found that overinvestment occurs for the lowest quality projects while underinvestment occurs for the highest quality projects. Furthermore, our result is consistent with the evidence that firms adopt higher hurdle rates of return than predicted by standard finance theory (Poterba and Summers, 1992). Several other theories are consistent with this prediction including, for example, real options models in which there is value to waiting to invest in a project. However, our model makes further predictions which distinguish our theory from the others. For example, we predict that the underinvestment problem in a given division is more severe when (i) asymmetric information between headquarters and the division manager is greater (larger $\delta$ and $\phi$), (ii) the division is more human-capital intensive (larger $\alpha$), and (iii) the other divisions in the firm are performing poorly. For example, we predict that the difference between observed hurdle rates and predicted hurdle rates will be large for companies with high R&D expenses because project managers/scientists in these firms typically have considerable private information and firm-specific human capital.

Moreover, the underinvestment problem is associated with the division manager receiving less performance-based pay and managers of other divisions in the firm receiving less performance-based pay. Consistent with this prediction, Palia (2000) finds empirical evidence that underinvestment in relatively strong divisions of diversified firms is less severe when the division managers have a higher percentage of the firm’s equity in options and shares. Interestingly, in our model division managers receive greater performance-based pay because they manage higher quality projects, not necessarily that greater performance-based pay causes firm value to increase. Thus, we argue that one must be careful interpreting results such as those found in Palia (2000) since the theory does not suggest an obvious causal link between performance-pay and eventual performance.

\footnote{We demonstrate in an earlier paper (Bernardo, Cai, and Luo, 2001) that this difference results from their assumption of exogenous compensation contracts.}
Implication 2:

(i) The capital allocated to each project is more sensitive to the other manager’s information in the second-best solution than in the first-best solution.

(ii) The difference in sensitivity to the other manager’s information is stronger for higher $\alpha$, $\beta$, and $\phi$; and lower $\gamma$.

The proof is in the Appendix. The intuition for result (i) is that positive information about $t_2$ has two effects on the capital allocated to project 1: first, high $t_2$ also implies that project 1 has better prospects so more capital is allocated to it, and second, since manager 2 is a higher-type the firm optimally provides higher-powered incentives for her to provide resources to both projects. The extra resources deployed by manager 2 in project 1 increases the marginal product of capital in project 1. The first effect is present in both the first-best and second-best mechanisms whereas the second effect provides a motivation for increasing the capital allocation to project 1 not present in the first-best solution. Consequently, the optimal amount of capital to allocate to project 1 is more sensitive to the quality (cash flows) of project 2 in the second-best mechanism.

The sensitivity of investment in one division to the cash flows and investment opportunities in other divisions in the firm has been studied extensively (see, e.g, Lamont, 1997; Shin and Stulz, 1998; Rajan, Servaes, and Zingales, 2000). For example, Shin and Stulz argue that we should expect to see investment in one division falling as the investment opportunities (measured by the industry’s Tobin’s q) in other divisions improve if internal capital markets are redirecting capital to its best use. They find, however, that investment-to-asset ratios in divisions of conglomerate firms are relatively insensitive (slightly negative) to the investment opportunities of other (ostensibly unrelated) divisions and interpret this to mean that internal capital markets are inefficient. A key element of their argument is that the firm is capital constrained. By contrast, in our model the firm does not face a capital constraint and, as a result, we argue that we should expect investment in one division to be insensitive to the investment opportunities of other divisions if these other divisions’ investment opportunities are independent (as Shin and Stulz observed). Moreover, we predict the coefficient in a Shin-Stulz type regression of the investment-to-asset ratio in one division on the investment opportunities in another division should be greater when divisions are more related (larger $\beta$ and $\phi$), managers have more discretion (smaller $\gamma$), and managers have more firm-specific human capital (larger $\alpha$).
5.2 Managerial Compensation

For what follows, we re-write the manager’s wage contract:

\[ w_i = a_i + b_i V_i + b_{ij} V_j \equiv a_i + b_{ij} (V_i + V_j) + (b_i - b_{ij}) V_i. \]

Thus, we can interpret the coefficient \( b_{ij} \) as the division manager’s firm-level performance-based pay and \( (b_i - b_{ij}) \) as the division manager’s division-level performance-based pay when \( (b_i - b_{ij}) > 0 \). The following implication follows immediately from Corollary 1:

**Implication 3:** Division managers receive greater firm-level performance pay when
(i) project quality is higher (higher \( t_i \)), (ii) managerial resources are more valuable in their own division (larger \( \alpha \)), (iii) managerial resources are more valuable in other divisions (larger \( \beta \)), and (iv) division managers have more discretion (smaller \( \gamma \)).

The following implication considers the use of division-level performance pay both in absolute terms and in relation to firm-level performance pay (i.e., \( \frac{b_i - b_{ij}}{b_{ij}} \)).

**Implication 4:** Holding division size constant \( (k_1 = k_2) \), division managers receive less division-level performance pay in both absolute terms and relative to firm-level performance pay when (i) managerial resources are more valuable in other divisions (larger \( \beta \)) and (ii) the division manager’s own private information is more important for her project’s cash flow (larger \( \delta \)).

The proof is in the Appendix. The intuition for part (i) is that when managerial resources are valuable in many divisions the firm wants to provide incentives for the manager to share these resources by de-emphasizing division-level performance pay. The intuition for part (ii) is that when \( \delta \) is large, information rents are high to induce truthful reports on the division manager’s own division thus the firm again de-emphasizes division-level performance pay. Our implication is consistent with the empirical work of Bushman, et al. (1995) who find that the use of firm-level performance pay is increasing when divisions (groups) are more related whereas unrelated division manager pay is more closely related to division performance. Keating (1997) also finds that the use of firm accounting metrics in division manager compensation is positively related to the impact the manager being evaluated has on other divisions in the firm.
**Implication 5:** Firm-level performance-based pay is positively correlated across divisions.

The proof is in the Appendix. The intuition for this result is as follows. If, for example, manager 1 reports a high $t_1$ then both projects have higher quality and the firm optimally allocates more capital to both divisions. Because managerial resources and capital are complementary this increases the marginal benefit to the firm of providing incentives for resource sharing (increased $b_{ij}$) by offering firm-level performance pay. Consistent with this result, Palia (2000) finds that firm-level performance pay (measured by the share of firm equity) is positively correlated across divisions.

### 5.3 Comparison of multi-division firm to single-division firm

We now compare capital allocations in single-division and multi-division firms. To do so, we assume that the single division firm enjoys some market-average resource spillover $e_{21}$ and can only contract on its own net cash flows ($b_{12} = 0$). Moreover, it does not observe a precise report $\hat{t}_2$ but observes some market signal of $t_2$, $\underline{t}_2$. As an example of the resource spillover, $e_{21}$, consider a firm consisting of an auto assembly division and an auto engine division that splits into two single-division firms. Even though the two separate firms may not be able to co-ordinate and utilize the resource spillovers as well as the headquarters of the two-division firm can, they probably maintain close business relationships through market transactions and some of the spillovers should still be realized.

Under these assumptions, it can be shown that the optimal capital allocation in the second-best mechanism for the single-division firm is given by:

$$k_1^1 = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - \alpha^2}(n + \delta(t_1 - \mu_1) + \phi\underline{t}_2 + e_{21}).$$

We are interested in comparing investment policies in a multi-division firm to a single-division firm holding project quality constant. We implement this strategy by holding $t_1$ fixed and assuming the multi-division firm receives a report $\hat{t}_2 = t_2$. Comparing investment in the single-division firm, $k_1^1$, to the investment in division 1 of the multi-division firm, $k_1$ (in Proposition 2), we get the following implication.
Implication 6: The multi-division firm invests more (less) in a division than a single-division firm when other divisions in the multi-division firm are performing well (poorly). On average, the multi-division firm invests more than the single-division firm when managerial resources are more valuable in other divisions (larger $\beta$).

The proof is in the Appendix. The first statement follows closely from our Implication 2. The intuition for the second statement is that each division in the multi-division firm derives benefits from using resources in the other division (and these benefits increase in $\beta$) but also pays greater information rents in order to get the manager of the other division to report truthfully. For large $\beta$, the resource benefits exceed the information rent costs.

6 Alternative Managerial Preferences

We now check the robustness of our results to alternative specifications for managerial preferences. In our model, we chose to consider the importance of asymmetric information and managerial moral hazard. Another well-accepted and reasonable conflict that might emerge between shareholders and management is managerial preference for capital. This may reflect enhanced reputation from controlling bigger projects, a preference for “empire-building,” or greater perquisite consumption that comes from running a larger business. One reasonable specification is to assume that the manager derives utility from monetary rewards and from controlling large (high $k$), high quality (high $t$) projects so that managerial preferences are given by:

$$EU_i = Ew_i - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) + \eta(\delta t_i + \phi t_j)k_i,$$

where $\eta \geq 0$ measures the degree of managerial preferences for capital. Our original model corresponds to the special case of $\eta = 0$.

With these modified managerial preferences and everything else being identical to our earlier model, it is straightforward to show that the first-best capital allocation is:

$$k_i^{FB} = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1}[n + (1 + \eta)\delta t_i + (1 + \eta)\phi t_j].$$

The first-best capital allocation increases in the managerial preference for capital, $\eta$, because the headquarters can internalize the manager’s preference perfectly by reducing her salary (negative compensation may be needed).
With asymmetric information and moral hazard, it can be shown that maintaining incentive compatibility in the second-best mechanism requires:

\[ EU_i(t_i) = \bar{U} + \int_0^{t_i} \int_0^i (\delta(b_i + \eta)k_i + \phi b_{ij} k_j) dF_j ds_i. \]

Comparing this to equation (1) we see that the marginal cost of providing capital increases with \( \eta \). Applying the same method of solving for the optimal mechanism, the second-best capital allocation is given by:

\[ k_i = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1} [n + (1 + \eta)\delta(t_i - \mu_i) + (1 + \eta)\phi t_j - \phi \mu_j]. \]

Thus, underinvestment in the second-best solution is

\[ k_i^{FB} - k_i = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1} [(1 + \eta)\delta \mu_i + \phi \mu_j]. \]

Clearly, \( k_i^{FB} - k_i \) is increasing in \( \eta \). Moreover, since

\[ \frac{\partial k_i}{\partial t_j} - \frac{\partial k_i^{FB}}{\partial t_j} = -(1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1} \phi \frac{d\mu_j}{dt_j} > 0, \]

from Implication 2 we can see that the (over-)sensitivity of investment in one division to the other manager’s information (relative to the first best) is unchanged with preferences for capital. Summarizing we have the following result:

**Proposition 3.** Managerial preference for capital exacerbates the underinvestment problem but has no effect on the cross-division (over-)sensitivity of investment to information (relative to the first-best solution).

The discussion above indicates that managerial preference for capital has only secondary effects on capital budgeting, and its effects operate through its impact on the optimal incentive scheme to control for asymmetric information and moral hazard.\(^8\) This point can be made clearer if we modify the manager’s preferences for capital and ignore the project “quality”:

\[ EU_i = Ew_i - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) + \eta k_i. \]

\(^8\)A similar conclusion holds when managers have preferences for managing a relatively large and high-quality division.
In this case, managers have no control over the “control benefits” \( (\eta k_i) \), thus the costs of maintaining incentive compatibility are identical to our main model in which managers have no preferences for capital. With this specification, headquarters can internalize managerial preferences for capital perfectly even in the second-best solution and the underinvestment problem will not be exacerbated.

7 Conclusions

Firms make capital budgeting decisions based on the reports of project (division) managers. In many cases, these reports can neither be independently verified before significant capital investments are made nor contracted upon ex post. Moreover, the eventual success of these projects may also depend on the (unverifiable) energy and resources devoted to it by managers throughout the firm. In such cases, the firm must put in place explicit incentives for managers to provide truthful reports and to utilize and share resources efficiently.

In this paper, we examined the extent to which capital budgeting and managerial compensation mechanisms can mitigate these information and incentive problems in a multi-division firm. In the optimal mechanism, firms underinvest in capital and managers underinvest resources in all divisions. Moreover, this underinvestment problem in one division is more severe if the division has poor prospects, the other divisions in the firm have poor prospects, asymmetric information between headquarters and all division managers is more severe, and managers have a preference for capital (i.e., managing larger divisions).

We believe our model is best suited to cases where division managers request capital infrequently (e.g., R&D on a new drug). In such cases, compensation schemes such as shares in the firm (with restrictions on selling) or stock options (with a long vesting period) are likely to provide powerful incentives for managers to report truthfully their private information and allocate efficiently the resources under their control. However, our model is not well-suited to cases in which division managers request capital frequently. In such cases, reputation effects provide powerful incentives because the firm can always deny the manager future capital requests if her earlier analysis is off the mark. In future research, we would like to determine the extent to which such reputation effects substitute for explicit managerial incentives in the capital budgeting process.

There are many other potential directions for future research. In our model, the
multi-division firm is always better off than a portfolio of single-division firms because it can contract on more variables and thus mitigate incentive problems at a lower cost. However, in reality there may be countervailing costs to firm scope (e.g., managerial rent-seeking behavior) which are important for determining the optimal boundary of the firm. It would also be interesting to examine the optimal degree of centralization in a resource-constrained firm. For example, suppose each division manager has preferences for capital and multiple investment projects. If the firm allocates, say, $1/N$ resources to each of the $N$ divisions then each division manager has the incentive to choose the best projects in her division. However, if the capital budgeting process is centralized, the firm might incur potentially large contracting costs to induce truthful reports from division managers about the appropriate allocation across divisions. Thus, the optimal degree of centralization trades-off *intra-division* efficiency against *inter-division* efficiency.
Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1. In the first-best, headquarters maximizes total expected surplus:

\[ nk_1 + (\alpha e_1 + \beta e_{21})k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2)k_1 - 0.5k_1^2 \]
\[ + nk_2 + (\alpha e_2 + \beta e_{12})k_2 + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1)k_2 - 0.5k_2^2 \]
\[ - 0.5\gamma(e_1^2 + e_{12}^2) - 0.5\gamma(e_2^2 + e_{21}^2). \]

The first-order (necessary) conditions are (taking derivatives with respect to \(k_i, e_i,\) and \(e_{ij}\), respectively):

\[ 0 = n + \alpha e_i + \beta e_{ji} + \delta t_i + \phi t_j - k_i, \]
\[ 0 = \alpha k_i - \gamma e_i, \]
\[ 0 = \beta k_j - \gamma e_{ij}, \]

which yields the result. The second-order condition for the total surplus-maximization problem requires that the Hessian matrix of second derivatives of the objective function is negative semi-definite which is easy to verify under Assumption (A1).

Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 2. Our proof strategy for finding the optimal Bayesian-Nash mechanism follows Laffont and Tirole (1986) and McAfee and McMillan (1987). The proof consists of two steps. In Step 1, we relax the IC constraints in such a way that it is possible to derive the optimal capital allocation and compensation mechanism and hence the headquarters’ expected payoff. Since this relaxed program has fewer constraints than the original program, the headquarters’ expected payoff in this relaxed program provides an upper bound of the value attainable in the original program. In Step 2, we consider a narrower class of mechanisms than in the original program. Specifically, we focus on mechanisms with linear compensation schemes. Clearly the headquarters’ expected payoff in this class provides a lower bound of the value attainable in the original program. We then demonstrate that this lower bound is identical to the upper bound derived in Step 1 and thus the headquarters’ optimal mechanism can be implemented with the linear compensation scheme.

Step 1: Let \(e^*_i(t_1, t_2)\) and \(e^*_{ij}(t_1, t_2)\) represent the headquarters’ desired resource allocations for truthful reports \(\{t_1, t_2\}\). Suppose that headquarters could observe the actual values of \(\alpha e_i + \delta t_i\) and \(\beta e_{ij} + \phi t_i\) for both division managers and suppose manager \(j\) reports \(\hat{t}_j\). If division manager \(i\) reports \(\hat{t}_i\), headquarters wishes to see \(\alpha e^*_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \delta \hat{t}_i\) and \(\beta e^*_{ij}(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \phi \hat{t}_i\); otherwise, she knows that one of the division managers has lied about her information or has not followed the recommended resource allocation policies, and hence will punish (with arbitrary severity) the managers for their deviations. Thus, conditional on manager \(j\) reporting \(\hat{t}_j\), if division manager \(i\) reports \(\hat{t}_i\), she will have to choose \(\hat{e}_i\) and \(\hat{e}_{ij}\) to be consistent with her report; that is, \(\alpha \hat{e}_i + \delta \hat{t}_i = \alpha e^*_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \delta \hat{t}_i\) and \(\beta \hat{e}_{ij} + \phi \hat{t}_i = \beta e^*_{ij}(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \phi \hat{t}_i\), which yields:
\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{e}_i &= e_i^*(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \delta(\hat{t}_i - t_i)/\alpha, \\
\hat{e}_{ij} &= e_{ij}^*(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \phi(\hat{t}_i - t_i)/\beta.
\end{align*}
\] (2)

Note that by Equation 2, if the division managers report truthfully \(\{\hat{t}_1 = t_1, \hat{t}_2 = t_2\}\), they must follow headquarters’ recommended resource allocation policies. Thus the (IC1) constraint is completely relaxed.

Denote the headquarters’ original problem as (P1) and now consider the following problem (P2):

\[
\max_{w_i, k_i, e_i, e_{ij}} \int_0^{\hat{t}} \int_0^{\hat{t}} \int_{e_{i1}}^{e_{i2}} \int_{e_{j1}}^{e_{j2}} [V_1 + V_2 - w_1 - w_2] dG_2 dG_1 dF_1 dF_2
\]

such that

(i) \( t_i \in \arg \max E_{\{t_j, e_{1j}, e_{2j}\}} U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) \) \hspace{1cm} (IC2)

(ii) \( \forall \{t_1, t_2\}, \ E_{\{t_j, e_{1j}, e_{2j}\}} U_i(t_i, t_i) \geq \bar{U} \) \hspace{1cm} (IR)

(iii) \( \forall \{t_1, t_2\}, \ k_i, e_i, e_{ij} \geq 0 \) \hspace{1cm} (NN)

where \( U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) = w_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j, V_1, V_2) - 0.5\gamma(e_1^2 + e_2^2) \) is the utility to manager \( i \) who reports \( \hat{t}_i \), has true type \( t_i \), and assumes that the other manager is reporting her true type; \( V_i = V_i(t_1, t_2, k_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j), e_i, e_{ij}, e_j, e_{ji}, e_{ij}) \); and \( e_i = \hat{e}_i, e_{ij} = \hat{e}_{ij}, e_j = e_j(\hat{t}_i, t_j) \), and \( e_{ji} = e_{ji}(\hat{t}_i, t_j) \).

Program (P2) replaces the (IC1) constraint of Program (P1) with Equation 2 and incorporates it in the (IC2) constraint, so (P2) is a relaxed program of (P1). Ignoring the (NN) constraint for the moment, we now solve (P2).

Given Equation 2, for any true types \( t_1, t_2 \) and any reports \( \hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2 \), the values of cash flows \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \) can be expressed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
V_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_1) &= nk_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + (\alpha e_1^*(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \beta e_{21}(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2))k_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) \\
&\quad + (\delta \hat{t}_1 + \phi \hat{t}_2)k_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) - 0.5k_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2)^2 + e_1 \\
V_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_2) &= nk_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + (\alpha e_2^2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) + \beta e_{12}(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2))k_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) \\
&\quad + (\delta \hat{t}_2 + \phi \hat{t}_1)k_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2) - 0.5k_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2)^2 + e_2.
\end{align*}
\]

Thus the cash flows are independent of the true types \( t_1, t_2 \), which is critical for what follows. Note also that the compensations may be written as \( w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, V_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_1), V_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_2)) \) so we can write

\[
E_{\{e_1, e_2\}}[w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2)] = E_{\{e_1, e_2\}}[w_i(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, V_1(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_1), V_2(\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, e_2))].
\]

The (IC2) constraint in (P2) now states that conditional on \( \hat{t}_j = t_j \),
\[ t_i \in \arg \max EU_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) \]

\[ = E_{t_j}[E_{c_t, c_i}[w_t(\hat{t}_i, t_j)]] - 0.5\gamma E_{t_j}\left[e_j^\ast(\hat{t}_i, t_j) + \frac{\delta(\hat{t}_i - t_i)}{\alpha}\right]^2 - 0.5\gamma E_{t_j}\left[e_j^\ast(\hat{t}_i, \hat{t}_j) + \frac{\phi(\hat{t}_i - t_i)}{\beta}\right]^2. \]

By the Envelope Theorem, the (IC2) condition implies

\[
\frac{dEU_i(t_i, t_i)}{dt_i} = \left. \frac{\partial EU_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i)}{\partial t_i} \right|_{t_i = t_i} + \left. \frac{\partial EU_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i)}{\partial \hat{t}_i} \right|_{\hat{t}_i = t_i}.
\]

Integration yields

\[
EU_i(t_i) = U_i(0) + \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \left( \frac{\delta\gamma e_j^\ast(s, t_j)}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi\gamma e_j^\ast(s, t_j)}{\beta} \right) dF_j dF_i.
\]

By the (IR) constraint, it must be that \( U_i(0) = \hat{U} \). Taking the expectation with respect to \( t_i \) yields

\[
EU_i = \hat{U} + \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \left( \frac{\delta\gamma e_j^\ast(s, t_j)}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi\gamma e_j^\ast(s, t_j)}{\beta} \right) \mu_i dF_j dF_i
\]

where \( \mu_i = (1 - F_i)/f_i \).

Substituting the expressions for wages, \( EW_i = EU_i + 0.5\gamma E[e_i^{*2} + e_j^{*2}] \), into the expected payoff yields

\[
EII = \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \left\{ nk_1 + (\alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{s1}^*)k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2)k_1 - 0.5k_1^2 - U_1 - 0.5\gamma(e_2^{*2} + e_{21}^{*2}) 
\]

\[ + nk_2 + (\alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{s2}^*)k_2 + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1)k_2 - 0.5k_2^2 - U_2 - 0.5\gamma(e_2^{*2} + e_{21}^{*2}) \right\} dF_1 dF_2
\]

\[
= \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \int_0^{\hat{t}_i} \left( nk_1 + (\alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{s1}^*)k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2)k_1 - 0.5k_1^2 + nk_2 + (\alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{s2}^*)k_2 
\]

\[ + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1)k_2 - 0.5k_2^2 - 0.5\gamma(e_1^{*2} + e_{12}^{*2}) - 0.5\gamma(e_2^{*2} + e_{21}^{*2}) 
\]

\[ - \left( \frac{\delta\gamma e_j^\ast}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi\gamma e_j^\ast}{\beta} \right) \mu_i - \left( \frac{\delta\gamma e_j^\ast}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi\gamma e_j^\ast}{\beta} \right) \mu_j \right\} dF_1 dF_2 - 2\hat{U}. \]

Point-wise differentiation of the integrand gives the following first order conditions

\[
0 = n + \alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{s1}^* + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - k_1, \]

\[
0 = \alpha k_1 - \gamma e_i^* - \frac{\delta\gamma}{\alpha} \mu_i, \]

\[
0 = \beta k_1 - \gamma e_{s1}^* - \frac{\phi\gamma}{\beta} \mu_j. \]
Thus,

\[ k_i = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1}(n + \delta t_i + \phi t_j - \delta \mu_i - \phi \mu_j), \]

\[ e_i^* = \gamma^{-1}(\delta k_i - \frac{\phi}{\alpha} \mu_i), \]

\[ e_{ij}^* = \gamma^{-1}(\beta k_j - \frac{\phi}{\beta} \mu_i). \]  

(6)

The s.o.c. holds for \( \gamma > \alpha^2 + \beta^2 \). The maximized integrand in equation (4) is given by

\[ M_{11,11} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \delta \mu_1 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \delta \mu_2 - \phi \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} \right. 
\left. + \gamma(\mu_1^2 + \mu_2^2)(\frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2}) \right]. \]

It is easy to check that \( \{k_i, e_i^*, e_{ij}^*\} \) are all increasing in \((t_i, t_j)\). By standard arguments (Mirrlees, 1971), the (IC2) constraint is satisfied. Plugging Equation 6 into \( Eh \), the headquarters’ expected payoff can now be expressed as

\[ Eh^{P2} = 0.5E_{(t_1, t_2)} \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \delta \mu_1 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} \right. 
\left. + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \delta \mu_2 - \phi \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \gamma(\mu_1^2 + \mu_2^2)(\frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2}) \right] - 2U. \]  

(7)

Under Assumption (A2), it can be checked that the solution \( \{k_i, e_i^*, e_{ij}^*\} \) given by Equation 6 is strictly positive for all \((t_1, t_2)\). This means the (NN) constraint is satisfied and non-binding.

To prove that Equation 6 gives an optimal mechanism for Program (P2), we need to show that it dominates mechanisms under which the (NN) constraint is at least partly binding. This is necessary because a binding (NN) constraint may relax the (IC) constraints, as the set of possible deviations for the managers is reduced. We can immediately rule out the boundary case \( k_i = 0 \) since capital is critical to project cash flows.

Consider an arbitrary mechanism such that \( e_1 = 0 \) and all other \( e \)'s are strictly positive. For this mechanism, let us completely relax the (IC1) and (IC2) constraints for manager 1. That is, he must report truthfully \( t_1 \) and follow the recommended \( e_{12}^* \). Clearly no information rents are paid to manager 1. Manager 2's incentive constraints can be handled as before, which leads to maximizing

\[ Eh = \int_0^t \int_0^t \left\{ nk_1 + \beta e_{21} k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2)k_1 - 0.5k_1^2 + nk_2 + (\alpha e_2 + \beta e_{12})k_2 \right. 
\left. + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1)k_2 - 0.5k_2^2 - 0.5\gamma e_{12}^2 - 0.5\gamma(e_2^2 + e_{21}^2) - (\frac{\delta e_{21}}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi e_{21}}{\beta})k_2 \right\} dF_1 dF_2 - 2U. \]

It can be easily checked that the maximized integrand in this case is
Therefore, Equation 6 gives an optimal mechanism for Program (P2), where 

\[ E_{\{1,1\}} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \gamma \mu_2^2 \left( \frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2} \right) \right]. \]

Similarly we can derive the maximized integrands in other cases involving binding (NN) constraints:

\[ M_{11,10} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \delta \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \phi \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \gamma \mu_1^2 \left( \frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2} \right) \right], \]

\[ M_{11,01} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \delta \mu_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \phi \mu_1)^2}{1 - \beta^2/\gamma} + \gamma \mu_1^2 \left( \frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2} \right) \right], \]

\[ M_{10,11} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1 - \phi \mu_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma} + \gamma \mu_2^2 \left( \frac{\delta^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\phi^2}{\beta^2} \right) \right], \]

\[ M_{10,10} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma} \right], \]

\[ M_{10,01} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1)^2}{1 - \beta^2/\gamma} \right], \]

\[ M_{01,10} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1)^2}{1 - \alpha^2/\gamma - \beta^2/\gamma} \right], \]

\[ M_{01,01} = 0.5 \left[ \frac{(n + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2)^2}{1 - \beta^2/\gamma} + \frac{(n + \delta t_2 + \phi t_1)^2}{1 - \beta^2/\gamma} \right], \]

where a 0 in the subscript indicates a binding (NN) constraint, for example \( E_{\{1,1\}} \) means that only \( e_{21} = 0 \) and \( E_{\{10,01\}} \) means \( e_{12} = 0 \) and \( e_2 = 0 \).

Under Assumption (A2), it can be checked that \( M_{11,11} \) is greater than all other \( M \)'s listed above for all \( (t_1, t_2) \). Since \( M_{11,11} \) is globally optimal, it is also greater than any combination of other \( M \)'s mixed over different regions of \( (t_1, t_2) \). This implies that the mechanism given by Equation 6 gives greater expected payoff to the headquarters than any other mechanism that involves binding (NN) constraints. Therefore, Equation 6 gives an optimal mechanism for Program (P2).

Since (P2) is a relaxed program of (P1), we must have

\[ E_{\Pi^{P2}} \geq E_{\Pi^{P1}} \]

where \( E_{\Pi^{P2}} \) is given by Equation 7 and \( E_{\Pi^{P1}} \) is the headquarters’ maximum expected payoff in the original program (P1).

Step 2: Now we go back to the original program (P1), but restrict our attention to a class of mechanisms with linear compensation rules:

\[ w_i = a_i + b_i \hat{v}_i + b_{ij} \hat{v}_j \]

where \( \{a_i, b_i, b_{ij}\} \) are functions of the reported types \( \{\hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2\} \). Substituting \( E_{(\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2})} w_i \) into manager \( i \)'s utility function gives:
\[ U_i = a_i + b_i \left[ nk_i + (\alpha e_i + \beta e_{ji})k_i + (\delta t_i + \phi t_j)k_i - 0.5k_i^2 \right] \\
+ b_{ij} \left[ nk_j + (\alpha e_j + \beta e_{ij})k_j + (\delta t_j + \phi t_i)k_j - 0.5k_j^2 \right] - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2). \]

The first order conditions with respect to \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \) are:

\[
\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial e_i} = \alpha b_i k_i - \gamma e_i = 0, \\
\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial e_{ij}} = \beta b_{ij} k_j - \gamma e_{ij} = 0.
\]

Ignoring the (NN) constraint for now, we have \( e_i = \alpha b_i k_i / \gamma \) and \( e_{ij} = \beta b_{ij} k_j \). This is the (IC1) constraint in the class of linear mechanisms.

The division managers’ choices of \( \{e_i, e_{ij}\} \) are again independent of the true types \( t_i \). The (IC2) constraint can be rewritten as:

\[
t_i \in \arg \max E U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i) = W_i(\hat{t}_i) + t_i E_{\hat{t}_j} [\delta b_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j) k_i(\hat{t}_i, t_j) + \phi b_{ij}(\hat{t}_i, t_j) k_j(\hat{t}_i, t_j)].
\]

where \( W_i(\hat{t}_i) \) represents the terms in manager \( i \)'s expected utility that only depend on her own report, \( \hat{t}_i \).

The Envelope Theorem implies

\[
\frac{dE U_i(t_i, \hat{t}_i)}{dt_i} = E_{\hat{t}_j} [\delta b_i(t_i, t_j) k_i(t_i, t_j) + \phi b_{ij}(t_i, t_j) k_j(t_i, t_j)].
\]

Integrating the above expression and imposing \( E U_i(0) = \bar{U} \) from the (IR) constraint yields:

\[
E U_i(t_i) = \bar{U} + \int_{0}^{t_i} \int_{0}^{s_i} (\delta b_i k_i + \phi b_{ij} k_j) dF_j dS_i. \tag{8}
\]

Integrating by parts over \( t_i \) yields:

\[
E U_i = \bar{U} + \int_{0}^{t_i} \int_{0}^{s_i} (\delta b_i k_i + \phi b_{ij} k_j) \mu_i dF_i dF_j = \bar{U} + \int_{0}^{t_i} \int_{0}^{s_i} \left( \frac{\delta \gamma e_i}{\alpha} + \frac{\delta \gamma e_{ij}}{\beta} \right) \mu_i dF_i dF_j
\]

where the last equality follows from optimal choices of \( e_i \) and \( e_{ij} \) by manager \( i \).

Substituting \( E w_i = E U_i + 0.5\gamma E (e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) \) into EII gives

\[
E II = \int_{0}^{t_i} \int_{0}^{s_i} \left\{ nk_1 + (\alpha e_1 + \beta e_{21}) k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2) k_1 - 0.5k_i^2 - U_1 - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{12}^2)
+ nk_2 + (\alpha e_2 + \beta e_{12}) k_2 + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1) k_2 - 0.5k_j^2 - U_2 - 0.5\gamma(e_i^2 + e_{21}^2) \right\} dF_1 dF_2
\]

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\[ = \int_0^t \int_0^t \left\{ E_{e_1} V_1 + E_{e_2} V_2 - 0.5 \gamma (e_1^2 + e_{12}^2) - 0.5 \gamma (e_2^2 + e_{21}^2) - \left( \frac{\delta \gamma e_1}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi \gamma e_{12}}{\beta} \right) \mu_1 - \left( \frac{\delta \gamma e_2}{\alpha} + \frac{\phi \gamma e_{21}}{\beta} \right) \mu_2 \right\} dF_1 dF_2 - 2 \bar{U}. \]

Note that this is identical to the objective function in problem (P2). Therefore, point-wise differentiation of the integrand will give identical first-order conditions as Equation 5, leading to the same solution \( \{ k_i, e_i^*, e_{ij}^* \} \) as Equation 6. To derive other parts of the optimal linear mechanism, we have

\[ b_i = \frac{\gamma e_i^*}{\alpha k_i} = 1 - \frac{\delta \gamma \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i} \quad \text{and} \quad b_{ij} = \frac{\gamma e_{ij}^*}{\beta k_j} = 1 - \frac{\phi \gamma \mu_i}{\beta^2 k_j}. \]

The salary portion of the compensation can be recovered from

\[ a_i = U + \int_0^{t_i} (\delta b_i k_i + \phi b_{ij} k_j) ds + 0.5 \gamma (e_i^2 + e_{ij}^2) \]
\[- b_i \left[ nk_i + (\alpha e_i^* + \beta e_{ij}^*) k_i + (\delta t_i + \phi t_j) k_i - 0.5 k_i^2 \right] \]
\[- b_{ij} \left[ nk_j + (\alpha e_{ij}^* + \beta e_{ij}^*) k_j + (\delta t_j + \phi t_i) k_j - 0.5 k_j^2 \right]. \]

Since this optimal linear mechanism has the same solution \( \{ k_i, e_i^*, e_{ij}^* \} \) as the optimal solution to problem (P2), we have

\[ E \Pi^L = E \Pi^{P2}, \]

where \( E \Pi^L \) is the headquarters' expected payoff in the optimal linear mechanism.

On the other hand, note that the optimal linear mechanism satisfies all the constraints in (P1) hence it is a feasible mechanism of (P1) so it follows that

\[ E \Pi^L \leq E \Pi^{P1}. \]

Combining these two, we have \( E \Pi^{P2} \leq E \Pi^{P1} \). But Step 1 establishes that \( E \Pi^{P2} \geq E \Pi^{P1} \). Therefore, \( E \Pi^{P2} = E \Pi^{P1} \), so the optimal linear mechanism is an optimal mechanism in Program (P1).

So far we have studied the Bayesian Nash implementation of the headquarters’ mechanism design problem. Since the optimal mechanism is monotonic in both \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \), by the results of Mookherjee and Reichelstein (1992), it can also be implemented in dominant strategies. This completes the proof. Q.E.D.

**Proof of Corollary 1:** The monotonicity of the capital allocations, managerial resource allocations, and performance-pay are immediate after taking the derivative of each with respect to \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \).

We now prove that salary \( a_1(t_1, t_2) \) is decreasing in \( t_1 \) (a similar argument holds for \( a_2(t_1, t_2) \) decreasing in \( t_2 \)). Consider the two values, \( M_1 \) and \( M_2 \), given by:

\[ M_1 = \int_0^{t_1} (\delta b_1 k_1) ds_1 - b_1 \left[ nk_1 + (\alpha e_1 + \beta e_{21}) k_1 + (\delta t_1 + \phi t_2) k_1 - 0.5 k_1^2 \right] + 0.5 \gamma e_1^2, \]
\[ M_2 = \int_0^{t_1} (\delta b_1 k_2) ds_1 - b_1 \left[ nk_2 + (\alpha e_2 + \beta e_{12}) k_2 + (\delta t_2 + \phi t_1) k_2 - 0.5 k_2^2 \right] + 0.5 \gamma e_2^2. \]
Since the sum of $M_1$ and $M_2$ is equal to the salary (less a constant $U$), it suffices to show that $M_1$ and $M_2$ decrease with $t_1$. Note that $M_1$ can be written as

$$M_1 = \int_0^{t_1} (\delta b_1 k_1) ds_1 - \delta b_1 k_1 t_1 - 0.5b_1 k_1 (n + \beta e_{21} + \phi t_2 - \delta t_1).$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\partial M_1}{\partial t_1} = -0.5 \frac{\partial (b_1 k_1)}{\partial t_1} (n + \beta e_{21} + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2) - 0.5b_1 k_1 \frac{\partial e_{21}}{\partial t_1} + 0.5\delta b_1 k_1$$

$$< -0.5b_1 \left[ \frac{\partial k_1}{\partial t_1} (n + \beta e_{21} + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2) - \delta k_1 \right]$$

$$= -0.5b_1 (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1} [\beta e_{21} + \delta \mu_1 + \phi \mu_2 - (n + \beta e_{21} + \delta t_1 + \phi t_2) \frac{d \mu_1}{d t_1}]$$

$$< 0$$

where the first inequality follows from the monotonicity of $b_1$ and $e_{21}$, and the second inequality follows from the monotonicity of $\mu_1$ and Assumptions (A1) and (A2). Similarly we can show that $M_2$ also decreases with $t_1$. Q.E.D.

**Proof of Implication 1:**

Using the solutions for the first-best capital allocation, $k_i^{FB}$, and the second-best capital allocation, $k_i$, from Propositions 1 and 2 we have:

$$k_1^{FB} - k_1 = (1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma})^{-1} (\delta \mu_1 + \phi \mu_2) > 0$$

implying capital underinvestment in the second-best mechanism. Since $\frac{d \mu_1}{d t_1} < 0$ and $\frac{d \mu_2}{d t_2} < 0$, $k_1^{FB} - k_1$ decreases with $t_1$ and $t_2$. The comparative statics are obvious after taking the partial derivatives with respect to the parameters. Similarly, we can prove the properties of $k_2^{FB} - k_2$.

Note also that:

$$e_1^{FB} - e_1 = \frac{\alpha}{\gamma} (k_1^{FB} - k_1) + (\frac{\delta}{\alpha}) \mu_1 > 0.$$

All the results for underinvestment in resources deployed in the manager’s own project, $e_1$, follow immediately. Similar arguments apply to $e_2$, $e_{12}$ and $e_{21}$. Q.E.D.

**Proof of Implication 2:**

Using the solutions for the first-best capital allocation, $k_i^{FB}$, and the second-best capital allocation, $k_i$, from Propositions 1 and 2 we have:

$$\frac{\partial (k_i - k_i^{FB})}{\partial t_j} = \frac{\phi (-\mu'_j)}{1 - \alpha^2 / \gamma - \beta^2 / \gamma} > 0$$

where the inequality results from the monotonicity of $\mu_j$ and Assumption (A1). This proves part (i). Part (ii) follows from taking the derivative of the right-hand side with respect to each parameter. Q.E.D.
Proof of Implication 4:

If \( k_1 = k_2 = k \) then the division-level performance pay is given by:

\[
b_i - b_{ij} = \frac{\phi \gamma \mu_i}{\beta^2 k_j} - \frac{\delta \gamma \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i} = \frac{\gamma \mu_i \phi}{k} \left( \frac{1}{\beta^2} - \frac{\delta}{\alpha^2} \right).
\]

The desired result is clear when \((b_i - b_{ij}) > 0\) and you substitute the second-best capital allocation from Proposition 2 into the above.

If \( k_1 = k_2 = k \) then the relative division-level performance pay compared to firm-level performance pay is given by:

\[
\frac{b_i - b_{ij}}{b_{ij}} = \frac{b_i}{b_{ij}} - 1 = 1 - \frac{\delta \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i} - 1.
\]

Taking logs of the first term on the right hand side yields:

\[
\ln \left( 1 - \frac{\delta \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i} \right) = \ln(1 - \frac{\delta \gamma \mu_i}{\alpha^2 k_i}) - \ln(1 - \frac{\phi \gamma \mu_i}{\beta^2 k_i}) \approx \frac{\gamma \mu_i \phi}{k} \left( \frac{1}{\beta^2} - \frac{\delta}{\alpha^2} \right)
\]

where the approximation is valid if \( n \) is significantly large. Since this last expression is identical to the above, the same comparative statics results hold. Q.E.D.

Proof of Implication 5:

We need to show that \( b_{ij} \) and \( b_{ji} \) are positively correlated. For what follows, we use the fact: Cov\((p(x), q(x)) > 0\) if \( p'(x), q'(x) > 0 \). Denote \( y_{ij} = \frac{\mu_i}{n + \delta(t_j - \mu_j) + \phi(t_i - \mu_i)} \). It suffices to show that \( y_{ij} \) and \( y_{ji} \) are positively correlated since Corr\((b_{ij}, b_{ji}) = Corr(y_{ij}, y_{ji}) \). Given \( t_i, y_{ij} \) and \( y_{ji} \) increase with \( t_j \). Using our fact above we have \( E(y_{ij} | t_i) > E(y_{ij} | t_i)E(y_{ji} | t_i) \). Also, since \( E(y_{ij} | t_i) \) and \( E(y_{ji} | t_i) \) increase with \( t_i \), \( E(E(y_{ij} | t_i)E(y_{ji} | t_i)) > E(E(y_{ij} | t_i)E(y_{ji} | t_i)). \) Therefore,

\[
E(y_{ij} | y_{ji}) > E(E(y_{ij} | y_{ji} | t_i)) > E(E(y_{ij} | t_i)E(y_{ji} | t_i))
\]

implying \( y_{ij} \) and \( y_{ji} \) are positively correlated. Q.E.D.

Proof of Implication 6: For the first statement, note that:

\[
k_1 - k_1^1 = \frac{n + \delta(t_1 - \mu_1) + \phi(t_2 - \mu_2(t_2))}{1 - \alpha^2} - \frac{n + \delta(t_1 - \mu_1) + \phi(t_2 + \epsilon_2) - \beta^2}{1 - \alpha^2}
\]

which increases in \( t_2 \). If there exists \( t_2^{crit} \in (0, \bar{t}) \) such that \( k_1 - k_1^1 = 0 \), then clearly \( k_1 \) is larger (smaller) than \( k_1^1 \) when \( t_2 \) is larger (smaller) than \( t_2^{crit} \).

For the second statement, note that \( E_t \{ k_1 - k_1^1 \} \) increases in \( \beta \). If there exists \( \beta^{crit} > 0 \) such that \( E_t \{ k_1 - k_1^1 \} = 0 \) then \( E_t \{ k_1 \} \) is larger (smaller) than \( E_t \{ k_1^1 \} \) when \( \beta \) is larger (smaller) than \( \beta^{crit} \). Q.E.D.
References


