

# **Lecture 16: Contracting, or The Rules of the Game**

**(See McMillan, Chapters 8, 9)**

## **Topics:**

- 1. Strategising versus Economising**
- 2. Using Game Theory to Enhance Efficiency**
- 3. Creating Incentives**
- 4. Designing Contracts**
- 5. Application to Financial Contracts**

# I. Strategising versus Economising

## ***Strategising ...***

**(See Williamson's paper in the Package)**

**Game Theory is usually applied to issues of “*strategising*”, i.e., beating rivals or consumers:**

- Pre-emptive threats/entry deterrence.**
- Cartel enforcement.**
- Bargaining and bidding.**

## **... versus *Economising***

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- 1. Illusion from micro theory that it's easy to minimise costs: set Wage = Value of the Marginal Product of Labour.**

**But this is very difficult and costly to monitor on the shop floor.**

- 2. Illusion that powerful tools from game theory don't help to economise, in Finance or in Human Resource Management.**

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- 2. Illusion that powerful tools from game theory don't help to economise, in Finance or in Human Resource Management.**

**But game theory can be very useful, especially for economising.**

## Contracts Integrate ...

**Contracts integrate game theory and standard microeconomics:**

- **A contract:** an agreement that supports exchange between supplier (seller) and buyer (demander).
- **Standard microeconomics:** Supply = Demand (and produce where Marginal Cost = Price) is just the Nash equilibrium of a game where no-one's decisions affect the welfare of anyone else. (Perfect competition, and all are price-takers.)
- **Costless contracts:** Even with small numbers, can achieve the perfect competition outcome.

## Prediction and Design

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**What are the *incentives*?**

- 2. Allows us to choose (or to design) the *best* one, (Choosing the Game).**

**e.g.:**

- Make or Buy? (production integration)**
- Debt or Equity? (capital structure)**
- Privatised or Publicly Owned? (ownership)**
- Division or Spin Off? (organisational structure)**

## 2. Using Game Theory to Enhance Efficiency

### General Principles

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### General Principles

1. Game theory is often taught via simple examples, chosen on an ad-hoc basis. e.g. battles, interactions, kids and credibility.
2. The Contracting perspective, by contrast, is:
  - *choose* the game, the contract,
  - *solve* (or simulate) for the equilibrium of the game, the contract,
  - *then ask*:
    - are the players *pleased* with the outcomes?
    - what could they do to achieve a *better* outcome? How?

## Choosing the rules of engagement

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**e.g. employment contract — pay, conditions, work, supervisor's interests, etc;**

**e.g. financing contract**

**e.g. franchise contract**

**e.g. outsourcing contract**

### 3. Creating Incentives

**Q: How can you make it in another person's interest to behave as you want? Especially with a divergence of interests, aims.**

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➤ **The pervasive *Principal-Agent* problems:**

- author v. publisher
- debt v. equity
- landlord v. tenant
- subcontractor v. price contractor
- employer v. employee
- insured v. insurer

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➤ **Whereas HRM: change the agent's goals → the principal's goals, now on the contrary ...**

➤ **Here: we focus on the use of monetary rewards — important (although not necessary) and simple to understand.**

## **Piece Rates, Commissions, & Royalties**

**Performance incentives are ubiquitous —**

- piece rates/bonuses/commissions for production workers**
- pay for performance (bonuses, share options)**
- sales representatives paid by commission**
- professional sports? (tournaments, winner-takes-most)**
- academic salary supplements**
- forecasters' pay  $\propto$  accuracy (?)**

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- **cost-minimisation is costly**
- **contracts vary from one extreme to another — who bears the risk?**
  - **fixed-price contracts?**
  - **cost-plus contracts?**
  - **incentive contracts?**

***A verbal contract isn't worth the paper it's written on.***

**— Samuel Goldwyn**

## Marginal Incentives

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- OK if constant, predictable relationship: effort  $\Rightarrow$  performance
- but random events, uncertainties intervene i.e. the agent may be unlucky or lucky.
- the agent may "slack" or "shirk"

## **Principals' and agents' interests may diverge.**

- So:**
- 1. Divergence of interests.**
  - 2. Imperfectly observable “efforts” of the agent.**
    - not necessarily how hard the agent works**
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**The incentive effort — is at the *margin*,  
where costs of extra effort = gain to the agent  
from extra effort.**

**The higher the commission rate  $\lambda$ , then the greater the selling effort.**

## **Carrots & Sticks**

**Look at from the worker's point of view:**

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**Ideally we'd like:**

- **Piece rates or commission as a continuum:**

$$\frac{\Delta \text{reward}}{\Delta \text{performance}} > 0$$

**where performance is measurable.**

## But incentive schemes can distort behaviour.

➤ They are often discontinuous:

$$\frac{\Delta \text{ reward}}{\Delta \text{ performance}} = 0 \text{ or } \frac{\Delta \text{ punishment}}{\Delta \text{ performance}} = 0$$

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➤ But discontinuous incentive schemes can substitute for continuous:

- wage (\$/hr) + punishment after monitoring (firing)
- wage (\$/hr) + reward after monitoring (promotion)

## Multi-Dimensional Performance

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**One tradeoff: *Quality***

- quantity v. quality  
e.g. jet engine blades  
e.g. production-line workers,  
“shirking” = higher defect rates
- when quality is hard to monitor  
e.g. solution: pay all but the quality-control workers by the piece, since it is difficult to control the quality of quality control (-:-)

## **Moral hazard might be suspected**

- **even with time payment, we can use discontinuous rewards/punishments to mimic continuous incentive schemes.**

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**e.g. Sears ended its commission to its mechanics, to enhance its credibility with its customers, who suspected over-servicing as a result of the mechanics' incentives.**

## **The Principal's Ideal Payment Scheme**

**“The shortest and best way to make your fortune is to let people see clearly that it is in their interests to promote yours.”**

**— Jean de La Bruyère (1645–1696)**

**Q: But how?**

**A:**

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**Q: But how?**

**A: Set the agent's marginal payment scheme  $\lambda$  (commission, royalty, piece rate, etc.) at 100%.**

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**Example: the salesperson example:**

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**Q: What is the ideal amount of the agent's effort, from the principal's viewpoint?**

— Assume the agent's costs equal the principal's; and assume diminishing return to effort.

— If the principal acts alone: gets 100% of the benefits and incurs 100% of the costs.

So exerts effort to the point where marginal costs equal marginal returns

or effort: marginal cost (effort) = marginal returns  
( $P = MC?$ )

— When the agent acts, he bears the full cost of any marginal effort, whatever the commission rate  $\lambda$ .

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- Thus  $\lambda = 100\% \Rightarrow$  the agent's interests and the principal's are identical, and the gain from trade to be divided between the principal and the agent is maximised.

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  - Thus  $\lambda = 100\% \Rightarrow$  the agent's interests and the principal's are identical, and the gain from trade to be divided between the principal and the agent is maximised.
- Q: But then how does the principal earn anything from the deal?**

## How about a fixed payment by the agent as well?

- As well as the commission rate  $\lambda$ , the deal includes a fixed payment  $f$  from  $\bar{A}$  to  $P$ .
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e.g. Lord Cornwallis in Bengal, in the late eighteenth century.

## 4. Designing Contracts

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**Two flaws:**

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- 2. the agent's performance is a function of outside events, but the agent bears all of the risk — but if the agent is *risk averse*, it may not be in the principal's interest to force the agent to bear the risk.**

## Contracting with Private Information

e.g. The sales manager (the principal) knows only that the value of a particular area is either high or low, but only the salesperson (the agent) knows which.

Possible for the manager to offer the agent a different package (commission rate  $\lambda$  and base salary  $B$ ) depending on whether the agent reports his sales potential as high or low, subject to the agent's fallback position.

**Accountability for what they report?**

## Honesty?

**Possible (with appropriate packages — see McMillan Ch. 9) to induce the agent to give an honest report:**

- **Total package payments must be higher when the potential is correctly reported as high than when correctly reported as low.**
- **Commission rate  $\lambda$  must be higher, and the base salary  $B$  lower, for a report of high potential than for a report of low potential.**

## How well does the principal do?

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The commission rate  $\lambda$  must do double duty:

1. elicit information, and
  2. elicit effort (as above)
- $\therefore$  it must be less than 100%,  
 $\therefore$  the agent's private information costs the principal.

Useful to use salespeople's information in contracts and in corporate planning.

## Differential wages

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- 2. people work harder when rewarded for the results of their extra effort;**
- 3. since piece-rate workers' pay is not only higher but more volatile than fixed-wage workers' pay, to some extent the higher earnings are compensation for *higher risk* borne by the piece-rate workers.**

## **Risk-Sharing versus Incentives**

**Performance-based contracts subject the agents to risk.**

**Most people are *risk-averse*: insure against risk by forgoing some of their anticipated earnings.**

**The agent is often more risk averse than the principal: a firm is better able to bear risks than its individual employees are.**

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The agent is often more risk averse than the principal: a firm is better able to bear risks than its individual employees are.

∴ We might expect a smaller average payment to the agent in return for the principal absorbing some of the risk.

But this will weaken the agent's incentives:

*NB: Any contract will be a compromise between risk-bearing and incentives.*

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**The commission rate  $\lambda$  should depend on the relative size of these two numbers.**

**So long as the principal is less risk-averse than the agent, sharing risk is a win-win proposition.**

## **Risk-Sharing via Contracts**

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*An incentive contract* is an intermediate form: allows the agent to pass on some fraction of added cost as higher price to the principal.

## Relative Performance Evaluation

With perfect information, in order to infer the agent's actions, the principal could design a contract to elicit the desired actions.

The principal can obtain more information than just the agent's output: the outputs of others.

This can be obtained through *benchmarking* with other firms, or through tournaments among agents, with prizes and rewards.

(See McMillan Ch. 10 on Setting Executives' Incentives.)

## **5. Application to Financial Contracts (e.g. Hollywood)**

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Or: Why standard finance theory doesn't tell you much about choice of contract.

### I. Fundamentals:

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- It pays:  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \$10 \text{ million with probability} = 3/4 \\ \$0 \text{ with probability} = 1/4 \end{array} \right.$
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## 5. Application to Financial Contracts (e.g. Hollywood)

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- It pays:  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \$10 \text{ million with probability} = 3/4 \\ \$0 \text{ with probability} = 1/4 \end{array} \right.$
- Investors are risk-neutral; and the market interest rate is 0% p.a.

Hence, expected NPV =  $\$10 \times 3/4 + 0 \times 1/4 - \$1$   
= \$6.5 mn > 0.

## **Finance theory and contracts.**

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To raise \$1 million, promise  $\lambda$  to solve:

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The principal gets  $(1 - \lambda) \times 3/4 \times 10 \leq \$6.5$  mn, the net wealth created.

## ... and Debt Contracts

- **Debt:** Promise to pay first  $\$D$  dollars to investors if a Success. Solving:

$$D \times \frac{3}{4} = 1, \Rightarrow D = \$1.33 \text{ million}$$

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- **Financing choice (debt or equity) is irrelevant (Modigliani-Miller).**

But if bankruptcy has cost  $b$ , then stay away from debt, as it gives Entrepreneur an expected value of  $6.5 - \frac{b}{4}$ , where the probability of bankruptcy is  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

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**Q: So why are most projects like this (large inside ownership) financed with debt?**

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### **5.1 Equity finance:**

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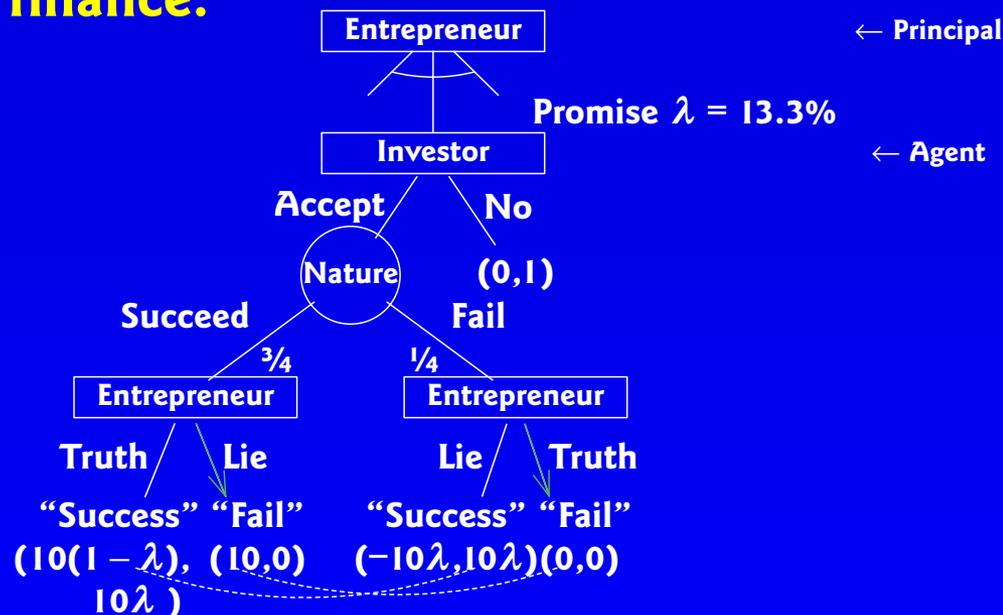
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Cannot contract directly on realised returns, since only the *insider* knows whether the project succeeded or failed (or how successful the project was). Now compare the two securities:

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Fig 1: Equity Finance (Entrepreneur, Investor)

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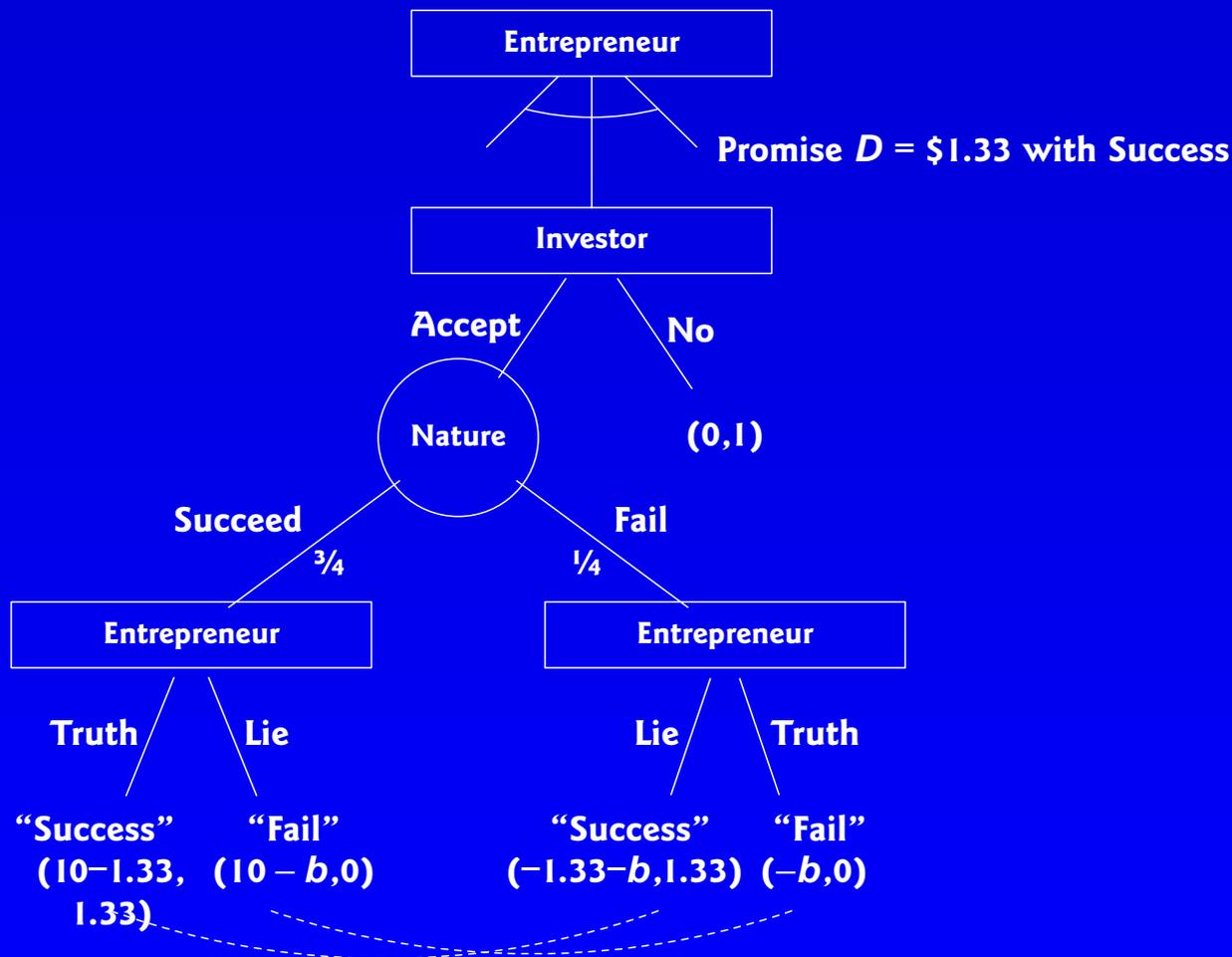
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- Mutual tragedy – inefficient.**

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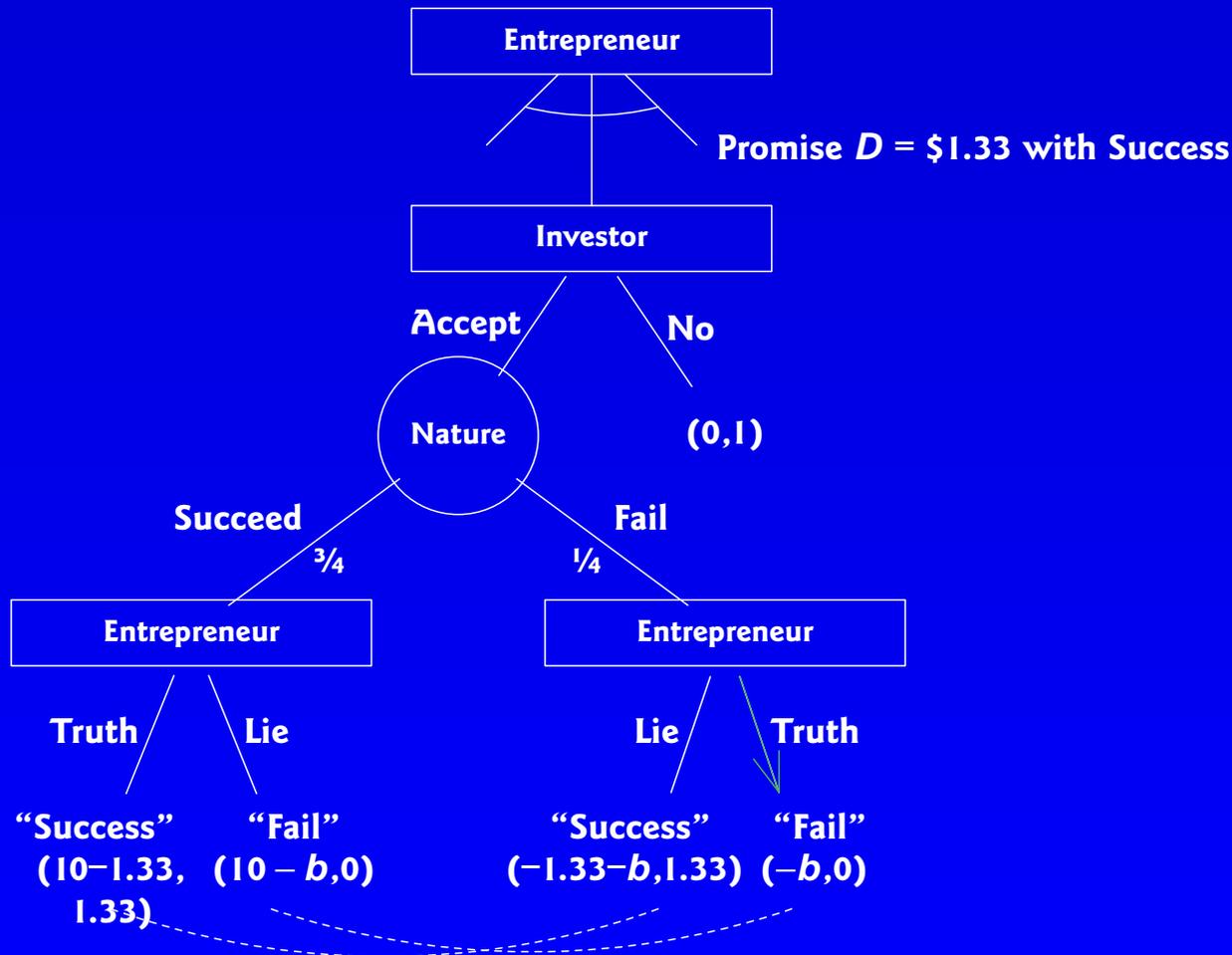


Fig 2: Debt Finance (Entrepreneur, Investor)

## **The cost of bankruptcy can induce honesty:**

➤ **The Entrepreneur tells the Truth with Success if  $b \geq \$1.33$  mn**

**(In the real world, the necessary  $b$  is scaled down by other forces, e.g., honesty, etc.)**

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More efficient, because dead-weight loss  $b$ .

Intermediaries?

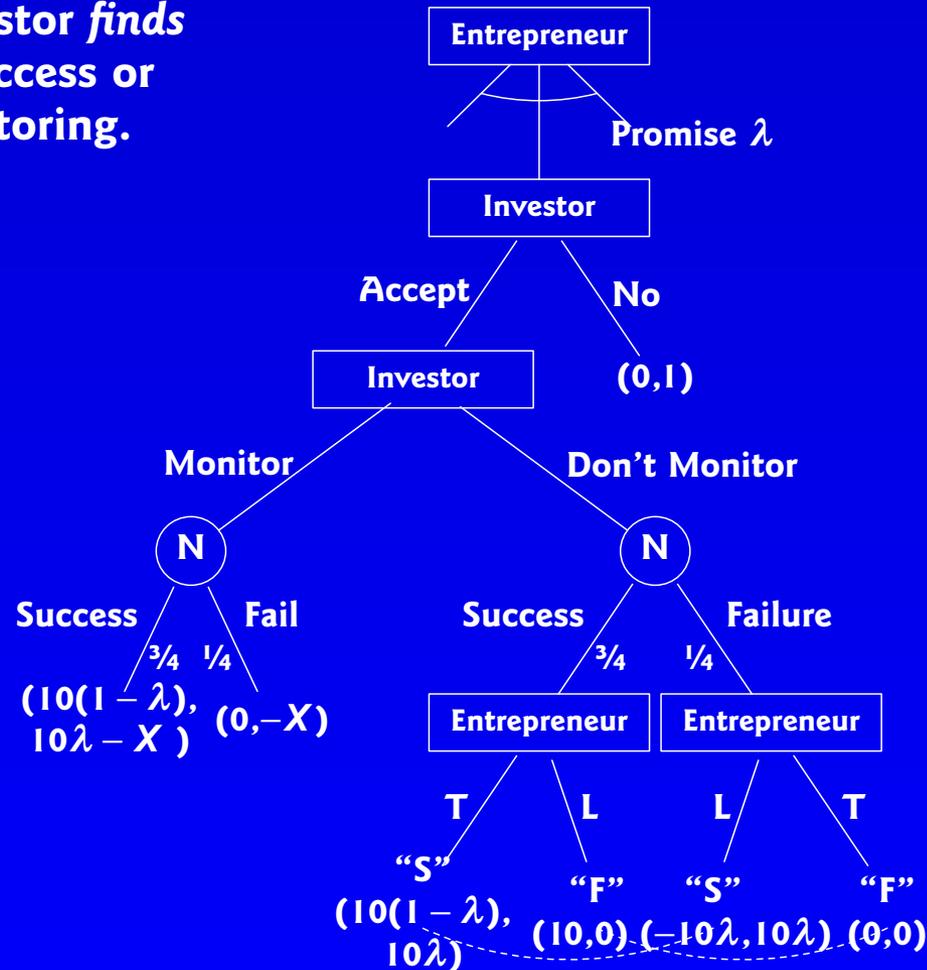
Large banks less often?

### 5.3 “*Relationship Investing*” (*Equity plus Monitoring*)

By spending  $X$  mn dollars,  
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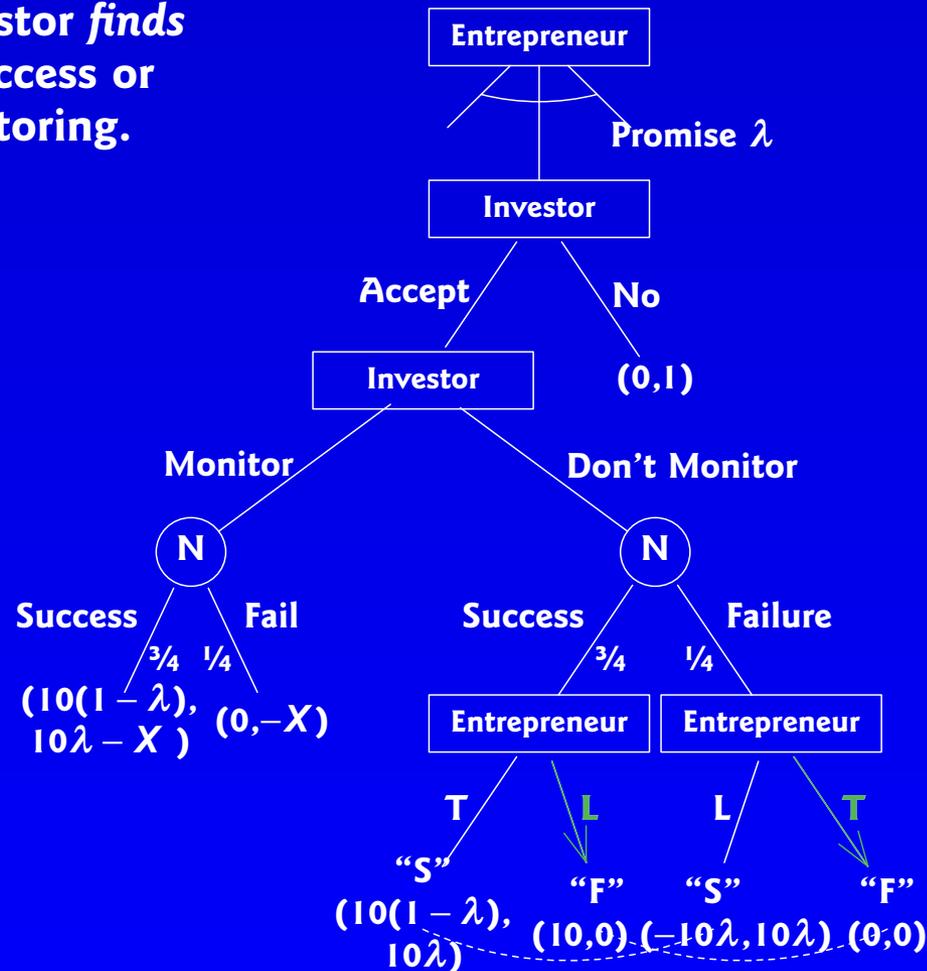


Fig 3: Relationship Investing (Entrepreneur, Investor)

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## 5.4 Conclusion: Debt or Relationship?

Consider the return to the Entrepreneur in Fig 2. (with  $b = \$1.33$  mn to induce truth-telling) and in Fig 3:

then choose Relationship Investing over Debt Finance if the expected return to you the Entrepreneur is higher for Relationship Investing than for Debt Finance, i.e., if:

$$7.5(1 - \lambda) > \frac{3}{4}(10 - 1.33) - \frac{b}{4},$$

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Idea: to have sunk monitoring cost before knowing the outcome, then it's redundant if you find out it's successful.

But don't have to do messy ex-post bankruptcy.