

Information Technology and the Growing Inequality in Managerial Compensation

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Abstract

Three of the most fundamental changes in US corporations since the early 1970s have been (1) the apparent increase in the importance of *organizational capital* in production, (2) the increase in managerial income inequality and pay-performance sensitivity and (3) the secular decrease in labor market reallocation. Our paper develops a simple explanation for these changes: a shift in the composition of productivity growth away from vintage-specific to general growth, brought about by the arrival and gradual adoption of information technology since the 1970s. This shift has stimulated the accumulation of organizational capital in existing firms and reduced the need for reallocating workers to new firms. We characterize the optimal managerial compensation contract when firms accumulate organizational capital but risk-averse managers cannot commit to staying in the match. A calibrated version of the model reproduces the increase in managerial compensation inequality and the increased sensitivity of pay to performance in the data over the last three decades. In addition, we show that firms in industries with less vintage-specific growth and hence more more compensation inequality have higher Tobin's q , as predicted by our model.

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1 Introduction

Three of the most fundamental changes in US corporations since the early 1970s have been (1) the apparent increase in the importance of *organizational capital* in production, (2) the increase in managerial income inequality and pay-performance sensitivity and (3) the secular decrease in labor market reallocation. Our paper provides an explanation for these changes.

The early 1970s marked the start of the information technology revolution. As its efficiency improved and its price dropped, the use of IT spread, and its adoption affected all sectors of the economy. By now, there is overwhelming evidence that computers have fundamentally altered firms' business processes, relationships with customers and suppliers, and internal organization.¹ For example, Wal-Mart experienced tremendous productivity gains from economies of scale in warehouse logistics and purchasing, electronic data interchange and wireless bar code scanning. Brynjolfsson, Hitt and Yang (2002) cite Robert Solow who notes "The technology that went into what Wal-Mart did was not brand new and not especially at the technology frontiers, but when it was combined with the firm's managerial and organizational innovations, the impact was huge. We don't look enough at organizational innovation." The literature convincingly argues that the gradual adoption of IT, a General Purpose Technology (Bresnahan and Trachtenberg (1996)), has increased the productivity of successful establishments of all vintages, not only the new ones.

There is indirect evidence that organizational capital is more important in production than three decades ago from the stock market's valuation of US corporations (see e.g. Hall (2001)). Moreover, organizational capital and IT are complementary inputs, and investment in IT has increased substantially since the 1970's (Bresnahan et al. (2002)). Finally, there is direct evidence of the link between IT and organizational capital and the increased importance of organizational capital. Using micro data, Bloom, Sadun and VanReenen (2008) explain the productivity miracle in the US and its absence in Europe by means of a US advantage in IT that is 'primarily due to its people management practices on promotions, rewards, hiring and firing'.

We model the IT revolution as a shift in the composition of productivity growth away from vintage-specific growth, which only affects new establishments, to more general productivity growth, which makes all establishments more productive. This shift allows successful organizations to grow larger because their organizational capital effectively depreciates at a slower rate. The growth composition shift allows our model to match the secular decline in the job reallocation rate in the US economy since the early 1970s, as documented by Davis, Haltiwanger, Jarmin and Miranda (2006) and Faberman (2006). In the model, the vintage-specific growth rate is the depreciation rate of organizational capital in existing firms. It enables the successful firms to become larger. This results in fewer firm exits and less labor reallocation from old to new firms. The declining volatility

¹E.g., Brynjolfsson and Hitt (1997, 2000), Bresnahan, Brynjolfsson and Hitt (2002), and an entire volume of contributions on organizational capital in the new economy by Corrado, Haltiwanger and Sichel, eds (2005).

of firm growth rates, documented by Davis et al. (2006) for the entire universe of privately-held and publicly-traded firms, is consistent with this decline. Our model also implies that the fraction of output produced in older establishments increased, also consistent with the findings of Davis et al. (2006). We attribute the change in the composition of productivity growth, the key driving force in our model, to the diffusion of information technology, but there could be other contributing factors, like a change in the composition of the work force, that have contributed to this shift.

The change in productivity growth composition and the widespread accumulation of organizational capital that resulted creates a new problem for successful firms: how to distribute the rents from organizational capital? The firms' managers have de facto ownership rights on organizational capital, which makes it different from physical capital. They can leave and take some of this capital to a new firm. Our paper studies the distribution of organizational rents between the owners and the managers in such an environment.

In the data, the dispersion of managerial compensation across firms is much wider now than 35 years ago. In large, successful firms, which accumulate a lot of organizational capital, managerial compensation has increased substantially, while it has not in small firms. We propose an equilibrium theory that ties the accumulation of organizational capital, induced by the shift in the composition of productivity growth, to managerial compensation. A calibrated version of the model can quantitatively account for a large share of these changes in the US economy.

The key element of the model is the optimal managerial compensation contract. This contract insures the risk averse manager against shocks to the firm's productivity. Insurance is provided because the manager can only work for one firm while the owner invests in a diversified portfolio of firms. But there is only partial insurance because the manager can quit and transfer some of the organizational capital to a new firm. The degree of portability of organizational capital governs the value of the manager's outside option and determines how much risk sharing can be sustained between the manager and the owner. Dunne, Foster, Haltiwanger and Troske (2004) document a sizeable increase in within-industry between-establishment wage dispersion, while Frydman and Saks (2006)'s data show that this increase in dispersion is even higher for executives. A calibrated version of our model can match most of the increase in compensation inequality and pay-performance sensitivity if we assume half of the organizational capital is portable. However, this calibration can only match half of the observed increase in Tobin's q . Lowering the portability increases Tobin's q by more, but reduces the impact on compensation inequality. On the other hand, if this capital is not portable, or equivalently, if managers can commit to staying in the match, then the change in productivity growth composition has no impact on compensation inequality.

In closely related work, Gabaix and Landier (2008) explain the increased dispersion of CEO compensation in a matching model with an exogenously changing size distribution. Our paper

endogenizes both the evolution of the size and the managerial compensation distribution and explicitly models the compensation contract.

Why does the growth composition shift increase the dispersion of managerial compensation? As long as firms are small, the manager’s outside option constraint does not bind, and the optimal contract prescribes constant managerial compensation (relative to aggregate output). However, when a firm’s size exceeds a threshold, optimal management compensation is increasing in the firm’s organizational capital. The increased accumulation of organizational capital, resulting from the growth composition change, improves the manager’s outside option in successful firms. To retain the manager, the owner of the firm increases compensation in response to high productivity. At the aggregate level, the change in the firm size distribution that results from the growth composition shift triggers an endogenous shift from low-powered to high-powered incentive compensation contracts. Such a shift seems consistent with the current prevalence of pay-for-performance employment contracts compared to the 1970s. If the manager is more impatient than the owner, this shift is further amplified.

Our model has several “out-of-sample” implications which are borne out in the data. First, our model also matches the sensitivity of log compensation to log size in the U.S. (Edmans, Gabaix and Landier (2007)). Second, our model matches the cross-sectional correlation between valuation and wage dispersion in the data. We identify high vintage-specific growth industries as those with low managerial wage dispersion. As predicted by the model, we find that these industries accumulate less organizational capital, using Tobin’s q as our measure. The effects are large. We find that a one standard deviation increase in wage dispersion increases Tobin’s q by 6 basis points using a broad measure of wage dispersion, 14 basis points for a one standard deviation increase in executive wage compensation dispersion. These effects of executive wage compensation are stronger in industries with more intangibles. Third, within-industry wage inequality is much higher in industries with higher frequency of computer usage (Wheeler (2005)) and hence lower vintage-specific growth.

Our model combines the technology side of the vintage capital model of Atkeson and Kehoe (2005, 2007) with an optimal compensation contract for managers. The literature on optimal compensation contracts builds on Harris and Holmstrom (1982)’s seminal paper on optimal long-term wage contracts with learning about the manager’s productivity. As in Harris and Holmstrom (1982), the compensation dynamics display downward rigidity, but the latter is generated by the inability of managers to commit to staying in the firm. There is scope for insurance when at least some of the organizational capital is specific to the match between the owner and the manager. Neal (1995) provides empirical evidence on the importance of match-specific capital. Related applications of optimal compensation contracts in finance are Berk, Stanton and Zechner (2005), Clementi, Cooley and Wang (2006), DeMarzo and Fishman (2007), Clementi and Hopenhayn (2002), and Albuquerque and Hopenhayn (2004). More recent work includes Falato and Kadyrzhanova (2008),

DeMarzo and Sannikov (2006), Biais, Mariotti and Rochet (2007), Opp (2007), He (2007), DeMarzo, Fishman, He and Wang (2007) and Parlour and Walden (2008). Most of this work examines the optimal capital structure of the firm in the presence of moral hazard in partial equilibrium. Instead, our paper examines the optimal management compensation contract in the presence of portable organizational capital in a general equilibrium model. We use these contracts to connect changes in the distribution of firm size to changes in the distribution of managerial compensation. In addition, we derive a theoretical link between the size and book-to-market ratio of a firm and its labor compensation contracts. A related literature studies the relationship of firm characteristics such as leverage and riskiness of cash-flows to firm valuation in dynamic settings (Gomes and Livdan (2004), Gomes and Schmid (2007), Hennessy and Whited (2007), Strebulaev (2007), Gourio (2007), Chen (2008)).

A large literature documents the increase of wage inequality in the US in the last three decades and its relation to technological change (Violante (2002), Guvenen and Kuruscu (2007), Autor, Katz and Kearny (2007), and Acemoglu (2002) for a survey). Our paper contributes to this literature by generating an endogenous switch to high-powered incentives contracts and by connecting the changing distribution of payouts to workers to the payouts to the owners of the capital stock, and ultimately to firm value. With the exception of Merz and Yabsiv (2003), Papanikolaou (2007), Bazdrech and Lin (2008) and Parlour and Walden (2008), the link between labor compensation and firm value is usually ignored in the literature. Parlour and Walden (2008) also characterize optimal compensation contracts in the presence of moral hazard and they derive predictions relating workers compensation, firm productivity, firm size and firm value.

Our paper is organized as follows. After discussing the related literature, Section 2 defines the technology side of the model, describes the compensation contract between manager and owner, defines an equilibrium with a continuum of managers and firms, and defines a steady-state growth path. Section 3 highlights the properties of the optimal compensation contract along a steady-state growth path. Its dynamics are fully captured by the current and the highest-ever productivity level of the firm. Managerial compensation increases whenever a new maximum productivity level is reached. These two state variables have a natural interpretation as the *size* and *market-to-book ratio* of the firm. Our model ties these two characteristics to the value of the firm and the compensation of its management. Section 4 describes the calibration of the model. In our model, the IT revolution is a gradual increase in general productivity growth, and a commensurate reduction in vintage-specific productivity growth; the total growth rate is kept constant. The magnitude of this compositional shift is calibrated to match the observed decline in labor reallocation. A second key parameter is the portability of organizational capital. It is calibrated to match the increase in income inequality. Interestingly, the model's cross-sectional distribution of managerial pay, post-IT, shares many features with the observed distribution: it is skewed, fat-tailed, and has the correct relation with

firm size. The model also delivers an increase in pay-performance sensitivity similar to the one in the data. Section 5 provides supporting evidence from the time series. Finally, Section 6 provides additional cross-sectional evidence for the effect of managerial compensation inequality on valuations, which lends further support to the model we propose.

2 Model

We set up a model with a fixed population (mass 1) of *managers*. Each manager is matched to an owner to form an *establishment*.² The formation of a new establishment incurs a one-time fixed cost S_t . Establishments accumulate knowledge as long as the match lasts. We refer to this stock of knowledge as *organizational capital* A_t . This organizational capital affects the technology of production; it is a third factor of production besides physical capital and unskilled labor, earning *organizational rents*.

We assume that a part of the establishment's organizational capital is embodied in the manager. It is neither fully match-specific, as in Atkeson and Kehoe (2005), nor fully manager-specific. The main innovation of our work is to find the optimal division of organizational rents between the owner and the manager, as governed by an optimal long-term risk-sharing contract in the spirit of Harris and Holmstrom (1982). We solve for the optimal contract recursively (e.g., Thomas and Worall (1988) and Kocherlakota (1996)), but we use a different state variable from the one commonly used in the literature. The optimal contract maximizes the present discounted value of the organizational rents flowing to the owner subject to the manager's promise keeping constraint and a sequence of participation constraints that reflect the manager's inability to commit to the current match. We deviate from Krueger and Uhlig (2005) by assuming that the owner has limited liability. Separation occurs whenever there is no joint surplus left in the match. Upon separation, a fraction $0 < \phi < 1$ of the organizational capital can be transferred to the manager's next match, while the remainder is destroyed. If the manager could commit to staying in the match as is the case in Atkeson and Kehoe (2005) or if none of the organizational capital was destroyed when the manager leaves, then the changing composition of productivity growth has no effect on the distribution of compensation.

The market value of the corporate sector in the model is the value of the physical capital stock plus the value of all claims to that part of organizational rents that accrues to the owner. We start by setting up the model and defining a steady-state growth path. In Section 4, we trace out the *transition* between two steady-state growth paths, which captures the advent and gradual adoption of information technology (IT).

²The manager can be interpreted as the entire management team.

2.1 Technology

On the technology side, our model follows Atkeson and Kehoe (2005). Each establishment belongs to a vintage s . An establishment of vintage s at time t was born at $t-s$. An establishment operates a vintage-specific technology that uses unskilled labor (l_t), physical capital (k_t), and organizational capital (A_t) as its inputs. Output generated with this technology is y_t :

$$y_t = z_t (A_t)^{1-\nu} F(k_t, l_t)^\nu.$$

Following Lucas (1978), ν is the ‘span of control’ parameter of the manager. It governs the decreasing returns to scale at the establishment level.

There are two sources of productivity growth, which we label general and vintage-specific growth. The *general productivity* level z_t grows at a deterministic and constant rate g_z :

$$z_t = (1 + g_z)z_{t-1}.$$

General productivity growth affects establishments of all vintages alike. General productivity growth is often referred to as *disembodied* technical change. In addition, it is *skill-neutral* because it affects all three production inputs symmetrically.

Following Hopenhayn and Rogerson (1993), the match-specific level of organizational capital, A_t , follows an exogenous process. It is hit by random shocks ε , drawn from a distribution Γ :³

$$\log A_{t+1} = \log A_t + \log \varepsilon_{t+1}. \tag{2.1}$$

We do not explicitly model the learning process that underlies the accumulation process of organizational capital. However, the ε shocks can be interpreted as productivity gains derived from active or passive learning, from matching, or from adoption of new technologies in existing firms Atkeson and Kehoe (2005). Additionally, they can be interpreted as reduced-form for heterogeneity across managers, or for the outcomes from good or bad decisions made by the manager. Bertrand and Schoar (2003), Bennedsen, Perez-Gonzalez and Wolfenzon (2007), and Bloom and Van Reenen (2006) show that heterogeneity across managers leads to heterogeneity in firm outcomes. Jovanovic and Nyarko (1982) explicitly model learning-by-doing and McGrattan and Prescott (2007) and Carlin, Chowdhry and Garmaise (2008) explicitly model the accumulation of intangible capital. A new establishment can always start with a *blue print* or *frontier* technology level θ_t : $A_t \geq \theta_t$.

³In principle, this distribution could depend on the vintage s . For example, older vintages could have shocks that are less volatile. We abstract from this source of heterogeneity for simplicity.

The productivity level of the blue print grows at a deterministic and constant rate g_θ :

$$\theta_t = (1 + g_\theta)\theta_{t-1}.$$

This *vintage-specific growth* is often referred to as *embodied* technical change.

2.2 Contract Between Owner and Manager

Owner There is a stand-in owner who is perfectly diversified.⁴ He maximizes the expected present discounted value of aggregate payouts from all establishments D_t using a discount rate r_t :

$$E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} e^{-\sum_{s=0}^t r_s} D_t = V_t + K_t. \quad (2.2)$$

This object is the value of the aggregate capital stock $V_t + K_t$, which consists of the physical capital K_t and the owner's residual claim to the aggregate rents from organizational capital, denoted V_t . The owner's value of organizational capital is the expected present discounted value of the aggregate stream of cash flows $\{\Pi_t\}$ that not already claimed by the other factors:

$$\Pi_t = Y_t - W_t L_t - R_t K_t - C_t - S_t^a, \quad (2.3)$$

where $W_t L_t$ is the aggregate compensation of unskilled labor, $R_t K_t$ that of physical capital, C_t the aggregate compensation of all the managers of the establishments, and $S_t^a \equiv N_t S_t$ the total sunk costs incurred for starting N_t new establishments. Since we assume that the owner also owns the physical capital stock K_t , aggregate payouts to the owner D_t are the sum of organizational rents and the factor payments to physical capital less physical investment:

$$D_t = \Pi_t + R_t K_t - I_t, \quad \forall t.$$

Since the sunk cost is lost, value-added is defined as $Y_t - S_t^a$.

An individual establishment's organizational rents (before sunk costs and physical capital income) accruing to its owners are defined with lower-case letters:

$$\pi_t = y_t - W_t l_t - R_t k_t - c_t.$$

Manager The owner offers the manager a complete contingent contract $\{c_t(h^t), \beta_t(h^t)\}$ at the start of the match, where $c_t(h^t)$ is the compensation of the manager as a function of the history of shocks $h^t = (\varepsilon_t, \varepsilon_{t-1}, \dots)$ and $\beta_t(h^t)$ is a governs whether the match is dissolved or not in history

⁴Equivalently, there is a continuum of atomless and identical owners.

h^t . This contract cannot be renegotiated. The manager can always accept a job at another establishment, while the owner has limited liability.

The optimal contract maximizes the total expected payoff of the owner subject to delivering initial utility v_0 to the manager:

$$v_0(h^0) = E_{h^0} \left[\sum_{\tau=0}^{\infty} e^{-\rho_m \tau} \frac{c_\tau (h^\tau)^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma} \right].$$

The manager is risk averse with CRRA parameter γ and his time discount rate is denoted ρ_m . In general, the history-dependence of the manager's compensation makes this a complicated problem. However, as is common in the literature on dynamic contracts, we use the manager's promised utility as a state variable to make the problem recursive. The contract delivers v_t in total expected utility to the manager today by delivering current compensation c_t and state-contingent compensation promises $v_{t+1}(\cdot)$ tomorrow. These promised utilities lie on a domain $[\underline{v}, \bar{v}]$.

We use $V_t(A_t, v_t)$ to denote the value of the owner's equity in an establishment with current organizational capital A_t , and an outstanding promise to deliver v_t to the manager. It is the value of the owner's claim to the rents from organizational capital. I.e., it does not include the value of income from physical capital. Importantly, the owner has limited liability; the option to terminate the contract when there is no joint surplus in the match. Limited liability implies the constraint: $V_t(A_t, v_t) \geq 0$.

Finally, we use $\omega_t(A_t)$ to denote the outside option of a manager currently employed in an establishment with organizational capital A_t . When a manager switches to a new match, a fraction ϕ of the organizational capital is transferred to the next match and a fraction $1 - \phi$ is destroyed. Free disposal applies: If the manager brings organizational capital worth less than the current blue print θ_t , then the new match starts off with the blue print technology for the new vintage. Taken together, the organizational capital of a match of vintage t is $\max\{\phi A_t, \theta_t\}$. The value of the outside option ω is determined in equilibrium by a zero-profit condition for new entrants.

Recursive Formulation For given outside option $\{\omega_t\}$ and discount rate $\{r_t\}$ processes, the optimal contract in an establishment that has promised v_t to its manager maximizes the owner's value V

$$V_t(A_t, v_t) = \max \left[\widehat{V}_t(A_t, v_t), 0 \right], \quad (2.4)$$

and

$$\widehat{V}_t(A_t, v_t) = \max_{c_t, v_{t+1}(\cdot)} \left[\pi_t + \int e^{-r_t} V(A_{t+1}, v_{t+1}) \Gamma(\varepsilon_{t+1}) d\varepsilon_{t+1} \right], \quad (2.5)$$

by choosing the state-contingent promised utility schedule $v_{t+1}(\cdot)$ and the current compensation c_t , subject to the law of motion for organizational capital (2.1), a promise keeping constraint

$$\begin{aligned} v_t = & u(c_t) + e^{-\rho m} \int \beta_{t+1}(v_t, \varepsilon_{t+1}) v_{t+1}(A_{t+1}) \Gamma(\varepsilon_{t+1}) d\varepsilon_{t+1} \\ & + e^{-\rho m} \int \omega_{t+1}(A_{t+1}) (1 - \beta_{t+1}(v_t, \varepsilon_{t+1})) \Gamma(\varepsilon_{t+1}) d\varepsilon_{t+1} \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

and a series of participation constraints

$$v_{t+1}(A_{t+1}) \geq \omega_{t+1}(A_{t+1}). \quad (2.7)$$

The indicator variable β is one if continuation is optimal and 0 elsewhere:

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{t+1} &= 1 \text{ if } v_{t+1}(A_{t+1}) \leq v^*(A_{t+1}) \\ \beta_{t+1} &= 0 \text{ elsewhere.} \end{aligned}$$

The minimum of zero in equation (2.4) for the owner's value reflects limited liability of the owner: The match is terminated if the joint surplus of the match is negative. If the match is dissolved, the manager receives $\omega_{t+1}(A_{t+1})$ in promised utility. To obtain this recursive formulation, we have used the fact that $V_t(A_t, \cdot)$ is non-increasing in its second argument. For each A_t , there exists a cutoff value $v^*(A_t)$ that satisfies $\widehat{V}_t(A_t, v^*(A_t)) = 0$. The match is dissolved when the compensation promised to the manager exceeds the cutoff level: $\beta_{t+1} = 0$ if and only if $v_{t+1}(A_{t+1}) > v^*(A_{t+1})$. Put differently, only establishments with high enough productivity $A_t > \underline{A}_t(v_t)$ survive.

2.3 Equilibrium

A competitive equilibrium is a price vector $\{W_t, R_t, r_t\}$, an allocation vector $\{k_t, l_t, c_t, \beta_t\}$, an outside option process $\{\omega_t\}$, and a sequence of distributions $\{\Psi_{t,s}, \lambda_{t,s}, N_t\}$ that satisfy optimality and market clearing conditions spelled out below.

Physical Capital and Unskilled Labor Unskilled labor l and physical capital k can be reallocated freely across different establishments. Hence, the problem of how much l and k to rent at factor prices W and R , is entirely static. We use K_t and L_t to denote the aggregate quantities, and we use \bar{A}_t to denote the average stock of organizational capital across all establishments and vintages:

$$\bar{A}_t = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \int_A A \Phi_{t,s} dA,$$

where $\Phi_{t,s}$ denotes the measure over organizational capital at the start of period t for vintage s . Physical capital and unskilled labor are allocated in proportion to the establishment's productivity level A_t :

$$\begin{aligned} k_t(A_t) &= \frac{A_t}{\bar{A}_t} K_t \\ l_t(A_t) &= \frac{A_t}{\bar{A}_t} L_t. \end{aligned}$$

This allocation satisfies the first order conditions and the market clearing conditions for capital and labor. The fact that establishments with larger organizational capital A have more physical capital and hire more unskilled labor suggests an interpretation of A as the *size* of the establishment.

The equilibrium wage rate W_t for unskilled labor and rental rate for physical capital R_t are determined by the standard first order conditions:

$$W_t = \nu z_t \bar{A}_t^{1-\nu} F_L(K_t, L_t)^{\nu-1}, \quad R_t = \nu z_t \bar{A}_t^{1-\nu} F_K(K_t, L_t)^{\nu-1}$$

The factor payments to unskilled labor and physical capital absorb a fraction $(1 - \nu)$ of aggregate output Y_t , where Y_t is given by:

$$Y_t = z_t \bar{A}_t^{1-\nu} F(K_t, L_t)^\nu.$$

In the remainder, we assume a Cobb-Douglas production function $F(k, l) = k^\alpha l^{1-\alpha}$.

Organizational Rents A fraction ν of aggregate output Y_t goes to organizational capital. These organizational rents are split between the owners Π_t , managers C_t , and sunk costs $S_t^a = N_t S_t$:

$$\sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \int_v \int_A \pi_t(A, v) \Psi_{t,s}(A, v) d(A, v) - N_t S_t = Y_t - W_t L_t - R_t K_t - C_t - S_t^a = \Pi_t,$$

where the measure $\Psi_{t,s}(A, v)$ is defined below. The second equality follows from (2.3) and ensures that the goods market clears.

Discount Rate The payoffs are priced off the inter-temporal marginal rate of substitution (IMRS) of the representative owner. Just like the manager, the owner has constant relative risk aversion preferences with CRRA parameter γ . His subjective time discount factor is ρ_o . Let g_t denote the rate of change in $\log D_t$. Then, the equilibrium log discount rate or “cost of capital” r_t is given by the owner's IMRS:

$$r_t = \rho_o + \gamma g_t. \tag{2.8}$$

Because there is no aggregate uncertainty and the owner holds a diversified portfolio of establishments, the cost of capital evolves deterministically, and our setting is equivalent to one with a risk neutral owner who discounts future cash-flows as in equation (2.2).

Managerial Compensation Having solved for the value function $\{V_t(\cdot, \cdot)\}$ that satisfies the Bellman equation above for given $\{\omega_t(\cdot), r_t\}$, we can construct the optimal contract for a new match starting at t $\{c_{t+j}(h^{t+j}), \beta_{t+j}(h^{t+j})\}$ in sequential form.

Outside Option We assume the sunk cost S_t grows at the same rate as output. Free entry stipulates that the equilibrium value of a new establishment to the owner is equal to the sunk cost S_t :

$$V_t(\max(\phi A_t, \theta_t), \omega_t(A_t)) = S_t, \quad (2.9)$$

The first argument indicates that a new establishment starts with organizational capital equal to the maximum of the frontier level of technology θ_t and the organizational capital ϕA_t that the manager brought from the previous match. The total utility $\omega_t(A_t)$ promised to the manager at the start of a new match is such that the value of the new match is zero in expectation. Therefore, equation (2.9) pins down the equilibrium outside option $\omega_t(A_t)$.

Law of Motion for Distributions We use χ to denote the implied probability density function for A_{t+1} given A_t . κ is an indicator function defined by the policy function for promised utilities: $\kappa(A'; A, v) = 1$ if $v'(A'; A, v) = v'$, 0 elsewhere. Using this indicator function, we can define the transition function Q for (A, v) :

$$Q((A', v'), (A, v)) = \chi(A'|A)\kappa(A'; A, v).$$

We use $\Psi_{t,s}$ to denote the joint measure over organizational capital A and promised utilities v for matches of vintage s . Its law of motion is implied by the transition function:

$$\Psi_{t+1,s+1}(A', v') = \int_0^\infty \int_{\underline{v}}^{\bar{v}} Q((A', v'), (A, v)) \lambda_{t,s}(A, v) d(A, v), \quad (2.10)$$

where $\lambda_{t,s}(A, v)$ is the measure of surviving establishments in period t of vintage s :

$$\lambda_{t,s}(A, v) = \int_0^A \int_{\underline{v}}^v \beta(a, u) d\Psi_{t,s}(a, u) \geq 0. \quad (2.11)$$

In equilibrium, the mass of new establishments created in each period N_t (entry) equals the mass of matches destroyed in that same period (exit):

$$N_t = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \int_{\underline{v}}^{\bar{v}} (1 - \beta_{t,s}(A, v)) \Psi_{t,s}(A, v) d(A, v) \geq 0.$$

2.4 Back-loading

The free entry condition implies that the expected net present discounted value of a start-up is exactly zero:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \int_{\underline{v}}^{\bar{v}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\sum_0^j r_s ds} \pi_{t+j}(A, v) \Psi_{t+j,s}(A, v) d(A, v) - S_t = 0$$

Importantly, this does not imply that the organizational rents that flow to the owners are zero. As long as discount rates r are strictly positive, the zero profit condition in (2.9) implies that expected net payouts are strictly positive:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \int_{\underline{v}}^{\bar{v}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_{t+j}(A, v) \Psi_{t+j,s}(A, v) d(A, v) - S_t > 0,$$

for two reasons. The first reason is a *back-loading* effect (see Atkeson and Kehoe (2005)). The owners are compensated for waiting in the form of positive payouts. The more back-loaded the payments are, the higher the expected payments. The expected payout profile of an establishment is steeply increasing: the first payout is a large negative number ($-S_t$), the establishment then grows and starts to generate higher and higher profits (in expectation). Most of the organizational rents are paid in the future. Second, there is a *selection* effect operative. Only the establishments that have fast enough organizational capital growth (high enough ε shocks) survive. When we compute aggregate (or expected) payouts, we are only sampling from the survivors who satisfy $A_t > \underline{A}_t(v_t)$. This sample selection effect is the second reason why aggregate payouts to owners are positive.

As pointed out by Hopenhayn (2002), selection among establishments can explain why Tobin's (average) q , $q_t = \frac{V_t^a}{K_t}$, is larger than one on average. The aggregate value of establishments is given by the present discounted value of a claim to $\{D_t\}$. It equals the sum of all equity values across all establishment minus sunk costs plus the value of the physical capital stock K_t :

$$V_t^a = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \int_{\underline{v}}^{\bar{v}} V_{t,s}(A, v) \Psi_{t,s}(A, v) d(A, v) - S_t^a + K_t \geq K_t,$$

Tobin's q is larger than one on average, in spite of the fact that new matches are valued at zero (net of their physical capital). The reason is selection: when we compute q , we only sample survivors.

For future reference, we also define aggregate managerial wealth in the economy as:

$$M_t = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \int_A \int_v v_t(A, v) \Psi_{t,s}(A, v) d(A, v).$$

This is the value of a claim to all the rents from organizational capital that flow to the managers.

2.5 Steady-State Growth Path

In a first step, we solve for a steady-state growth path in which all aggregate variables grow at a constant rate. Aggregate establishment productivity $\{\bar{A}_t\}$ and the productivity of the newest vintage $\{\theta_t\}$ grow at a constant rate g_θ , the variables $\{r_t, R_t, N_t\}$ are constant, the general productivity-level grows at a constant rate g_z , and all other aggregate variables grow at a constant rate

$$g = ((1 + g_z)(1 + g_\theta)^{1-\nu})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha\nu}}. \quad (2.12)$$

We normalize the population of unskilled labor L to one. To construct the steady-state growth path, we normalize organizational capital by the frontier level of technology, and we denote the resulting variable with a hat: $\hat{A}_t = A_t/\theta_t$. By construction, $\hat{A} \geq 1$ for a new establishment. A key insight is that the organizational capital of existing establishments, expressed in units of the frontier technology, *shrinks* at a rate $(1 + g_\theta)$:

$$\log(\hat{A}') = \log(\hat{A}) - \log(1 + g_\theta) + \log(\varepsilon'). \quad (2.13)$$

The prime denotes next period's value. The lower g_θ , the higher the growth rate of \hat{A} . Below, we model the IT revolution as a decline in g_θ , and therefore as an increase in organizational capital growth in existing firms.

Appendix B contains a detailed definition of a steady-state growth path. It shows how to express all other variables in efficiency units. Those variables are denoted by a tilde in rescaled units. Finally, it reformulates the optimal contract along the steady-state growth path. The Bellman equation is defined over the rescaled variables.

3 Properties of Compensation Contract

Although the managerial compensation contract allows for complicated history-dependence, the optimal contract along a steady-state growth path turns out to have intuitive dynamics. Two state variables summarize all necessary information: the current level of productivity A_t , which we have given an interpretation as the size of the establishment, and the highest level of productivity

recorded thus far $A_{max,t}$, which we will give an interpretation as the book-to-market ratio of the establishment. Hence our theory describes the cross-section of size and value firms, a familiar theme in the empirical asset pricing literature.

3.1 No Discount Rate Wedge

First, we consider the case in which the manager and the owner are equally impatient ($\rho_m = \rho_o$). The promised utility state variable v_t can be replaced by the running maximum of the productivity process: $\hat{A}_{max,t} = \max\{\hat{A}_\tau, \tau \leq t\}$. We let T denote the random stopping time when the establishment is shut down:

$$T = \inf\{\tau \geq 0 : \hat{V}(\hat{A}_\tau, \tilde{v}_\tau) = 0\}.$$

Proposition. *Optimal management compensation along a steady-state growth path is determined by the running maximum of productivity: $\tilde{c}_t(\hat{A}_{max,t}) = \max\{c_0, C(\omega(\hat{A}_{max,t}), \hat{A}_{max,t})\}$ for all $0 < t < T$ where the function $C(\tilde{v}, \hat{A})$ is defined such that the implied compensation stream $\{\tilde{c}_\tau\}_{\tau=t}^\infty$ delivers total expected utility \tilde{v}_t to the manager.*

Management compensation is constant as long as the running maximum is unchanged. The constancy is optimal because of the concavity of the manager's utility function, and arises as long as the participation constraint does not bind. When the productivity process reaches a new high, the participation constraint binds, and the compensation is adjusted upwards. Armed with this result, we can define the owner's value recursively as a function of A_t and the running maximum $A_{max,t}$:

$$\tilde{V}(\hat{A}, \hat{A}_{max}) = \max\left[\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \hat{A}_{max}), 0\right]$$

and

$$\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \hat{A}_{max}) = \tilde{y} - \tilde{W}l - R\tilde{k} - \tilde{c}(\hat{A}_{max}) + e^{-(\rho_o - (1-\gamma)\hat{g})} \int \tilde{V}(\hat{A}', \hat{A}'_{max}) \Gamma(\varepsilon') d\varepsilon',$$

subject to the law of motion for organizational capital in (2.13) and the implied law of motion for the running maximum.

Figure 1 illustrates the dynamics of the optimal compensation. It plots \hat{A} on the vertical axis against \hat{A}_{max} on the horizontal axis. By definition, $\hat{A} \leq \hat{A}_{max}$, so that only the area on and below the 45-degree line is relevant. New establishments start with $\hat{A} = \hat{A}_{max} \geq 1$. When an establishment grows and this growth establishes a new maximum productivity level, it travels along the 45-degree line. When its productivity level falls or increases but not enough to establish a new record, it travels along a vertical line in the (\hat{A}_{max}, \hat{A}) space. The region $[0, 1/\phi]$ for \hat{A}_{max} is an *insensitivity region*. Managerial compensation is constant ($\tilde{c} = c_0$) in this region. Wages are constant for small establishments because of the sunk cost. The manager will not leave because his

productivity level is insufficient to justify a new sunk cost. To the right of this region, managerial compensation is pinned down by the binding outside option that was last encountered: $\tilde{c}(\hat{A}_{max})$. As long as current productivity stays below the running maximum, the manager's compensation is constant. Along this $\Delta\tilde{c} = 0$ locus, the variation in current productivity is fully absorbed by the net payouts to owners, as long as A_t stays above the $V = 0$ locus. When productivity falls below this locus, the match is terminated.

[Figure 1 about here.]

Growth and Value In the (\hat{A}_{max}, \hat{A}) space, there is a line with slope ϕ along which the owner's value is constant: $\hat{V} = \hat{S}$. This is the locus of pairs for which $\hat{A} = \phi\hat{A}_{max}$. On this locus, an existing establishment pays the same compensation as a new establishment and it has the same productivity:

$$\hat{V}(\phi\hat{A}_{max}, \omega(\hat{A}_{max})) = \hat{S}, \quad (3.1)$$

This means that the firm's market-to-book ratio, or average q ratio, on this line is given by:

$$q = 1 + \frac{\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \hat{A}_{max})}{\hat{k}(\hat{A})} = 1 + \frac{\hat{S}}{\hat{k}(\hat{A})}$$

This suggests a natural interpretation of the ratio of current productivity relative to the running maximum as an indicator of the market-to-book ratio. Compare two establishments with the same size \hat{A} . The establishment with the lower ratio of \hat{A}/\hat{A}_{max} has the same physical capital stock $\hat{k}(\hat{A})$, but higher (current and future) managerial compensation. This is because the manager is compensated for the best past performance, which is substantially above current productivity. Hence, the value of its organizational capital going to the owners $\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \hat{A}_{max})$ is lower. These low \hat{A}/\hat{A}_{max} firms have a low market-to-book ratio $1 + \hat{V}/\hat{k}$. They are *value* firms. High \hat{A}/\hat{A}_{max} firms are *growth* firms. In Figure 1, firms with the same market-to-book ratio are on the same line through the origin. Value firms are farther from the 45-degree line, growth firms are closer.

Organizational Capital as Collateral The limited portability of organizational capital creates the collateral in the matches necessary to sustain risk sharing. Two extreme cases illustrate this point. In the first case, there is no capital specific to the match and there are no other frictions (Krueger and Uhlig (2005)). The manager can transfer 100% of the organizational capital of the establishment to a future match ($\phi = 1$) and there are no sunk costs ($\hat{S} = 0$). When $\phi = 1$ in Figure 1, the $\hat{V} = \hat{S}$ line coincides with the 45-degree line. Therefore, $\hat{V} \leq \hat{S} = 0$ everywhere. Limited liability then implies that $\hat{V} = 0$. Because there is no relationship capital, no risk sharing can be sustained, and the managers earn all the rents from organizational capital. The value of

the owner's stake in the organizational capital is zero. This implies that Tobin's q equals one for all t .

In the second case that we consider, $\phi = 0$: all of the organizational capital is match-specific. This is the case considered by Atkeson and Kehoe (2005). The insensitivity regions extends over the entire domain of \hat{A} . The manager's outside option is constant so that perfect risk sharing can be sustained. There is zero dispersion in managerial compensation. The owner receives all organizational rents, which is reflected in high q ratios.

Compensation and Payout Dynamics We use a random 300-period simulations from a calibrated version of the model to illustrate the compensation dynamics; the details of the calibration are in section 4.1. Figure 2 tracks a single, successful establishment through time. The left panel plots the realized $(\hat{A}_{max,t}, \hat{A}_t)$ values, as in Figure 1. The right panel shows the corresponding time series for productivity (or size) \hat{A} (solid line, measured against the left axis) and managerial compensation \tilde{c} (dashed line, measured against the right axis). Because $\phi = 0.5$, the insensitivity regions extends until $\hat{A} = 2$. In that region the compensation is constant. When the establishment size exceeds 2, around period 50, and leaves the insensitivity region, managerial compensation starts to increase in response to increases in \hat{A} , i.e. every time a new running maximum for \hat{A} is attained. The establishment moves along the 45-degree line in the left panel in the $(\hat{A}_{max,t}, \hat{A}_t)$ space. The manager's compensation does not track the downward movements in productivity/size that occur between periods 75 and 100. This is the first vertical locus of points in the left panel. The second big run-up in productivity increases the manager wage once more. Eventually, when the productivity level drops below the lower bound $\underline{A}(v)$, the owner's residual value equals zero $V = 0$, the match is dissolved, and the manager switches to a new match. This endogenous break-up is indicated by an arrow. A new match start off at productivity level $\max(\phi\hat{A}, 1)$. This second match only lasts for about 20 periods because of poor productivity shock realizations. The third match on the figure lasts longer, but the establishment never leaves the insensitivity region, so that wages are constant.

[Figure 2 about here.]

Figure 3 compares the managers payouts \tilde{c} (left panel) and the owner's payouts $\tilde{\pi}$ (right panel) for the same history of shocks as the previous figure. The left panel is identical to the right panel in Figure 2. The key message of the figure is that the owner's payouts are more sensitive to productivity shocks than the manager's compensation. The dashed line in the right panel is more volatile than the dashed line in the left panel. In the insensitivity region, the owner bears all the risk from fluctuating productivity. In addition, whenever the productivity level falls below the running maximum, the owner's payouts absorb the entire decline in output. This is because the owner provides maximal insurance to the risk-averse manager.

[Figure 3 about here.]

3.2 Discount Rate Wedge

In the benchmark case with equal rates of time preference for the managers and the owners, managerial compensation does not respond to *decreases* in firm size and productivity. The management is completely “entrenched”. In the quantitative section of the paper, we consider a less extreme version, by allowing for a wedge between the discount rates of the management and the owners. In particular, we consider the case in which the manager discounts cash flows at a higher rate than the owner ($\rho_m > \rho_o$). This is the relevant case when the manager faces binding borrowing constraints, has a lower willingness to substitute consumption over time, or simply has a higher rate of time preference. This is a standard assumption in this literature; see DeMarzo et al. (2007) for a recent example.

Proposition. *Let t_{max} denote the random stopping time that indicates when the participation constraint was last binding: $t_{max} = \sup\{\tau \geq 0 : \omega(\hat{A}_\tau) = \tilde{v}_\tau\}$. Optimal management compensation evolves according to: $c_t = c(\hat{A}_{t_{max}})e^{-\gamma(\rho_m - \rho_o)(t - t_{max})}$ for all $0 < t$. We define $c(\hat{A}_{t_{max}})$ such that $\{\tilde{c}_\tau\}_{\tau=t_{max}}^\infty$ delivers total expected utility $\omega(\hat{A}_{t_{max}})$ to the manager.*

Instead of \hat{A}_{max} , the new state variable is a discounted version of the running maximum; it depreciates at a rate that is governed by the rate of time preference gap between the manager and the owner. In the absence of binding participation constraints, managerial compensation c grows at a rate smaller than the rate of value-added on the steady-state growth path. Put differently, whenever the current productivity of the establishment declines below its running maximum, the manager’s scaled compensation \tilde{c} drifts down. Management is less “entrenched”. The left panel of Figure 4 illustrates this downward drift, for example between periods 150 and 200. This compensation structure further front-loads management compensation and further back-loads the owner’s payoffs. Therefore it increases average payouts to the owner.

[Figure 4 about here.]

4 Transition Experiment

We model the IT revolution as a gradual increase in general (disembodied) productivity growth: $g_z \uparrow$. The arrival of this general purpose technology increases productivity growth for all establishments regardless of vintage. To keep the analysis tractable, we assume that the total productivity

growth rate of the economy g_t is constant at its initial *steady-state growth path* value:⁵

$$g = [(1 + g_{t,z})(1 + g_{t,\theta})^{1-\nu}]^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha\nu}}. \quad (4.1)$$

Holding fixed g , the increase in g_z corresponds to a decrease in the rate of depreciation of organizational capital \widehat{A} in the stationary version of the model: $g_\theta \downarrow$. IT allows existing firms in traditional industries to remain competitive longer, and grow larger. Their organizational capital depreciates less quickly in 2005-2008 than in 1970-74 (see equation 2.13).

In Figure 1, a lower g_θ has two distinct effects. First, it reduces the rate at which \widehat{A} drifts down along a vertical line. Second, it shifts more probability mass to higher realizations of \widehat{A}_{max} . So, a decrease in g_θ shifts more probability mass closer to the 45-degree line, and more mass in the northeast quadrant. Thus, the IT revolution creates larger establishments and more of them are *growth* rather than *value* firms. The increased importance of growth firms seems intuitively consistent with the notion of the IT revolution.

Establishments accumulate more organizational capital and are longer-lived in the new steady state. Because more establishments grow larger, the managers' outside option constraint binds more frequently. This increases the sensitivity of pay to performance. In addition, the arrival of more large establishments increases the back-loading of the owner's payouts. This raises the owner's average payouts in the cross-section as a fraction of output. Managerial compensation, in contrast, is more front-loaded.

We study the transition between a low and a high general-purpose innovation growth path. At $t = 0$, agents know the entire future path for $\{g_{t,\theta}\}_{t=0}^T$, although the arrival of the GPT itself at $t = 0$ is not anticipated at $t = \dots, -2, -1$. Appendix C defines the constant cost-of-capital transition. It also explains the reverse shooting algorithm we use to solve for prices and quantities along the transition path. This is a non-trivial problem because we need to keep track of how the cross-sectional distribution of (A, v) evolves over time. We then simulate the economy forward for a cross-section of 5,000 establishments, starting in the initial steady state. We assume the change in the relative importance of growth rates is accomplished in 20 years. However, the economy continues to adjust substantially afterwards on its way to the final steady state.

4.1 Benchmark Parameter Choices

In order to assess its quantitative implications, we calibrate the model at annual frequency. Table 1 summarizes the parameters.

⁵First, there is little evidence that the last 35 years have seen higher average GDP growth g than the 35-year period that preceded it. Second, changing GDP growth along the transition path is computationally challenging.

Production Technology and Preferences The parameter ν governs the decreasing returns to scale at the establishment level. It is set to .75, at the low end of the range considered by Atkeson and Kehoe (2005). The other technology and preferences parameters are chosen to match the depreciation, the average capital-to-output ratio and the average cost of capital for the US non-financial sector over the period 1950-2005. The depreciation rate δ is calibrated to .06 based on NIPA data. Next, we calibrate the Cobb-Douglas productivity exponent on capital, α . Because there is no aggregate risk, the rate of return on physical capital is deterministic in the model. In equilibrium, that rate equals the discount rate. Both are fixed along the transition path. From the Euler equation for physical capital, we get:

$$r = \left(1 - \delta + \alpha\nu \frac{Y}{K} \right)$$

We compute the cost of capital r in the data as the weighted-average realized return on equity and corporate bonds; it is 5.5%. The weights are given by the observed leverage ratio.⁶ The average capital-to-output ratio is 1.77. The above equation then implies $\alpha\nu = 0.23$. As a result, $\alpha = 0.30$.

We choose the rate of time preference of the owner $\rho_o = .02$ such that his subjective time discount factor is $\exp(-\rho_o) = .98$. In our benchmark results, we assume that the manager is less patient: $\rho_m = .03$. Finally, we choose a coefficient of relative risk aversion $\gamma = 1.6$. This is the value that solves equation (2.8) given our choices for r , ρ_o , and given the average growth rate of real aggregate output of $g = 0.022$.

Organizational Capital Accumulation and Transfer Technology To calibrate the organizational capital accumulation, its portability, and the sunk costs of forming a new match, we match the excess job reallocation rate and the firm exit rate in the initial steady state to those observed in the data in 1970-74, and we match the increase in managerial wage inequality to that in the data. The data are described in Section 5 below.

Following Atkeson and Kehoe (2005), we assume the ε shocks are log-normal with mean m_s and standard deviation σ_s . We abstract from the dependence on these parameters on the vintage s . For parsimony, the mean m_s is set zero. However, younger matches (lower s) will grow faster in equilibrium because of selection, even without age-dependence in m_s . The standard deviation $\sigma_s = \sigma$ of these shocks is chosen to generate an excess job reallocation rate of 19% in the initial steady state. This choice matches the 1970-74 reallocation rate in the data. The size of the sunk cost (S) is chosen to match the entry-exit rates in the initial steady state. The sunk cost is equal to 6.5 times the annual cash flow generated by the average firm. This delivers an entry/exit rate of 4.3% in the initial steady-state, again matching the 1970-74 data. The portability or match-

⁶Since the model has no taxes, but there are taxes in the data, we take into account the corporate tax rate (28%) in the calculation of the cost of capital. Appendix D provides more details on the cost of capital calibration.

specificity parameter ϕ governs the increase in wage dispersion in the model. We set it equal to 0.5, which means that 50% of organizational capital is transferable to a next match. This value matches the increase in intra-industry wage inequality described in Section 5.

Productivity Growth Composition In the baseline experiment, we assume the change in the composition of growth to $g_{new,z}$ occurs over 20 years, and we assume it starts in 1971. After 20 years, in 1990, productivity growth settles down at $(g_{new,z}, g_{new,\theta})$. The actual transition to a new steady-state growth path takes much longer. The change in the composition of growth is calibrated to match the decline in reallocation rates in the data from 19% to 11%. General productivity growth increases from $g_{old,z} = 0.3\%$ in the initial steady state to $g_{new,z} = 1.45\%$ in the new steady-state. Correspondingly, vintage-specific productivity growth decreases from $g_{old,\theta} = 5.5\%$ to $g_{new,\theta} = 0.8\%$.

4.2 Main Results: Compensation and Size Distribution

We start by comparing the size and compensation distribution in the initial and final steady states, as well as its evolution during the transition. Next, we trace out the dynamics of key aggregates such as the payout share.

Figure 5 illustrates how a relatively modest change in the size distribution of firms, brought about by a change in the composition of productivity growth, translates in a much larger change in the distribution of compensation. The left panel plots the log compensation of managers ($\log \tilde{c}$) against the log of establishment size ($\log \hat{A}$) in the initial steady-state growth path of the model. The right panel shows the final steady state, after the adoption of IT is complete. Each dot represents one establishment in the cross-section. The key to the amplification is the compensation contract. The optimal contract features a lower bound on size below which the manager's compensation does not respond to changes in size. Above a certain size, the manager's compensation only responds to good news about the establishment's productivity. In the initial steady state, few establishments become large enough to exceed the insensitivity range. Managerial compensation hardly responds to changes in size; there is little cross-sectional variation in compensation. The right panel shows that this is no longer true in the new steady-state. Establishments live longer on average and the successful ones grow larger. The log size distribution is more skewed than in the initial steady-state. The figure shows a strong positive cross-sectional relationship between size and managerial compensation. Thus, the model endogenously generates a shift from low-powered to high-powered incentive compensation contracts.

[Figure 5 about here.]

On the new steady-state growth path, the distribution of managerial compensation has much fatter tails than the size distribution, as shown in Figure 6. Its left panel shows the histogram of

log compensation in the new steady state; the right panel is the histogram of log size. Both were demeaned. The distribution of managerial compensation is more skewed and it has fatter tails than the size distribution. The kurtosis of log compensation is 19.82, compared to 3.38 for log size. The skewness is 3.81 for log compensation, compared to .47 for log size.

[Figure 6 about here.]

There is a large finance literature that studies compensation for top managers (e.g., Frydman and Saks (2006) and Kaplan and Rauh (2007)). Gabaix and Landier (2008) and other studies have documented that managerial compensation is well-described by a power function of size, a finding referred to as *Roberts' law*. In our model too, the compensation distribution has much fatter tails than a log-normal. On average, the relation between compensation and size in the new steady state satisfies $\log \tilde{c} = \alpha + \kappa \log \hat{A}$. The slope coefficient κ is .24 in the new steady-state, close to the value of 1/3 found in the empirical literature. Our model therefore not only provides a rationale for the large and skewed increase in managerial compensation, but is also quantitatively consistent with the observed size-compensation distribution.

The model has implications for the size distribution of firms. Luttmer (2005) and others show that the size distribution for *large* firms follows a Pareto distribution. The same is true for the large firms in our new steady-state. Figure 7 shows that the relation between log rank and log size is linear for large establishments. Quantitatively, the model's Pareto coefficient is 1.5 whereas the tails in the data are slightly thicker with a Pareto coefficient of 1.⁷ For small firms, the relationship is less steep, a finding reminiscent of the city-size literature.

[Figure 7 about here.]

Table 2 reports the impact of the change in the composition of growth on the distribution of compensation and productivity. The log of establishment productivity (TFP) is given by $(1 - \nu) \log \hat{A}$. The log of the manager's wage is given by $\log \tilde{c}$. The left panel reports the cross-sectional standard deviation, the inter-quartile range (*IQR* or 75th minus 25th percentiles), and the inter-decile range (*IDR* or 90th minus 10th percentiles) for log wages; the right panel does the same for log TFP. The first (last) line shows the values in the initial (final) steady-state. The numbers in between are five-year averages computed along the transition path. Small changes in the productivity (or size) distribution cause big changes in the distribution of compensation. The standard deviation of managerial compensation increases by 7.3 percentage points in the first 35 years of the transition, similar to what we report later for the increase in within-industry wage dispersion in the data.⁸ In the next ten years from 2006-2015, the standard deviation of log wage

⁷We follow Gabaix and Ibragimov (2007) who estimate the Pareto coefficient b from a regression of the form $\log(\text{Rank}-1/2) = a - b \log(\text{Size})$.

⁸In the model, unskilled wages are equalized across establishments and do not affect the dispersion.

dispersion is predicted to increase by another 4.5 percentage points and the *IDR* by as much as 11.5 percentage points.⁹ In sum, the shift towards high-powered incentives leads to a substantial increase in income inequality.

This massive increase in compensation inequality is generated by a modest increase in productivity dispersion. As the right columns show, the standard deviation of productivity increases by only 1.5 percentage points in the first 35 years of the transition. The *IQR* for increases from 18.3 to 18.4% and the *IDR* from 29.2 to 31.8% over the same period. Overall, productivity dispersion in our model is somewhat smaller than what is found in the data. Using 1977 US manufacturing data at the 4-digit industry level, Syverson (2004) reports a within-industry *IQR* of log TFP between 29 and 44%. Increasing log TFP dispersion in the model would give rise to too much reallocation, absent other frictions.

Table 3 also reports the sensitivity of managerial compensation to size for the 500 largest and 50 largest establishments in the model’s simulated panel. The top panel looks at the benchmark calibration. We measure the sensitivity of managerial compensation to size by running a separate cross-sectional regression of $\Delta \log c^i$ on $\Delta \log A^i$ in each time period. This is referred to as the pay-performance elasticity in the literature on executive compensation (Murphy (1998)). Column (1) and column (5) report the slope coefficients (in percentages) for the 500 and 50 largest firms. Columns (2) to (4) and (6) to (8) For the 500 largest firms, the pay-performance sensitivity increases from 0 to 5.86 percent (i.e. every percent increase in size translates into .056 percent increase in compensation). However, for the 50 largest establishments, this number increases from 3.35 % to 46 %. The size of this increase critically depends on the portability parameter. If we increase this parameter to .75, then the pay-performance elasticity increases from -27 % to 34 % over the same time period.

In the data, Murphy (1998) finds that the cash compensation elasticity for CEO’s of S&P500 companies increases from 8% in 1972 to 40 % in 1996. The sample is based on all CEOs included in the S&P 500. The data prior to 1992 were extracted from Forbes Annual Compensation Surveys; data in 1992 and later from Compustats ExecuComp database. These elasticities are based on annual regressions of $\Delta \log(\text{Cash Compensation})$ on $\log(1+\text{Shareholder Return})$. Cash compensation includes salaries, bonuses, and small amounts of other cash compensation. In our model, the compensation elasticity increases from -1 % at the start of the sample to 8.7 % -for all managers, not just CEO’s- in the 500 largest establishments, from 3 to 46 % for the 50 largest firms.

⁹In the new steady-state, compensation becomes very skewed: the *IDR* increases so much that the *IQR* actually decreases.

4.3 Main Results: Labor Reallocation, Exit, and Firm Valuation

The right panel of Table 2 summarizes the other main aggregates of interest. The first column shows the excess job reallocation rate. We calibrate the shift in the composition of productivity so as to match the initial steady-state value of 19% as well as the subsequent decline to 12.2% over the ensuing 35 years. The model successfully matches the decline in entry/exit rate (on a steady-state growth path those are identical). The exit rate starts from 4.3% (chosen to match the sunk costs) and declines to 3.0% by 2001-05. In the data, it declined from 4% to 2.5%. The exit rate is highest in the first ten years of the transition because there is a shake-out of establishments that are no longer profitable under the increased managerial compensation.

The last three columns of Table 2 report valuation ratios. As establishments start to live longer and accumulate more organizational capital, the aggregate value of organizational capital starts to increase. This is the same selection effect: We are only sampling the survivors when computing the market value of matches. Correspondingly, Tobin's q increases from 1.4 in 1971-75 to 1.6 in 2001-05 (Column (9)). The value of organizational capital as a fraction of value-added $V_t/(Y_t - S_t^a)$ increases from 0.83 to 1.18, a 42% increase (Column (10)). The increase in the data from 1.54 to 2.41 represents a 45% increase (See Section 5).

Managerial workers capture only part of this increase in organizational rents because of the sunk costs and limited portability of organizational capital. The sunk costs create an insensitivity range in which managerial compensation does not respond to productivity shocks. In addition, the discount rate wedge imputes a downward drift to the managerial compensation. As matches live longer, managers end up with a smaller share of the surplus. Managerial wealth declines from 8.3% of value-added to 7.2% (Column 7, $M/(Y - S^a)$). The model thus implies a large transfer of wealth from the managers to the owners. This is consistent with the findings of Lustig and Van Nieuwerburgh (2007), who document a negative correlation between innovations to future cash flow growth for financial wealth (owners) and human wealth (managers). However, there is an enormous amount of heterogeneity in the evolution of managerial wealth to value-added ($M/(Y - S^a)$), echoing the increase in managerial compensation dispersion documented earlier. We sort all managers by their final steady-state $M/(Y - S^a)$ - ratio. Managers in the 95th percentile saw a large *increase*, managers in the 90th percentile maintained the status quo, while all other managers (especially those in the smaller establishments) suffered a decline in wealth. Managers in the 5th see their wealth decline from 8 to 6.5 times (per capita) value added.

4.4 Stock Market Sampling Bias

The increase in aggregate Tobin's q generated by the model is smaller than in the data. This could partially be due to a reduction in the cost of capital during that period that we deliberately abstract from (Jagannathan, McGrattan and Scherbina (2000)). However, it is possible that the

data overstate the increase in Tobin’s q . Our model helps us understand this potential bias. At the 95th size percentile, Tobin’s q increased from 1.94 to 2.48, an increase of 29%. At the 10th size percentile, the increase is only 6%.

The Flow of Funds (FoF) computes the market value of all equities outstanding as the value of all common and preferred stock for firms listed on the NASDAQ, the NYSE, AMEX, and other US exchanges plus the *FOF estimate* of closely held shares.¹⁰ This FoF estimate effectively imputes the returns on the publicly traded firms to non-traded firms. Because publicly traded firms are much more likely to be drawn from the 95th than the 10th percentile of the entire firm distribution, the imputation procedure may overstate the increase in Tobin’s q . Put differently, the stock market over-samples larger establishments because of selection.

4.5 Robustness

The degree of portability ϕ governs several key aspects of the model. We studied both a higher value ($\phi = .75$) and a lower value ($\phi = 0$) than our benchmark case ($\phi = .50$). These results are reported in Table 4 and Table 5. More portability amplifies the dispersion effect of the shift in productivity growth composition, but lowers the increase in the valuation ratios.

Different Portability The left panel of Table 4 shows the compensation and productivity distribution along the transition for the case in which all of the organizational capital is match-specific ($\phi = 0$). As we expected, the model no longer generates any increase in managerial compensation inequality. Indeed, the managers are fully insured and the owners capture a larger share of the organizational rents. The same results obtain in the case in which managers can fully commit to staying in the match.

This all translates into to larger increases in the owners’ wealth relative to value-added and in Tobin’s q ratio. These results are reported in the left panel of Table 5. Tobin’s q goes up from 1.38 to 1.84, a substantially larger increase than in the benchmark case. In sum, the predictions for valuation ratios improve, but the predictions for wage dispersion are counter-factual.

In contrast, increasing ϕ to a value of 0.75 gives managers more ownership rights to organizational capital. The right panel of Table 4 shows the compensation and productivity distribution. As a result, not only is initial income dispersion higher (the standard deviation of log wages is 9.6% instead of 0.9% in the initial steady-state), the increase in dispersion is also higher. The standard deviation increases by 15, the IQR by 8 and the IDR by 42 percentage points from the initial situation to 2001-05. These increases are much larger than in the benchmark case and fit the increase in *managerial* income inequality in the data better. Some other desirable features of

¹⁰It also subtracts the market value of financial companies and the market value of foreign equities held by US residents.

the $\phi = .75$ calibration are that (i) Robert's coefficient, which measures the elasticity of managerial compensation to firm size, is 0.32, now matching the data exactly, and (ii) the Pareto coefficient of the firm size distribution is 1.05, also matching the empirical estimates around 1. However, the increase in valuation ratios is only half as big as in the benchmark case.

5 Evidence from the Time Series

Finally, we provide supporting evidence from the data. Several of the model's parameters were chosen to match moments of the data we describe below. This is true for the decline in job reallocation, the increase in wage dispersion, and the initial exit rate. All other data moments constitute over-identifying restrictions implied by the model. Most notably, these are the facts on the dynamics of the elasticity of managerial compensation to size, on the firm size distribution, and on the dynamics of the exit rate, as well as the cross-sectional correlation between reallocation rates and compensation inequality on the one hand and Tobin's q on the other hand.

5.1 Increased Dispersion in Compensation

We provide three sources of data, all of which document a large increase in wage inequality. The first and broadest measure studies wages of all workers. The data are from the Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (QCEW) collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). The unit of observation is an establishment, and the data report the average wage. We calculate the within-industry wage dispersion from a panel of 55 2-digit SIC-code industries, and average across industries. Panel A of Table 6 shows that the cross-sectional standard deviation of log wages increased by 7.3, the IQR by 5.4, and the IDR by 14.7 percentage points between 1975-1979 and 2000-2004.¹¹

The second body of evidence comes from managerial wages. While our model has implications for overall wage inequality, managerial data arguably provide a cleaner match. We use wage income data from the March Current Population Survey and select only workers in managerial occupations (See Appendix A.4). Panel B of Table 6 shows that in this sample, the cross-sectional standard deviation of log wages increased by 9.4, the IQR by 11.3, and the IDR by 19.6 percentage points between 1975-1979 and 2000-2004. Hence the increase in managerial compensation is more pronounced than for the population at large.

¹¹According to Dunne et al. (2004), increasing within-industry, between-establishment wage dispersion accounts for a large fraction of the increase in overall income inequality in the US. This is true especially for non-production workers, which includes managers. They study US manufacturing establishments. Between 1977 and 1988, the between-plant coefficient of variation for non-production worker's wages increased from 44% to 56%, while the within-plant dispersion actually decreased. They also document a similar increase in the dispersion of productivity between plants.

The third and most narrow metric focusses on the top of the compensation scale. Measure total compensation (salaries, bonuses, long-term bonus payments, and the Black-Scholes value of stock option grants) for the three highest-paid officers in the largest 50 firms, Frydman and Saks (2006) documents a strong increase in executive compensation. Panel C of Table 6 uses the same data to show an equally spectacular increase in the *dispersion* of top managers' compensation.¹² Since the mid-1970s, the cross-sectional standard deviation of log compensation increased by 43 log points, the IQR and IDR more than doubled to 1.5 and 2.6, respectively. The inequality and the increase in inequality are strongest for this group of executives.

In the benchmark version of the calibrated model (see Table 2), the standard deviation of log managerial compensation increases by 11 log points, the IQR by 8 log points and the IDR by 9 log points over the same period. The IDR increases another 11 log points in the following five years. This compares favorably to the data for workers and managers in Panel A and B. Finally, the model produces an increase of 50 log points in the IDR for the largest 500 establishments, 58 log point for the largest 50 establishments (see Table 3). Of course, this number still falls short of the 130 log points increase for top management in the largest 50 firms. In the high portability case, the increase in the IDR is 80 log points.

[Table 1 about here.]

5.2 Declining Excess Job Reallocation

The excess job reallocation rate is a direct measure of the cross-sectional dispersion of establishment growth rates. It is defined as the sum of the job creation rate plus the job destruction rate less the net employment growth rate. Before 1990, we only have establishment-level reallocation data for the manufacturing sector. Figure 8 shows that the excess reallocation rate in manufacturing declined from 10.9% in 1965-1969 to 8.4% in 2000-2005, and further to 7.8% between 2006 and 2007.III. After 1990, the BLS provides establishment-level data for all sectors of the economy. Over the 1990-2007 sample, the excess reallocation rate declined from 10.6 to 7.2% in manufacturing, from 15 to 12.4% in services, and from 15.6 to 12.3% in the entire private sector. Half of this decline is due to a decline in entry and exit rates for establishments, from 4% to 2.5%. The other half is due to a decline in expansions and contractions of existing establishments.

[Figure 8 about here.]

Similar trends have been documented in *firm-level* (rather than establishment-level) data. Davis et al. (2006) document large declines in the dispersion and the volatility of firm growth rates for the US economy, either measured based on employment or sales growth. The employment-weighted

¹²We thank Carola Frydman for graciously making these data available to us.

dispersion of firm growth rates declined from .70 in 1978 to .55 in 2001, while the employment-weighted volatility of firm growth rates declined from .22 in 1980 to .12 in 2001. The former measures the cross-sectional standard deviation of firm growth rates, while the latter measures the standard deviation of firm growth rates over time.¹³ This decline in volatility is present across sectors.

Finally, Haltiwanger and Schuh (1999) constructs a proxy for establishment-level reallocation by studying *intra-industry* job flows. This is the only economy-wide series that is continually available for our sample period. The excess reallocation rate for the non-financial sector declines from 19% in 1960 to an average of 11.5% in 2000. This 19-11.5% change is what we calibrate to in our benchmark model.

5.3 Measuring Valuation

The increase in the payouts to securities holders over the last 30 years coincided with a doubling of Tobin’s average q and the value-output ratio. Tobin’s q is measured as the market value of US non-financial corporations, constructed from the Flow of Funds data divided by the replacement cost of physical capital:

$$q_t = 1 + \frac{V_t^a}{K_t}.$$

We construct the replacement cost of physical capital using the perpetual inventory method with FoF investment and inventory data (see Appendix A.1). The first column in Table 7 shows that Tobin’s q decreased from 2.0 in the 1965-1969 period to 1.0 in the 1975-1979 period. After that, it gradually increases to 2.6 in the 1995-1999 period and then it levels off to 2.3 and 2.0. The value-output ratio for the US corporate sector, reported in Column (2), is computed as the ratio of V_t^a to gross value-added Y_t . It tracks the evolution of Tobin’s q almost perfectly.

The value of US corporations per unit of physical capital has more than doubled since the late seventies. The increase in valuations seems to be linked to the accumulation of organizational capital rather than physical capital. Note that the secular increase in Tobin’s q cannot be explained solely by a decrease in taxes. Indeed, in a model without organizational capital and no adjustment costs, Tobin’s q is always one. In a world with reasonable adjustment costs, a decrease in taxes could increase Tobin’s q above one, but only temporarily. Finally, the large deviations of Tobin’s q from one occur in the second half of the sample when the average tax rate is slightly *increasing*.

[Table 2 about here.]

¹³Comin and Philippon (2005) show that there is an increase in volatility for the sub-sample of publicly traded firms. Our analysis is for the entire non-financial sector, publicly-traded and privately-held. The discrepancy between the findings for public and for all firms may have to do with private firms that go public earlier. The IPO decision is outside of our model.

6 Evidence from the Cross-Section

Our analysis so far focused on the time-series relationship between the composition of productivity growth, the reallocation rate, and Tobin's q . In the model, these same relationships hold in the cross-section. We now explore the cross-sectional relation in the data between managerial compensation dispersion and reallocation on the one hand and firm valuation on the other hand. We find that firms in high dispersion, low reallocation industries tend to have higher Tobin's q , as predicted by the model. In these industries, successful firms do manage to accumulate more organizational capital.

We use the calibrated model to illustrate this mechanism. We compute 13 different steady-state growth paths for 13 different 'industries'. All parameters are constant except for the vintage-specific growth rate g_θ , which we vary from varying from low (.00%) to high (6.82 %).¹⁴ Figure 9 plots the steady-state growth path Tobin's q for each industry against the dispersion of managerial compensation. As the vintage specific growth rate in an industry declines, the average Tobin's Q increases: A larger mass of firms stays closer to the 45 degree line in figure 2.

As Figure 9 illustrates, the sensitivity of the valuations to changes in the reallocation rate is much higher in the low g_θ area. Tobin's q decreases by 50 basis points in response to a 100 log points increase in compensation dispersion in the low g_θ area (comparing (1) and (2)) and this number increases for higher values of g_θ . In the data, estimates of this number vary between 111 and 70 basis points, if we use a broad measure of wage dispersion. If we focus only on executive compensation dispersion, the range is between 50 and 80 basis points. These

[Figure 9 about here.]

In the data, we identify high vintage-specific growth (g_θ) industries, who experience faster depreciation of organizational capital, as those with higher dispersion in managerial compensation. The key question then becomes whether industries characterized by high dispersion have high valuation ratios. We build a panel of 55 industries at the 2-digit SIC level covering the 1976-2005 sample. As before, we exclude the financial sector to end up with 47 industries. The employment data are from the QCEW program (see Appendices A.2 and A.3 for details).

We examine the cross-sectional relationship between compensation dispersion and the average Tobin's q in the same panel of 47 industries. We use two different measures for the average Tobin's q in each industry. The first measure (Tobin's q_1) uses total assets less financial assets at book value in the denominator. The second measure (Tobin's q_2) uses the book value of total assets in the denominator. The numerator in both ratios is the market value of the firm. Appendix A.2 provides more details.

¹⁴There still exists a stationary equilibrium when vintage-specific growth is zero, because we impose an exogenous separation rate of .25 %

Our first estimation uses the cross-sectional standard deviation of log wages among the establishments within an industry from QWEC, and the same panel of 47 industries. We include fixed effects for time and industry in these regressions. The results are reported in Table 8. Our second estimation uses individual-level wage data for executives from Execucomp to form the wage dispersion in an industry. These results are reported in Table 9. For ease of comparison, we focus on the common sample 1992-2005. The establishment-level data are available at quarterly frequency, while the executive data analysis is at annual frequency. In the latter case, we average Tobin's q across the quarters in a year. Columns (1) and (3) of Table 8 show that there is a significantly positive covariation between wage dispersion and Tobin's $q1$ and $q2$ using the establishment-level data. The point estimates imply that a one standard-deviation increase in the wage dispersion of a region (within-region variation) increases Tobin's $q1$ by 0.063 and Tobin's $q2$ by 0.046. A region with a one standard deviation higher wage dispersion (across-region variation), has a Tobin's $q1$ ($q2$) that is 0.417 (0.303) higher. In specifications (2) and (4), we control for intangibles and continue to find strong positive correlation between the wage dispersion in an industry and its q ratio. While the interaction effect is negative, the overall effect of wage dispersion is positive (last row). We find similarly strong effects if we use the inter-quartile range of log wages instead of the standard deviation (not reported).

[Table 3 about here.]

Table 9 repeats the same analysis using a measure of wage dispersion for executives (See appendix A.5). Wage dispersion is the cross-sectional standard deviation of the log wage among executives within an industry. Executive wage dispersion in an industry is significantly positively related to both measures of Tobin's q (Columns (1) and (3)). A one standard deviation increase in the within-industry wage dispersion (0.161) translates into a 0.123 increase in Tobin's $q1$ and a 0.076 increase in Tobin's $q2$. The marginal effect of wage dispersion on Tobin's q slightly increases after controlling for the intangibles ratio of the industry (Columns (2) and (4)). In this specification, the effect of executive wage dispersion on Tobin's q is stronger in industries with a higher intangibles ratio. For example, in Column 2, the industry with the average intangible ratio shows a sensitivity to a (within) one standard deviation increase in WDISP of 0.133, whereas that sensitivity increases to 0.143 for an industry with an intangible ratio that is one standard deviation above the average. The results are very similar when using the value of options exercised instead of options granted in the wage definition (not reported). The results using the inter-quartile range of log wages are also similar (not reported), suggesting a robust correlation between managerial wage dispersion and Tobin's q .

[Table 4 about here.]

The cross-sectional evidence on the link between wage dispersion, labor reallocation, payouts to owners and firm valuation lends further credibility to the organizational capital accumulation mechanism we have put forward.

7 Conclusion

In the last three decades, there has been a marked increase in managerial compensation inequality and in the sensitivity of compensation to performance. This paper argues that both changes can be tied to a compositional change in the nature of productivity growth and the increases in organizational capital that resulted from it. In our model, establishments combine organizational capital, physical capital and unskilled labor to produce output. The division of organizational rents between the owner and the manager of the establishment is governed by a long-term compensation contract. The well-diversified owner will offer insurance to the risk averse manager, but this insurance is limited by the manager's ability to leave and by the owner's limited liability. Because the manager can transfer a fraction of the organizational capital to a future employer, the increased accumulation of organizational capital improves the outside option of successful managers, and the manager's compensation increases in response to positive performance. In small, unsuccessful firms, compensation is insensitive to performance. The change in the composition of productivity growth allows successful establishments to accumulate more organization capital and grow larger. Together they account for the increase in compensation inequality. In addition, the model generates an increase in firm valuation relative to the physical capital or to output, which reflects the higher value of organizational capital. It is also broadly consistent with trends in labor reallocation, the firm size distribution, and firm exit and entry.

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A Data Appendix

A.1 Using Flow of Funds Data

The computation of firm value returns is based on Hall (2001). The data to construct our measure of returns on firm value were obtained from the Federal Flow of Funds, henceforth FoF.¹⁵ We use the (seasonally-unadjusted) flow tables for the non-farm, non-financial corporate sector, in file UTABS 102D. We calculate the market value of the corporate sector V^a as the market value of equity (item 1031640030) plus net financial liabilities. Net financial liabilities are defined as financial liabilities (item 144190005) minus financial assets (item 144090005). Because outstanding bonds (a part of financial liabilities) are valued at book value, we transform them into a market value using the Dow Jones Corporate Bond Index. We construct the levels from the flows by adding them up, except for the Market Value of Equity. This series is downloaded directly from the Balance series BTABS 102D. (item 103164003).

Net (aggregate corporate) pay-outs is measured as dividends (item 10612005) plus the interest paid on debt (from the NIPA Table 1.14 on the Gross Product of Non-financial, Corporate Business, line 25) less the net issuance of equity (item 103164003) less the increase in net financial liabilities (item 10419005).

The same NIPA Table 1.14 is used to obtain gross value-added (line 17), $Y_t - S_t^a$.

Finally, capital expenditures (item 105050005) are obtained from the Flow of Funds.

Tobin’s q for the non-financial sector is constructed as the ratio of the market value of the corporate sector V^a and the replacement cost of physical capital (K). We construct the replacement cost of physical capital using the perpetual inventory method with FoF investment data (item 105013003) and inventory data

¹⁵Data are available at <http://www.federalreserve.gov/RELEASES/z1/current/data.htm>

(item 10502005). To deflate the series, we use the implicit deflator for fixed non-residential investment from NIPA, Table 7.1. The depreciation rate is set to 2.6% per quarter.

A.2 Using Compustat Data

We use annual and quarterly data from Compustat.¹⁶ If an item from Compustat is not available quarterly, we use its annual figure for each quarter, dividing by four if it is a flow variable. For each industry, the **net payout ratio** is defined as the ratio of payouts to security holders over payouts to workers plus security holders.

Payouts Payouts to security holders are computed as the sum of interest expense (item 22), dividends from preferred stock (item 24), dividends from common stock (item 20) and equity repurchases, computed as the difference between the purchase (annual item 115) and the sale (annual item 108) of common and preferred stock. If there is no information available on the purchase and sale of stock, we assume that it is zero.

Payouts to workers are computed as the product of number of employees (Compustat, annual item 29) and wages per employee (see Appendix A.3 below). We only include those firms for which the payouts to security holders is less than the firm assets (annual item 6).

The intangibles ratio is defined as the ratio of intangibles (annual item 33) to net property, plant and equipment (PPE, annual item 8). We filter out those firms whose intangibles ratio is greater than 1000. The intangibles ratio for each industry is then computed as the total intangibles over the total PPE for each industry.

Tobin's q The variable q_1 is computed first for all firms having the following items available from COMPUSTAT: *DATA1* (Cash and Short-Term Investments), *DATA2* (Receivables - Total), *DATA6* (Assets - Total), *DATA9* (Long-Term Debt - Total), *DATA34* (Debt in Current Liabilities), *DATA56* (Preferred Stock - Redemption Value), *DATA68* (Current Assets - Other), and the following items available from CRSP: *PRC* (Closing Price of Bid/Ask average), *SHROUT* (Number of shares outstanding). For each firm, Tobin's q is defined as follows

$$q_1 = \frac{\text{totalvaluefirm}}{\text{DATA6} - \text{fin_assets}},$$

where:

$$\text{totalvaluefirm} = \text{mcap} + \text{totaldebt} - \text{fin_assets}$$

$$\text{totaldebt} = \text{DATA9} + \text{DATA34} + \text{DATA56}$$

$$\text{fin_assets} = \text{DATA1} + \text{DATA2} + \text{DATA68}$$

$$\text{mcap} = \text{PRC} * \text{SHROUT}/1000.$$

¹⁶Data are available at <http://wrds.wharton.upenn.edu/>

We select only those firms for which $0 < q_1 < 100$. For the selected firms, we compute industry I 's Tobin's q as :

$$q_{1,agg} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} \text{totalvaluefirm}_i}{\sum_{i \in I} \text{DATA6}_i - \text{fin_assets}_i}.$$

We use a second definition of Tobin's q . The variable q_2 is defined as :

$$q_2 = \frac{\text{firm_value}}{\text{DATA6}},$$

where

$$\text{firm_value} = \text{mcap} + \text{DATA6} - \text{DATA60} - \text{DATA74}$$

$$\text{mcap} = \text{PRC} * \text{SHROUT}/1000$$

and computed for all firms having the necessary items available in COMPUSTAT. We select only those firms for which $0 < q_2 < 100$. For the selected firms, we compute industry I 's average q as:

$$q_{2,agg} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} \text{firm_value}_i}{\sum_{i \in I} \text{DATA6}_i}$$

A.3 Labor Reallocation

We use data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (QCEW) program.¹⁷ This program reports monthly employment and quarterly wages data at the SIC code level from 1975 to 2000, and at the NAICS code level from 1990 to 2005. Since there is no one-to-one correspondence between SIC and NAICS codes, we form industries at the 2-digit SIC code level that match industries at the 3-digit NAICS code level. We finally end up with 55 different industries, that match to only 47 different Compustat industries. We exclude the financial sector from our calculations. The employment data from the QCEW program is spliced in 1992.

We first compute the change in employment from month to month at the SIC and NAICS code level. If it is positive it is recorded as Job Creation, otherwise it corresponds to Job Destruction. We then aggregate Job Creation, Job Destruction and Employment by quarter, and de-seasonalize each of these series separately using the X12-arima from the Census. Job Reallocation is then computed as the sum of Job Creation and Job Destruction, divided by Employment. Excess Job Reallocation is computed as the sum of Job Creation and Job Destruction minus the absolute change in Employment, divided by Employment.

A.4 Managerial Wage Data from Current Population Survey

We use the IPUMS-CPS data on respondents' annual wage earnings from 1971-2006. Managerial occupations are defined as follows: for 1971-82, (previous year) occupation codes 220-246 except 221 and 226; for 1983-1991, codes 003-019; for 1992-2002, codes 003-022; and codes 001-043 after 2002. We restrict

¹⁷Data are available at <http://www.bls.gov/>

the sample to managers who were over 21 years old, were employed in the private sector, and who were full-time workers in the previous year (i.e., they averaged at least 35 hours per week). We drop observations with annual earnings less than \$2000 in 1983\$. Finally, because wages are subject to top-coding, we follow Autor et al. (2007) and multiply top-codes by 1.5 (this adjustment only affects the reported standard deviations, not the IQR or IDR). The final sample size is about 3000 managers in the 1970s and grows to around 6000 managers in the 2000s.

A.5 Managerial Wage Data from Execucomp

We use the Compustat Executive Compensation (Execucomp) data, which contains annual compensation for top executives of over 2500 companies from 1992 to 2005, to compute the dispersion in managerial pay within industries. Compensation is measured using Execucomp’s ”tdc1” and ”tdc2” variables. Both are the sum of the manager’s salary, bonus, restricted stock grants, LTIP payouts, all other annual payments, and value of options. The difference between the two compensation measures is in what they use for the last term in the sum. Tdc1 uses the value of options grants, while tdc2 uses the value of options exercised. We compute the standard deviation of the logs of these two compensation measures within each industry-year in our data. This is then matched to our dataset on industries’ Tobin’s q and intangible ratios. We are left with a total of 644 observations (46 industries over 14 years).

B Steady-State Growth Path

Definition 1. A steady-state growth path is defined as a path for which aggregate establishment productivity $\{\bar{A}_t\}$ and the productivity of the newest vintage $\{\theta_t\}$ grow at a constant rate g_θ , the variables $\{r_t, R_t, N_t\}$ are constant, the economy-wide productivity-level grows at a constant rate g_z , and all aggregate variables $\{Y_t, K_t, W_t, S_t, C_t, D_t, V_t^a\}$ grow at a constant rate

$$g = ((1 + g_z)(1 + g_\theta)^{1-\nu})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha\nu}}.$$

Along the steady-state growth path, the measure over establishment productivity and promised utilities satisfies:

$$\Psi_{t+1,s+1}(A, v) = \Psi_{t,s} \left(\frac{A}{1 + g_\theta}, v \right),$$

the measure of active establishments satisfies:

$$\lambda_{t+1,s}(A, v) = \lambda_{t,s} \left(\frac{A}{1 + g_\theta}, v \right),$$

and the value of an establishment of vintage s evolves according to:

$$V_{t+1}(A, v; s + 1) = (1 + g)V_t \left(\frac{A}{1 + g_\theta}, v(1 + g)^{1-\gamma}, s \right).$$

To construct the steady-state growth path, we normalize variables in efficiency units. This allows us to restate the production technology as follows :

$$\tilde{y}_t = \tilde{k}_t^{\alpha\nu},$$

where a variable with a tilde, \tilde{x}_t , denotes the variable, x , expressed in per capita terms and in adjusted efficiency units of the latest vintage (blueprint):

$$\tilde{x}_t = \frac{x_t}{z_t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha\nu}} \theta_t^{\frac{1-\nu}{1-\alpha\nu}}}.$$

We have normalized the population L to one.

As noted in the main text, we normalize productivity by the blueprint level of technology, and denote the normalized variables with a hat: $\hat{A}_t = A_t/\theta_t$. By construction, $\hat{A} \geq 1$ for a new establishment (vintage zero). The organizational capital of existing establishments in the new efficiency units *shrinks* at a rate $(1 + g_\theta)$. See equation (2.13). This notation allows us to reformulate the optimal contract along the steady-state growth path.

The owner maximizes his value $\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v})$ by optimally choosing current compensation \tilde{c} and future promised utilities $\tilde{v}'(\cdot)$:

$$\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}) = \max \left[\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}), 0 \right]$$

and

$$\hat{V}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}) = \max_{\tilde{c}, \tilde{v}'(\cdot)} \left[\begin{array}{c} \tilde{y} - \tilde{W} - R\tilde{k} - \tilde{c} \\ + e^{-(\rho_o - (1-\gamma)\hat{g})} \int \tilde{V}(\hat{A}', \tilde{v}') \Gamma(\varepsilon') d\varepsilon', \end{array} \right]$$

subject to the law of motion for organizational capital in (2.13), the promise keeping constraint

$$\tilde{v} = u(\tilde{c}) + e^{-(\rho_m - (1-\gamma)\hat{g})} \left[\int \beta_{s'}(\tilde{v}, \varepsilon') \tilde{v}'(\hat{A}') \Gamma(\varepsilon') d\varepsilon' + \tilde{\omega}(\hat{A}') \int (1 - \beta(\tilde{v}, \varepsilon')) \Gamma(\varepsilon') d\varepsilon' \right], \quad (\text{B.1})$$

and subject to participation constraints for all \hat{A}' :

$$\tilde{v}'(\hat{A}') \geq \tilde{\omega}(\hat{A}').$$

The indicator variable β is one if continuation is optimal and zero elsewhere:

$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= 1 \text{ if } \tilde{v}'(\hat{A}') \leq \tilde{v}^*(\hat{A}') \\ \beta &= 0 \text{ elsewhere} \end{aligned}$$

The outside option process is determined in equilibrium by the zero-profit condition for new entrants:

$$\hat{V}(\max(\hat{A}\phi, 1), \omega(\hat{A})) = S, \quad (\text{B.2})$$

Equation (B.2) implies that the outside option $\omega(\widehat{A}_t)$ is constant in the range $A \in [0, \phi^{-1}]$. We refer to this range as the insensitivity region, because the outside option does not depend on the organizational capital accumulated in the current establishment. When the fraction of capital ϕ that is portable is zero, the outside option is constant for all $A > 0$.

Proof of Proposition 3.1

Proof. The first-order condition implies that compensation \tilde{c} is constant as long as the participation constraint does not bind. When a new match is formed, the normalized promised utility \tilde{v} starts off at $\tilde{v}_0 = \omega(\widehat{A}_t)$. The dynamics of the optimal wage contract can be characterized by setting up the Lagrangian. Let μ denote the multiplier on the promised utility constraint and let $\lambda(\widehat{A}')$ denote the multiplier on the participation constraint in state \widehat{A}' . We assume $\widehat{V}(\cdot)$ is strictly concave and twice continuously differentiable. When the participation constraint \widehat{A}' does not bind ($\lambda(\widehat{A}') = 0$), conditional on continuation of the relationship ($\beta = 1$), the law of motion for the promised utility in efficiency units \tilde{v} satisfies the first order condition:

$$\mu = \frac{-\partial \widehat{V}(\widehat{A}', \tilde{v}')}{\partial \tilde{v}'}$$

The left hand side is the cost to the owner of increasing the manager's compensation today. It equals μ , the shadow price of a dollar today, from the envelope condition. From the first order condition for consumption we know that $\mu = 1/u_c(\tilde{c})$. The right-hand side is the cost of increasing the manager's compensation tomorrow, from the first-order condition for \tilde{v}' . From the envelope condition, this equals $\mu' = 1/u_c(\tilde{c}')$. So, the first order condition implies that consumption \tilde{c} must be constant over time, as long as the manager's participation constraint does not bind. As a result, actual managerial compensation c grows at the rate of output growth g on the steady-state growth path. When the participation constraint does bind, the following inequality obtains:

$$\mu < \frac{-\partial \widehat{V}(\widehat{A}', \tilde{v}')}{\partial \tilde{v}'}$$

The utility cost of increasing the manager's compensation to the owner increases. From the concavity of $u(\cdot)$, it follows that the manager's promised utility and current compensation (in efficiency units) increase when the participation constraint binds. When the constraint does bind, we increase \tilde{c} to make sure the constraint holds with equality. This is optimal (see Kuhn-Tucker conditions).

This suggests a simple consumption rule is optimal. We conjecture the optimal consumption function $C(\tilde{v}, \widehat{A})$ such that:

$$C(\tilde{v}, \widehat{A}) = u_c^{-1}(1/\mu)$$

where $\mu = \frac{-\partial \widehat{V}(\widehat{A}, \tilde{v})}{\partial \tilde{v}}$. Define the running maximum of \widehat{A} as $\widehat{A}_{max,t} = \max\{\widehat{A}_\tau, \tau \leq t\}$. In addition, let T denote the random stopping time when the match gets terminated because of zero surplus:

$$T = \inf\{\tau \geq 0 : \widehat{V}(\widehat{A}_\tau, \tilde{v}_\tau) = 0\}$$

Compensation is determined by the running maximum of productivity for all $0 < t < T$:

$$c_t = c(\hat{A}_{max,t}) = \max \left\{ c_0, C \left(\omega(\hat{A}_{max,t}), \hat{A}_{max,t} \right) \right\}.$$

This consumption function satisfies the necessary and sufficient Kuhn-Tucker conditions if the continuation probability β is non-increasing in \hat{A} . This being the case, the participation constraint only binds if \hat{A} exceeds its previous maximum. It is easy to verify that β is indeed non-increasing in \hat{A} given this consumption function. \square

Proof of Proposition 3.2

Proof. The discount rate wedge induces a downward drift in the manager's consumption and promised utility. When the participation constraint does not bind, the envelope condition and the first order condition for \tilde{v}' imply the following:

$$\frac{-\partial \hat{V}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v})}{\partial \tilde{v}} = \mu = e^{(\rho_m - \rho_o)} \frac{-\partial \hat{V}(\hat{A}', \tilde{v}'')}{\partial \tilde{v}'}$$

Because $e^{\rho_m - \rho_o} > 1$, the owner's utility cost of providing compensation tomorrow is lower than μ , the cost today. As a result, the optimal promised utility is decreasing over time. Because $\mu = u_c^{-1}(\tilde{c})$, this also implies that current consumption drifts down. By construction, this consumption policy satisfies the necessary and sufficient first order conditions for optimality. \square

C Transition Experiment

Definition 2. A constant-discount rate transition between two steady state growth paths is defined as a path for which the productivity of the newest vintage grows at rate $g_{t,\theta}$, the economy-wide productivity-level grows at a rate $g_{z,t}$, and all aggregate variables $\{Y_t, K_t, w_t, C_t\}_{t=0,T}$ have a constant trend growth rate

$$g = \left((1 + g_z)(1 + g_\theta)^{1-\nu} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha\nu}}.$$

The rental rate on capital R_t and the discount rate r_t are constant. The measure over promised utilities and establishment productivity satisfies (2.10) and (2.11) during the transition. At $t = T$, this economy reaches its new steady-state growth path. So for $i > 1$:

$$\Psi_{T+i,s}(A, v) = \Psi_{T+i-1,s} \left(\frac{A}{1 + g_\theta}, v \right) \tag{C.1}$$

$$\lambda_{T+i,s}(A, v) = \lambda_{T+i-1,s} \left(\frac{A}{1 + g_\theta}, v \right). \tag{C.2}$$

Output deviates from its trend growth path during the transition because the average establishment productivity level deviates from its initial steady-state growth path $\{\bar{A}_{old,t}\}$. The average productivity

levels changes, because the joint measure over establishment-specific productivity and promised utility is changing. Along the transition path, we check that the rental rate for physical capital is constant:

$$R_t = \alpha v \tilde{K}_{new,t}^{\alpha v - 1} = \alpha v \left(\tilde{K}_{old,t} \right)^{\alpha v - 1},$$

where $\tilde{K}_t = \frac{K_t}{\frac{A_t^{1-\alpha v}}{z_t^{1-\alpha v}}}$ denotes the capital stock in *adjusted* efficiency units. The aggregate capital stock is adjusted such that

$$\varphi_t = \frac{\hat{K}_{new,t}}{\hat{K}_{old,t}} = \left(\frac{\bar{A}_{new,t}}{\bar{A}_{old,t}} \right)^{\frac{1-\nu}{1-\alpha v}}.$$

Capital is supplied perfectly elastically at a constant interest rate. Along the transition path, all aggregate variables $\{Y_{new,t}, K_{new,t}, W_{new,t}, C_{new,t}\}_{t=0,T}$ are scaled up by φ_t . This is the productivity adjustment relative to the old steady-state growth path. Once we have computed $\{\varphi_t\}$, we can back out the transition path for all the other variables.

Reverse Shooting Algorithm The objective is to compute the transition for the value function, aggregate productivity, the outside option function and the joint measure over promised consumption and productivity $\{V_t, \bar{A}_t, \omega_t, \Psi_{t,s}, \lambda_{t,s}\}$. We start in the new steady state with the new vintage-specific growth rate $g_{\theta,T}$ at T , and the “stationary” joint measure $\Psi_{T,s}$ over organizational capital and promised consumption, which satisfy the conditions in equation (C.2). We conjecture a $\{\varphi_t\}_{t=0}^T$ sequence. Because we know \hat{V}_T , the owner’s value of an establishment at the beginning of period t can be constructed recursively, starting in $i = 1$:

$$\hat{V}_{T-i}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}; s) = \max_{\tilde{c}, \tilde{v}'(\cdot)} \left[\begin{array}{c} \tilde{y}_{T-i+1} - W - R\tilde{k}_{T-i+1} - \tilde{c}_{T-i+1} \\ + R^{-1}(1+g) \int \tilde{V}_{T-i+1}(\hat{A}', \tilde{v}'; s+1) Q_{s'}(\varepsilon') d\varepsilon' \end{array} \right],$$

subject to the law of motion for capital in (2.13), the promised consumption constraint in (B.1), and a series of participation constraints:

$$\tilde{v}' \geq \tilde{\omega}_{T-i+1}(A')$$

and, finally, the value of the firm is defined as:

$$\tilde{V}_{T-i}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}) = \max \left[\hat{V}_{T-i}(\hat{A}, \tilde{v}), 0 \right].$$

We solve for $\{V_t, \bar{A}_t, \omega_t, \Psi_{t,s}, \lambda_{t,s}\}_{t=1}^T$ starting in the last period T .

Simulating Forward Next, we simulate this economy forward, starting at the initial values for $(V_0, \bar{A}_0, \omega_0, \Psi_{0,s}, \lambda_{0,s})$ in the old steady-state growth path, using our solution for the transition path $\{V_t, \bar{A}_t, \omega_t, \Psi_{t,s}, \lambda_{t,s}\}_{t=1}^T$. We use a sample of $N = 5000$ establishments. This gives us a new guess for the aggregate establishment productivity series and hence for $\{\varphi'_t\}_{t=0}^T$. We continue iterating until we achieve convergence.

D Calibration Details

To calibrate the depreciation rate, the tax rate and the capital share $\alpha\nu$, we used mostly NIPA data. Let CFC denote the consumption of fixed capital. Let K_{INV} denote the stock of inventories, obtained from NIPA Table 5.7.5B. (Private Inventories and Domestic Final Sales by Industry). Let K_{ES} denote fixed assets, obtained from NIPA Table 6.1. (Current-Cost Net Stock of Private Fixed Assets by Industry Group and Legal Form of Organization). The depreciation rate is computed as

$$\delta = CFC / (K_{ES} + K_{INV}).$$

The average tax rate τ_c is computed as follows. Let CT denote corporate taxes, let NP denote net product, let ST denote Sales Taxes, and let $SLPTR$ denote state and local taxes. The tax rate is computed as

$$\tau_c = CT / (NP - CE - ST),$$

where we compute ST as $CT - RATIO \times SLPTR$ and $RATIO$ is the average ratio of fixed assets held by non-farm, non-financial corporations to total fixed assets.

To compute the average cost of capital r , we computed the weighted-average of the average return on equity and the average return on corporate bonds over the period 1950-2005. The average return on corporate bonds was computed using the Dow Jones corporate bond index.¹⁸ The average return on equity is computed from the log price/dividend ratio and a constant real growth rate for dividends of 1.8%, the average growth rate over the sample.¹⁹ The dividend series and the price/dividend ratio from CRSP are adjusted for repurchases. The weights in the average are based on the aggregate market value of equity and corporate bonds. The resulting average cost of capital is 5.5%.

¹⁸Data are available at <http://www.globalfinancialdata.com>

¹⁹Data are available at <http://wrds.wharton.upenn.edu>

Table 1: Benchmark Calibration

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Value</i>	<i>Source</i>
ν	.75	<i>Atkeson and Kehoe (2005)</i>
δ	.06	<i>NIPA</i>
α	.30	$K/Y = 1.77$
r	.055	<i>FoF, CRSP, DJCBI</i>
ρ_o	.02	<i>equation (2.8)</i>
ρ_o	.03	
γ	1.6	
g	.022	
m_s	0	<i>job reallocation - QCEW BLS</i>
σ_s	19% exc. reall. rate	
S	4.3% exit rate	
ϕ	0.5	

Notes: This Table lists our benchmark parameter choices. Section 4.1 justifies these choices and Appendix D provides more details on the data we used. NIPA stands for National Income and Products Accounts, CRSP for Center for Research in Securities Prices, DJCBI for Dow Jones Corporate Bond Index, QCEW stands for Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages, and BLS for Bureau of Labor Statistics. The abbreviation “exc. reall. rate” stands for excess reallocation rate in the initial steady state.

Table 2: Main Results-Benchmark Calibration

	Log Compensation			Log Productivity			Aggregates				
	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	<i>EREALL</i>	<i>EXIT</i>	<i>Tobin's q</i>	$\frac{V}{(Y-S^a)}$	$\frac{M}{(Y-S^a)}$
<i>before</i>	0.94	0.01	0.08	10.69	18.27	29.16	18.96	4.33	1.40	0.83	8.27
<i>1971-1975</i>	1.48	0.01	0.09	10.80	18.32	28.99	17.83	7.74	1.40	0.83	8.04
<i>1976-1980</i>	1.24	0.01	0.08	11.00	18.25	29.13	16.62	6.65	1.43	0.89	7.88
<i>1981-1985</i>	1.75	0.01	0.10	11.09	18.42	29.38	15.30	5.62	1.46	0.93	7.72
<i>1986-1990</i>	2.31	0.02	0.11	11.26	18.32	29.80	13.52	4.08	1.50	1.00	7.51
<i>1991-1995</i>	4.34	0.03	0.13	11.67	18.43	30.76	12.87	3.56	1.54	1.07	7.37
<i>1996-2000</i>	6.41	0.09	11.77	11.79	18.05	30.84	12.70	3.53	1.56	1.12	7.29
<i>2001-2005</i>	8.22	0.13	9.73	12.22	18.36	31.78	12.26	3.05	1.59	1.18	7.22
<i>2006-2010</i>	11.03	8.63	8.94	12.58	18.53	32.58	12.02	2.94	1.62	1.23	7.17
<i>2011-2015</i>	12.78	8.82	21.47	12.57	18.50	32.52	11.90	2.84	1.62	1.22	7.11
<i>after</i>	26.98	0.09	35.07	15.36	21.14	38.98	11.35	1.20	1.64	1.26	6.47

Notes: The panel on the left reports the cross-sectional standard deviation (Std), inter-quartile range (IQR) and the inter-decile range (IDR) for log compensation $\log \tilde{c}$ and log productivity $(1-\nu) \log \hat{A}$ in percentage points. The panel on the right reports the excess job reallocation rate (EREALL), the entry/exit rate (EXIT), Tobin's q, the ratio of aggregate firm value to output ($V/(Y-S^a)$), and the ratio of managerial wealth to output ($M/(Y-S^a)$). The economy transitions from high vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,0}$ before 1971 to low vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,T}$ after 1971. The transition takes place over $T = 20$ years. The results are for the benchmark parameters.

Table 3: Compensation Sensitivity in Large Firms-Benchmark Calibration

	Top 500				Top 50			
	$\Delta c/\Delta A$	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	$\Delta c/\Delta A$	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>
<i>1971-1975</i>	-1.68	3.76	0.20	3.51	3.35	8.99	0.39	0.86
<i>1976-1980</i>	0.14	3.55	0.27	0.53	1.08	10.83	0.57	4.79
<i>1981-1985</i>	0.48	4.86	0.41	0.61	6.59	13.71	1.95	27.05
<i>1986-1990</i>	1.03	6.98	0.43	0.65	15.87	16.80	12.83	36.25
<i>1991-1995</i>	1.76	10.36	0.49	3.77	18.86	22.19	28.02	52.99
<i>1996-2000</i>	3.72	13.90	0.49	25.14	37.58	23.88	28.30	54.81
<i>2001-2005</i>	6.08	19.22	2.41	39.25	53.67	25.07	31.83	54.92
<i>2006-2010</i>	5.86	24.12	11.18	52.04	49.89	28.03	32.85	62.17
<i>2011-2015</i>	8.72	29.04	20.97	66.64	46.63	31.11	37.41	86.63

Notes: This table reports the sensitivity of compensation to size, the cross-sectional standard deviation (*Std*), inter-quartile range (*IQR*) and the inter-decile range (*IDR*) for log compensation $\log \tilde{c}$ for the 500 and 50 largest establishments. The economy transitions from high vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,0}$ before 1971 to low vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,T}$ after 1971. The transition takes place over $T = 20$ years. The table reports the ratio of market value of the establishment to the aggregate capital stock, at different percentiles of the cross-sectional market value distribution. The results are for the benchmark parameters.

Table 4: Robustness: Compensation and Productivity

	No Portability						High Portability					
	Log Compensation			Log Productivity			Log Compensation			Log Productivity		
	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>
<i>before</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.77	18.52	29.45	9.61	0.46	5.24	13.73	23.33	38.51
<i>1971-1975</i>	0.02	0.00	0.00	10.06	17.46	26.41	14.79	0.51	19.54	13.63	23.57	37.50
<i>1976-1980</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.49	15.85	24.67	12.74	5.47	16.50	13.87	23.61	37.62
<i>1981-1985</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.33	15.12	24.46	13.52	10.74	14.46	14.17	23.58	38.09
<i>1986-1990</i>	1.12	0.00	0.00	9.41	14.87	24.54	14.99	8.60	16.32	14.47	23.48	38.50
<i>1991-1995</i>	2.00	0.00	4.86	9.72	14.24	25.50	19.57	8.27	19.30	14.84	23.88	38.98
<i>1996-2000</i>	3.18	1.83	6.50	10.08	14.38	26.34	23.21	8.29	36.65	15.14	24.04	39.55
<i>2001-2005</i>	3.46	4.57	8.07	10.50	14.64	27.21	25.68	8.37	49.22	15.60	24.20	41.01
<i>2006-2010</i>	4.27	6.43	8.70	10.99	15.17	28.34	29.12	8.69	53.04	16.07	24.75	42.01
<i>2011-2015</i>	4.47	7.68	11.41	11.31	15.54	28.74	31.32	9.29	56.28	16.52	25.27	43.21
<i>after</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	13.43	16.81	33.17	48.56	29.45	98.49	21.19	32.19	55.35

Notes: The panel on the left shows results for $\phi = 0$ (no portability). The panel on the right shows results for $\phi = .75$ (high portability). The economy transitions from high vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,0}$ before 1971 to low vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,T}$ after 1971. The transition takes place over $T = 20$ years. The table reports the cross-sectional standard deviation (Std), inter-quartile range (IQR) and the inter-decile range (IDR) for log compensation $\log \tilde{c}$ and log productivity $(1 - \nu) \log \hat{A}$ in percentage points. The results are for the benchmark parameters.

Table 5: Robustness: Aggregate Variables

	Low Portability					High Portability				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<i>EREALL</i>	<i>EXIT</i>	<i>Tobin's q</i>	$\frac{V}{(Y-S^a)}$	$\frac{M}{(Y-S^a)}$	<i>EREALL</i>	<i>EXIT</i>	<i>Tobin's q</i>	$\frac{V}{(Y-S^a)}$	$\frac{M}{(Y-S^a)}$
<i>before</i>	18.93	4.32	1.36	0.74	6.02	17.67	3.40	1.37	0.76	4.99
<i>1971-1975</i>	21.78	11.68	1.38	0.82	7.61	18.03	7.14	1.35	0.72	4.48
<i>1976-1980</i>	18.49	9.07	1.43	0.89	7.59	14.94	4.70	1.38	0.76	4.54
<i>1981-1985</i>	16.26	7.06	1.49	1.01	7.51	14.37	4.33	1.40	0.80	4.61
<i>1986-1990</i>	14.59	5.67	1.58	1.16	7.42	12.15	2.46	1.44	0.86	4.58
<i>1991-1995</i>	13.20	4.29	1.66	1.32	7.24	12.27	2.52	1.45	0.88	4.59
<i>1996-2000</i>	12.64	3.85	1.72	1.43	7.12	11.86	2.40	1.46	0.91	4.54
<i>2001-2005</i>	11.92	3.03	1.77	1.52	6.97	11.32	1.74	1.47	0.92	4.49
<i>2006-2010</i>	12.05	3.22	1.81	1.60	6.92	11.63	2.21	1.47	0.92	4.50
<i>2011-2015</i>	11.87	2.98	1.84	1.66	6.84	10.75	1.36	1.48	0.93	4.46
<i>after</i>	11.50	1.48	2.11	2.19	5.77	11.24	0.84	1.45	0.89	4.09

Notes: The panel on the left shows results for $\phi = 0$ (low portability). The panel on the right shows results for $\phi = .75$ (high portability). The economy transitions from high vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,0}$ before 1971 to low vintage-specific growth $g_{\theta,T}$ after 1971. The transition takes place over $T = 20$ years. The table reports the excess job reallocation rate (EREALL), the entry/exit rate (EXIT), Tobin's q, the ratio of aggregate firm value to output ($V/(Y - S^a)$), and the ratio of managerial wealth to output ($M/(Y - S^a)$). The results are for the benchmark parameters.

Table 6: Increasing Wage Dispersion

	<i>Std</i>	<i>IQR</i>	<i>IDR</i>
Panel A: All Workers			
<i>1975-1979</i>	21.4	29.1	53.2
<i>1980-1984</i>	22.9	29.3	57.2
<i>1985-1989</i>	24.2	30.8	58.5
<i>1990-1994</i>	25.1	31.6	61.1
<i>1995-1999</i>	26.9	32.8	65.7
<i>2000-2004</i>	28.7	34.5	67.9
Panel B: All Managers			
<i>1975-1979</i>	59.4	72.9	140.8
<i>1980-1984</i>	61.3	79.8	147.5
<i>1985-1989</i>	62.9	82.5	152.7
<i>1990-1994</i>	64.8	83.8	156.6
<i>1995-1999</i>	67.2	83.3	157.7
<i>2000-2004</i>	68.8	84.2	160.4
Panel C: Top-3 Managers			
<i>1975-1979</i>	55.7	74.1	135.1
<i>1980-1984</i>	58.3	74.0	146.7
<i>1985-1989</i>	69.7	90.2	172.6
<i>1990-1994</i>	76.9	100.0	186.8
<i>1995-1999</i>	92.6	124.0	231.7
<i>2000-2004</i>	99.4	149.5	260.9

Notes: All three panels plot the cross-sectional standard deviation, inter-quartile range, and inter-decile range of log wages. Statistics are averaged over 5-year periods. In Panel A, we measure intra-industry, between-establishment wage inequality. The data are from the Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (QCEW) collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). The unit of observation is an establishment, for which we know the average wage. We calculate the within-industry wage dispersion from a panel of 55 2-digit SIC-code industries, and average across industries. In Panel B, we use individual-level data from the Current Population Survey, March issue. We select only the managerial occupations. Finally, Panel C uses data from Frydman and Saks (2006) for the three highest-paid officers in the largest 50 firms in 1960 and 1990.

Table 7: Valuation Ratios for US Corporate Sector

	(1)	(2)
	<i>Tobin's q</i>	$V/(Y - S^a)$
<i>1965-1969</i>	1.96	1.80
<i>1970-1974</i>	1.49	1.54
<i>1975-1979</i>	0.97	1.13
<i>1980-1984</i>	0.94	1.16
<i>1985-1989</i>	1.33	1.49
<i>1990-1994</i>	1.70	1.82
<i>1995-1999</i>	2.58	2.53
<i>2000-2004</i>	2.33	2.41
<i>2005-2008.I</i>	2.04	2.19

Notes: Tobin's q is the ratio of the market value of US corporations V^a divided by the replacement cost of the physical capital stock K . The value-output ratio ($V/(Y - S^a)$) is the market value of US corporations V^a divided by value-added $Y - S^a$ of the non-financial corporate sector.

Table 8: Cross-sectional Results: Tobin's q and Establishment-Level Wage Dispersion

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	-0.401 (0.296)	-0.341 (0.293)	0.232 (0.187)***	0.264 (0.185)***
<i>INTAN</i>		0.117 (0.167)		0.086 (0.105)
<i>WDISP</i>	1.113 (0.196)***	1.131 (0.194)***	0.789 (0.123)***	0.801 (0.122)***
<i>WDISP*INTAN</i>		-0.275 (0.129)**		-0.174 (0.064)*
Δ <i>Tobin q</i> / Δ <i>WDISP</i>		0.981 (0.199)***		0.706 (0.125)***
Number of Industries			47	
Observations			2632	

Notes: * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%. This table reports fixed effects estimates of *Tobin q1* and *Tobin q2* on wage dispersion (*WDISP*) for the periods 1992-2005. Wage dispersion is measured as the cross-sectional standard deviation of log wages across establishments within an industry. The regressions include year and industry fixed effects. The definition of these variables is detailed in Appendix A.2. Robust standard errors are shown in parentheses.

Table 9: Cross-sectional Results: Tobin's q and Executive Wage Dispersion

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	0.627 (0.163)***	0.750 (0.175)***	1.039 (0.101)***	1.117 (0.104)***
<i>INTAN</i>		-0.453 (0.103)***		-0.276 (0.066)***
<i>WDISP</i>	0.765 (0.174)***	0.756 (0.184)***	0.469 (0.108)***	0.459 (0.112)***
<i>WDISP*INTAN</i>		0.122 (0.061)**		0.077 (0.045)*
Δ Tobin q / Δ WDISP		0.823 (0.172)***		0.502 (0.105)***
Number of Industries			46	
Observations			644	

Notes: * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%. This table reports fixed effects estimates of *Tobin q1* and *Tobin q2* on wage dispersion (WDISP) for the periods 1992-2005. Wage dispersion is measured as the cross-sectional standard deviation of log wages across individual executives within an industry. Wages are the sum of the manager's salary, bonus, restricted stock grants, LTIP payouts, all other annual payments, and value of options granted ("tdc1"). The regressions include year and industry fixed effects. Further detail on the data is in Appendix A.2 and A.5. Robust standard errors are shown in parentheses.

Figure 1: Optimal Compensation and Size

This figure plots the running maximum of productivity on the horizontal axis, $\hat{A}_{max,t}$ against current productivity, \hat{A}_t , on the vertical axis. It considers the case in which managers and owners share the same rate of time preference $\rho_m = \rho_o$.

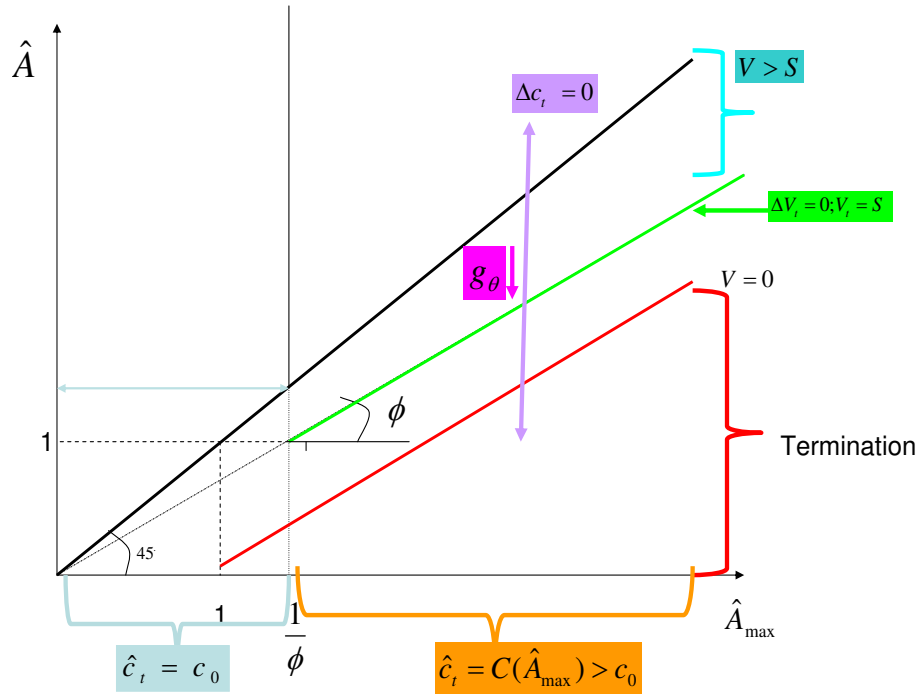


Figure 2: Optimal Compensation Contract

The left panel plots the current productivity A_t (y-axis) against the running maximum $A_{max,t}$ (x-axis). The right panel figure plots the evolution of the optimal current consumption of the manager \tilde{c} (dashed line) alongside the evolution of the establishment's organizational capital \hat{A} (full line). The latter is a measure of size and productivity of the establishment. The two time-series are produced by simulating model for 300 periods (horizontal axis) under the benchmark calibration described below ($\phi = .5$), except that the time discount rates of owners and managers are held equal: $\rho_o = \rho_m$.

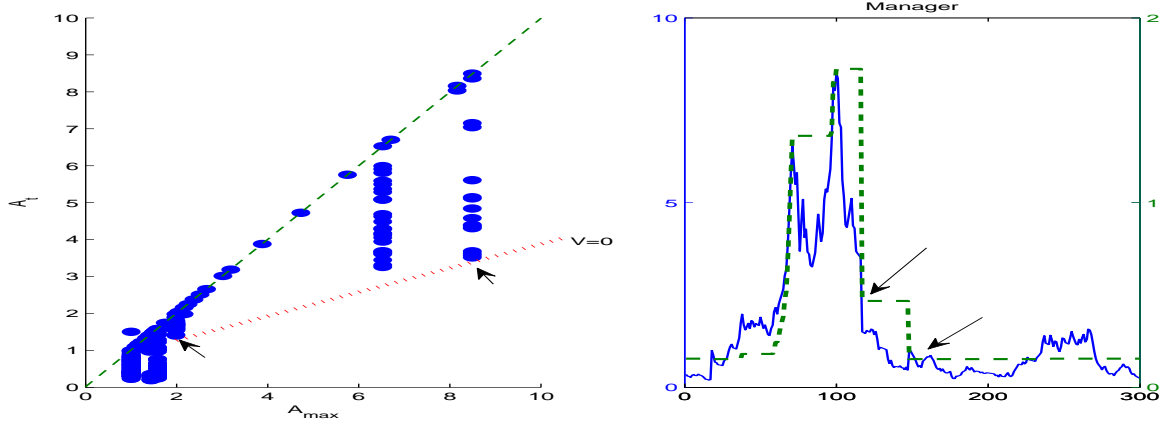


Figure 3: Payouts to Manager and Owner

The left panel plots the evolution of the optimal current consumption of the manager \tilde{c} (dashed line, measured against the right axis) alongside the evolution of the establishment's organizational capital \hat{A} (full line, measured against the left axis). The right panel plots the payouts to the owner $\tilde{\pi}$. The two time-series are produced by simulating the model for 300 periods (horizontal axis) under the benchmark calibration described below, except that the time discount rates of owners and managers are held equal: $\rho_o = \rho_m$.

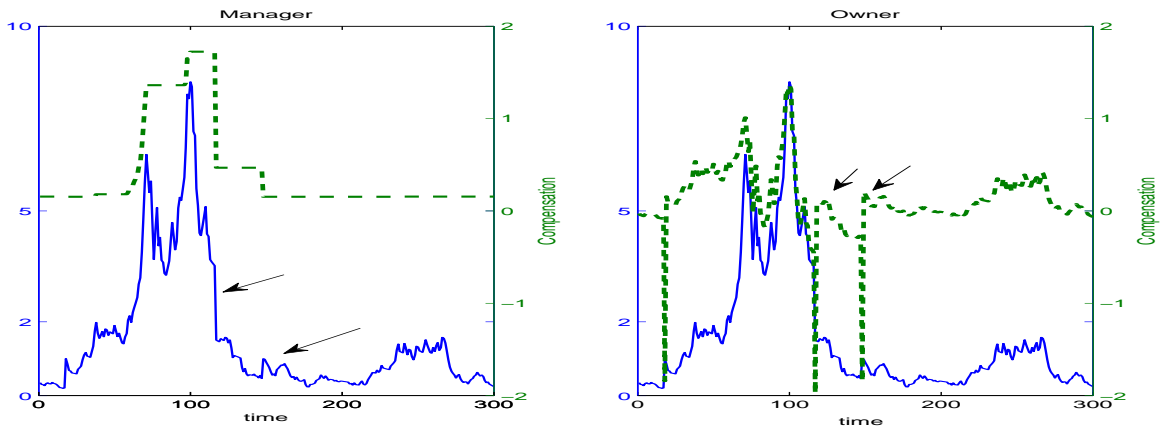


Figure 4: Payouts to Manager and Owner: Discount Rate Wedge

The left panel plots the evolution of the optimal current consumption of the manager \tilde{c} (dashed line, measured against the right axis) alongside the evolution of the establishment's organizational capital $\log \hat{A}$ (full line, measured against the left axis). The right panel plots the payouts to the owner $\tilde{\pi}$. The two time-series are produced by simulating the model for 300 periods (horizontal axis) under the benchmark calibration described below, except that the time discount rates of owners and managers are held equal: $\rho_o < \rho_m$.

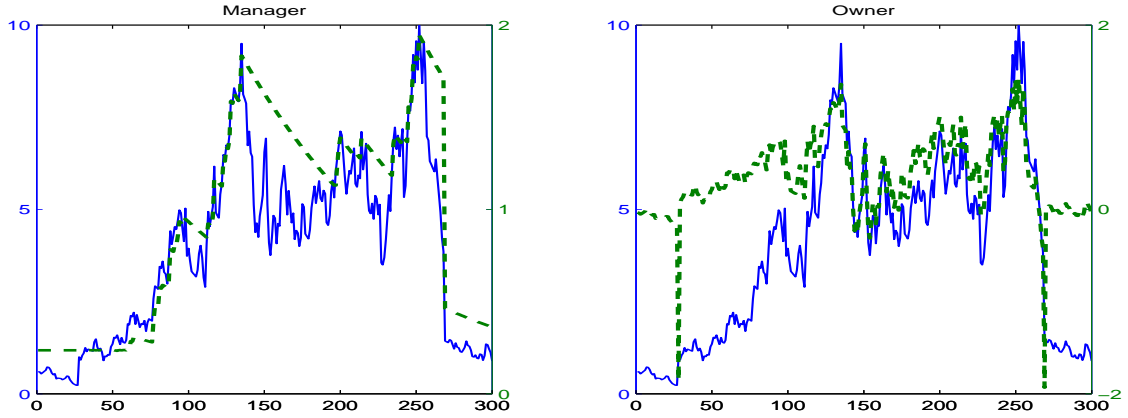


Figure 5: From Low-Powered to High-Powered Incentives

Plot of log compensation against log size of establishment. The left panel shows the initial steady-state growth path (high vintage-specific growth). The right panel shows the new steady-state growth path (high general productivity growth). The data are generated from the model under its benchmark calibration.

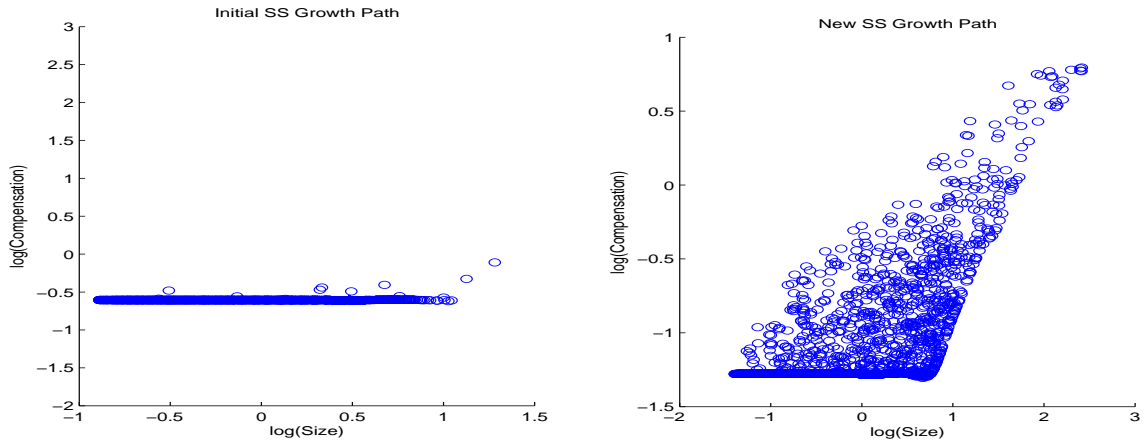


Figure 6: Compensation and Size Distribution on the New Steady State Growth Path

Histogram of log compensation and log size of establishments. The data are generated by simulating the model's new steady-state growth path (high general productivity growth) under its benchmark calibration.

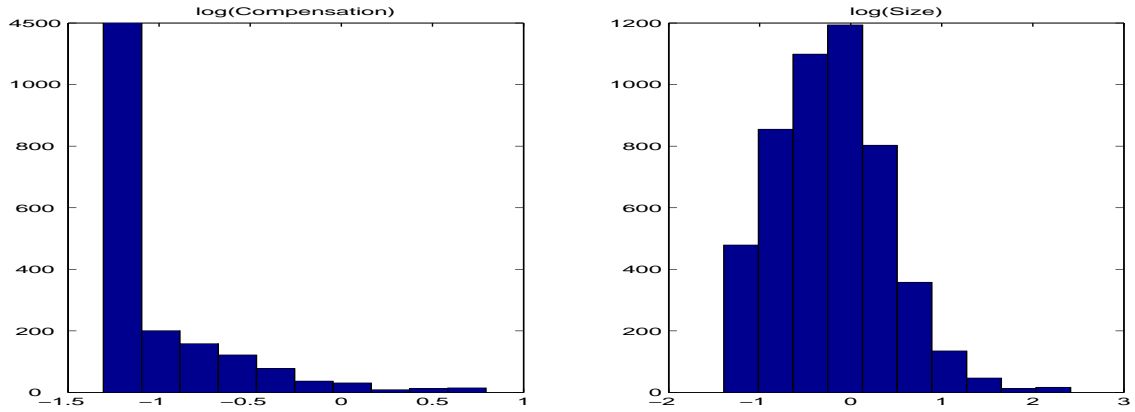


Figure 7: Size Distribution in the New Steady State

The figure plots the relationship between the log size of establishments on the horizontal axis and the rank in the distribution $\log(Rank - .5)$ on the vertical axis. The figure is for the new steady state growth path under our benchmark calibration.

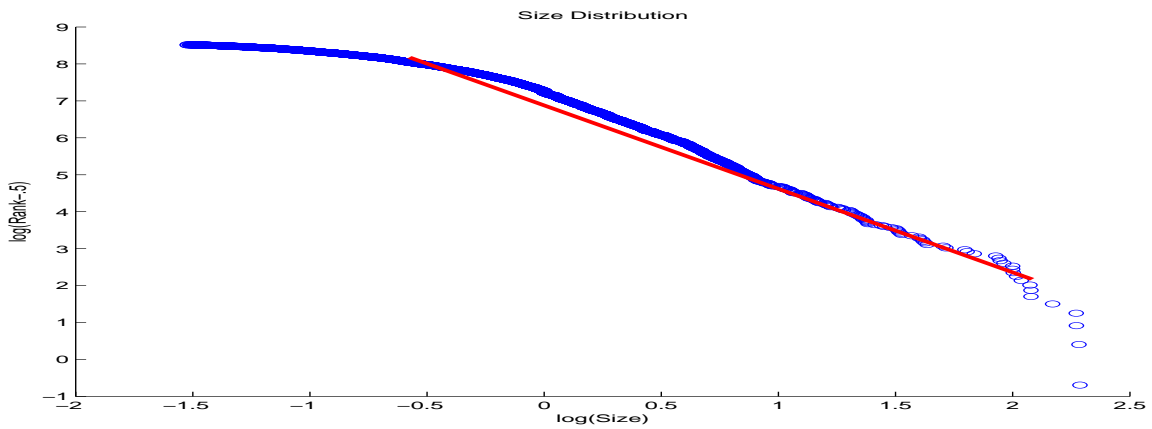


Figure 8: Excess Reallocation Rate

The blue bars show the excess reallocation rate for the manufacturing sector, constructed by Faberman (2006). The excess job reallocation rate is a direct measure of the cross-sectional dispersion of establishment growth rates. It is defined as the sum of the job creation rate plus the job destruction rate less the net employment growth rate. The Faberman data are extended to 2007.III using BLS data. The red bars show the excess reallocation rate for the private sector (BLS).

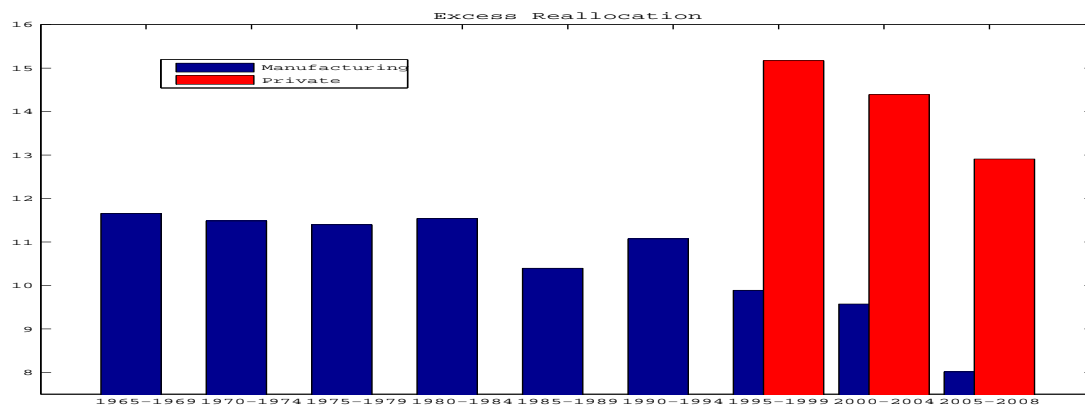


Figure 9: Cross-section

Scatter plot of steady-state growth path Tobin's q against the standard deviation of log compensation for 13 industries with g_θ varying from low (.00%) on the right side to high (6.82 %) on the left side. The results are for the benchmark parameters.

