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Does a Different View Create Something New? The Effect of Employee Diversity on Innovation

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Abstract

A growing literature is analysing the relation between diversity in the knowledge base and the performance of firms; nevertheless, studies that investigate the impact of employee diversity on innovation are scarce. Innovation is an interactive process that often involves communication and interaction among employees in a firm and draws on their different qualities from all levels of the organisation. This paper investigates the relation between employee diversity and innovation in terms of gender, age, ethnicity, and education. The analyses draw on data from a recent innovation survey. This data is merged with a linked employer-employee dataset that allow us to identify the employee composition of each firm. We test the hypothesis that employee diversity is associated with better innovative performance. The econometric analysis reveals a positive relation between diversity in education and gender on the likelihood of introducing an innovation. Furthermore, we find a negative effect of age diversity and no significant effect of ethnicity on the firm's likelihood to innovate. In addition, the logistic regression reveals a positive relationship between an open culture towards diversity and innovative performance. We find no support of any curvilinear relation between diversity and innovation.

Key words: Diversity, Innovation, Education, Gender, Ethnicity

1. Introduction

The notion of diversity plays an important role in a wide range of scientific disciplines (Stirling, 2007). Studies have suggested that there is a positive relation between diversity in the firm's knowledge base and their innovative capabilities. Firms that are technologically diverse are more innovative and survive longer (Breschi et al., 2003; Suzuki

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and Kodama, 2004; Garcia-Vega, 2006). Firms with a variety of knowledge, experience, and skills among their employees may benefit from complementarities that can foster development in other fields (Dosi, 1982; Quintana-García and Benavides-Velasco, 2008), have a broader organisational routines and search activities (Nelson and Winter, 1982; Dosi, 1988), have a higher absorptive capacity that allow the firm to exploit external knowledge (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990; Zahra and George, 2002), and are better to exploit internal knowledge through interaction and learning (Lundvall, 1992; Woodman et al., 1993; van der Vegt and Janssen, 2003). These theories suggest that employee diversity has a positive effect on innovation.

The relation between diversity in the composition of the workforce and firm performance was addressed in Penrose's work from 1959 where she states that: "It is the heterogeneity of the productive services available or potentially available from its resources that gives each firm its unique character" (Penrose, 1959, p. 75). An important element of these resources is a firms' human capital resources (Penrose, 1959; Barney, 1991). Human capital resources have a cognitive dimension, such as vocational training and experience; and a demographic dimension, such as gender, age and cultural background, which affect the application and combination of existing knowledge and the communication and interaction between employees.

Employee diversity is often considered to be positive since it might create a broader search space and make the firm more open towards new ideas and more creative. Ideally, diversity should increase a firm's knowledge base and increase the interaction between different types of competences and knowledge. As the cultural, educational and ethnic background among employees becomes more diverse so does the knowledge base of the firm. This creates possibilities for new combinations of knowledge (Schumpeter, 1934). However, increasing employee diversity strengthens the need for interaction and communication within the firm and might lead to conflict and distrust.

A growing literature is analysing the relation between diversity among top management teams and the performance of firms. The characteristics of the top managers appear to influence growth, productivity and revenues, since it influences their decisions, strategy, and responsiveness to change (Murray, 1989; Wiersema and Bantel, 1992; Pitcher and Smith, 2001). Nevertheless, studies focusing on the relationship between diversity and innovation are scarce (Bantel and Jackson, 1989; O'Reilly and Flatt, 1989; Zajac et al., 1991; van der Vegt and Janssen, 2003). This paper takes its point of departure in these studies but extends this work in multiple ways. First, we include all the employees within the firm because the composition of the top management team does not necessarily reflect the composition of the larger pool of human capital in the firm (Laursen et al., 2005). This approach is supported by the notion that innovation is an interactive process that often involves communication and interaction among employees in a firm and draws on their different qualities from all levels of the organisation (Lundvall, 1985, 1992). Second, the analysis is based on a large-scale innovation-based survey that directly addresses innovation and not innovation proxies. The contributions of this paper are substantive. First of all by using an employer-employee database. This enables us to look at all the employees in the firm and to extend the analysis to a larger sample and more industries compared to previous studies. In addition, a major contribution is made to the scarce literature on human capital diversity and innovation thereby arguing to move beyond the much more studied technological dimension of diversity.

The empirical analysis is based on two types of datasets: The first is a questionnaire based innovation survey (DISKO4) collected in 2006 focusing on organisational and technical change in more than 1,600 Danish manufacturing and service firms in the period from 2003 to 2005. This database is merged with register data from the Integrated Database for Labour Market Research (IDA) that contains detailed information on all Danish firms and all individuals on the labour market. Therefore it is possible to link employee diversity in terms of gender, age, education, and ethnicity with the innovative behaviour of these firms. The analysis shows that employee diversity is positively associated with the innovative performance of firms. We find a positive relationship between employee diversity on gender and education, and the firms' likelihood to innovate, while a negative relationship can be observed on diversity in age. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 contains a discussion on diversity and innovation. Section 3 describes the data. Section 4 presents the results of the logistic regressions analysis and Section 5 discusses the results. Section 6 presents the conclusions and suggestions for further research.

2. Diversity and Innovation

Studies in evolutionary economics often consider diversity, in tangible and intangible resources, within firms to be positively related to performance. Firms with a diverse knowledge base that covers a wide range of technologies have better organisational problem solving routines and broader search activities (Nelson and Winter, 1982; Dosi, 1988). Technologically diverse firms are also found to be more innovative and survive longer (Breschi et al., 2003; Suzuki and Kodama, 2004; Garcia-Vega, 2006). Technological diversity creates cross-fertilization and spillovers between related knowledge bases which positively affects the firm's innovative competences. When firms broaden their technological base by adding new technologies, they also widen their search for complementarities and novel combinations (Quintana-García and Benavides-Velasco, 2008). Diversity in a firm's knowledge base also increases the firm's ability to exploit knowledge from external sources (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990; Zahra and George, 2002). The firm's absorptive capacity depends on the diversity in knowledge in the firm. Knowledge diversity improves the basis for learning and enables firms to make new combinations (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990). Firms with diversity in the skills, knowledge and experiences among their employees also increase the possibilities for new combinations of internal knowledge through interaction and learning (Lundvall, 1992; Woodman et al., 1993; Wenger, 2000; van der Vegt and Janssen, 2003). Different points of views, educational backgrounds and experiences facilitate the exploratory competence of a firm through better problem solving and generation of new ideas (Quintana-García and Benavides-Velasco, 2008).

However, in the knowledge-based economy a firm relies less on their tangible and more on their intangible resources (Teece et al., 1997). As a result the firm's knowledge base, in the form of human capital, becomes even more important in explaining its performance. This human capital is affected by diversity in the composition of employees and their interaction (Laursen et al., 2005). Thus, employee diversity is a key variable for understanding the knowledge base of the firm. Employee diversity is often measured by individuals' demographic attributes that are used as a proxy for different attitudes, knowledge bases and cognitive models (Williams and O'Reilly, 1998; Harrison and

Klein, 2007). Individual employees' knowledge structures are also affected by group membership, social interactions, and organisation of the firm (Walsh, 1995).

Many of the previous studies on the relation between diversity and firm performance have focused on the effect of diversity in the top management teams (TMT). The upper-echelon framework analyses factors that affect the executive leadership's strategy formation and subsequently organisational behaviour and performance. Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990) argues that functional background and demographic characteristics influence the managers' interpretation of problems and the length of tenure is related to strategic inertia. However, they also found that the characteristics of the management team as a whole had greater predictive power for firm performance than the characteristic of the top manager. Laursen et al. (2005) takes a broader perspective and analyses the composition of all the engineers in Danish engineering consulting firms to see how employee diversity affects firm performance. They argue that firm performance is not only related to levels of human resources, but also to the composition of these resources. They also argue that too little and too much diversity can have a negative impact, which implies an inverted curvilinear relation between diversity and performance. They discover that combining fundamentally different skills lead to a competitive advantage, however, they unexpectedly find some support for a curvilinear relationship between diversity and performance, i.e. a low level of diversity and a high level of diversity is positive for performance.

In their review of 40 years of research on demography and diversity in organisations Williams and O'Reilly (1998) finds that diversity has both direct and indirect effects on processes and performance of groups. However, some results point towards a positive effect of diversity, while others stress the negative effect of an increase in diversity, thus diversity has potentially two opposite effects. Recent literature reviews find similar results (see, e.g., Horwitz, 2005; Harrison and Klein, 2007; Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007). Many field studies find no or a negative effect on performance of some dimensions of diversity, while studies in controlled settings often find a positive effect. Williams and O'Reilly (1998) argues that the difficulties of finding significant positive effects of diversity might stem from differences in defining performance indicators and the lack of separating the creativity (invention) phase from the implementation (innovation) phase. Employee diversity might improve the creative process, but impede the innovation phase. However, while this might be likely for smaller groups, overall employee diversity can make the organisation more flexible and adaptive in the implementation phase.

Innovation often depends on groups of individuals in the organisation. It is in the context of a complex social system in an organisation, where the different types of individual knowledge come into play to generate new knowledge or ideas (Woodman et al., 1993). Therefore the composition of individuals within the firm is an important factor for understanding innovation, since diversity in the composition of a firm's employees contributes to diversity in the knowledge base. As a result, it is not sufficient to analyse diversity in TMT but consider the composition of the entire firm. Innovation is an interactive process, where employees interact in groups and develop, discuss, modify, and realise new ideas. Thus, diversity in groups is likely to promote innovation behaviour (van der Vegt and Janssen, 2003). Wenger (2000) argues that innovative learning requires diversity in the experiences and competences of a group. The interplay between diverse competences and experiences generates learning. However, if they are too disconnected

then only a little learning occurs (Wenger, 2000).

Theories on decision making in groups suggest that the quality and consensus of group decisions improve in more diverse groups, but it takes longer time to reach an agreement. To make good decisions when facing uncertain and complex problems it often requires some degree of cognitive conflict and expression of different viewpoints to avoid premature consensus (Priem et al., 1995). However, diversity is negative if it creates a socio-emotional conflict between individual employees since this type of conflict is not related to a fact-based problem solving process and draws important resources away from the task at hand (Priem et al., 1995; Pelled et al., 1999).

Only a few studies look at the relationship between diversity and innovation performance. Bantel and Jackson (1989) analyses how the composition of TMT in the finance sector affects innovation. They define innovation as the number of products, programs and services that firms had adopted or developed. They find a positive relation between educational level, functional background, and innovation. Zajac et al. (1991) finds that age similarity among members is positively related to innovation in internal corporate joint ventures in the medical sector. Van der Vegt and Janssen (2003) applies a broader perspective and analyses the effect of task interdependence and work group diversity on innovative behaviour in a Dutch multinational financial services firm. They find no direct link between work group diversity and innovative behaviour when they control for size and organisation of work. Pitcher and Smith (2001) finds that diversity in TMT is positive for innovation, but it has some limits if managers receive orders from the firm headquarters.

Williams and O'Reilly (1998) and Horwitz (2005) suggest that diversity has an effect on performance, although some researchers have found negative effects and others positive effects of diversity. The positive effects relate to openness, creativity, learning, flexibility, broader search space, better problem solving, and new combinations of knowledge. Diversity can also increase the firm's absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990). The costs of diversity are related to lack of economies of scale in the knowledge production, distrust, conflict, and dissatisfaction. Diversity also leads to increased transaction costs, since interaction and communication between different knowledge bases and groups might be difficult. Social identity theory predicts that diversity in groups often results in competitive behaviour and conflict. Therefore, diverse work groups experience less cooperation and internal communication than homogeneous work groups (Joshi and Jackson, 2003). However, Joshi and Jackson (2003) argue that diversity improves the work group's external relationships. This allow them to acquire knowledge through cooperation with employees from other work groups, while the homogeneous work groups will focus on internal cooperation. Thus, diversity has a positive side and a negative side. However, in their discussion of why they do not find any negative effects of diversity Bantel and Jackson (1989) argue that: "This may be because the dysfunctional effects of heterogeneity occur only when extremely high levels of diversity exist, and such extreme diversity is less likely among members of top management teams" (Bantel and Jackson, 1989, p. 118). However, work organisation, and organisational recruitment policies are working against potential negative effects of diversity. When firms hire new employees they try to select people with a profile that fits the needs of the firm in terms of skills, experience, values, and norms. In addition, there is self-selection among the applicants that reduces the disparity between employees. Through these selection processes firms avoid extreme levels of diversity that might cause negative effects.

Interaction between diverse knowledge bases in a firm is necessary to experience an effect of diversity. Innovation is an interactive process and diversity among those who interact promotes the innovation process, since diversity affects the way knowledge is generated and applied in the innovation process. Therefore employee diversity should generally have a positive effect on innovation, but high levels of diversity might create conflict, information overload and slow down the innovation process. Thus, there is a trade-off between diversity and the commonality of knowledge across individuals (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990; Wenger, 2000).

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relation between employee diversity and the likelihood that firms innovate.

Hypothesis 2: The likelihood that firms innovate decreases for high levels of employee diversity.

The characteristics of employees differ along a wide range of dimensions and their attitudes, values, cognitive models and knowledge bases are generated through complex processes. To measure the extent of diversity among employees it is necessary to look at measurable characteristics that have influenced their experience, cognitive model, identity and knowledge base. The characteristics can be divided into ascribed and achieved characteristics (Ruef et al., 2003). The ascribed characteristics are demographic attributes, such as gender, age, ethnicity and nationality, while the achieved characteristics are educational background, functional background, and work experience. Despite that we argue on the overall positive effect of employee diversity on the likelihood to innovate, some of the above-mentioned demographic attributes might be not or negatively associated with innovative performance.

Milliken and Martins (1996) and Harrison and Klein (2007) argue that diversity in ascribed characteristics, such as ethnic background, nationality, gender, and age can have negative affective consequences for the firm. Members of the minority group can experience less job satisfaction, lack of commitment, problems with identity, perceived discrimination, etc. However, some of the problems disappear when the minority group grows (Milliken and Martins, 1996). In addition, Milliken and Martins (1996) finds that the cognitive consequences are a broader range of perspectives, increased number of ideas and better innovative performance. Horwitz (2005) argues that cognitive diversity is positively related to firm performance, but diversity in achieved characteristics has a stronger positive effect on performance than ascribed characteristics. Kilduff et al. (2000) analyses the demographic component of TMT diversity by gender, age and race. They find that these characteristics give a more accurate reflection of how much a team differs in attitude, values and norms. Pelled et al. (1999) argues that diversity in age reduces harmful emotional conflict since similarity in age enables comparisons of careers that can lead to rivalry. In addition, teams that consist out of a mix of young and old individuals might develop aggressive strategies and bold ideas, but also have a mechanism in place that can evaluate these new ideas (Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Horwitz, 2005). Zajac et al. (1991) finds a negative effect of diversity in age and service innovation performance. They argue that differences in perspectives on a wide range of issues and differences in training between young and old create disagreement that lowers innovative performance.

Bantel and Jackson (1989) finds a negative relationship between average age and innovative performance. Gender and age clearly affect the individual's experiences and views of the world, e.g. different generations experience different political, economical and technological trends that influence their attitude, perspectives and ideas. Diversity in gender is about balance between the two genders and can be expected to be positively associated with innovative performance. Due to the ambiguous impact of age diversity on innovative performance we expect a neutral or negative impact; however, a low average age could enhance the innovative performance.

Hypothesis 1a: There is a positive relation between gender diversity and the likelihood that firms innovate.

Hypothesis 1b: There is a negative or neutral relation between age diversity and the likelihood that firms innovate.

Ethnicity can be used as a proxy for cultural background and diversity in ethnicity can be expected to be positive for innovative performance, since it broadens the viewpoints and perspectives in the firm (Richard, 2000; Dahlin et al., 2005). Some levels of diversity in ethnicity might be positive associated with innovation, high degree of diversity in ethnicity might be negative since it can create conflict and cliques due to social categorization (Dahlin et al., 2005). Nevertheless, selection mechanisms and the dominance of one ethnic group (i.e. in this case Danes) will form a natural barrier toward high degrees of diversity.

Hypothesis 1c: There is a positive relation between diversity in ethnicity and the likelihood that firms innovate.

Achieved characteristics, such as skills and education of employees, are an important part of the firms' human capital. Firms employing workers with a high education are more likely to be innovative and the average level of diversity in employees' education constitutes an important part of the firms' absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990; Wenger, 2000; Lundvall, 2002). Murray (1989) analyses how diversity in the TMT influence firm performance. He uses age, tenure, occupational background and educational background based on different educational levels (i.e. graduates, undergraduates, doctorates) in several disciplines (e.g. liberal arts, engineering, science, business, law, etc.). Murray finds a positive relation between educational diversity and firm performance. The educational background is an important part of the employee's knowledge base and it also influences the working methods. The employee has a professional identity rooted in education. This professional identity affects the employees decision making and views on how to identify and solve problems (Joshi and Jackson, 2003). Dahlin et al. (2005) argues that educational diversity will enhance the information use, while too much diversity will reduce the ability to diffuse the information between employees. It is expected that educational diversity is positively associated with the innovative performance of firms, but a high degree of diversity might be negatively associated since it increase coordination and communication costs.

Hypothesis 1d: There is a positive relation between educational diversity and the likelihood that firms innovate.

3. Data and Sample

The quantitative analysis is based on innovation survey data from the DISKO4¹ questionnaire survey on organisations, employees and research and development strategies in Danish firms. The DISKO (Danish Innovation System: Comparative analyses of challenges, strength and bottlenecks) innovation survey was sent to a stratified sample of Danish firms with more than 20 employees in 2006. The survey population includes all firms that participated in the previous DISKO survey, all firms with more than 100 fulltime employees in the selected industries and a sample of firms with less than 50 employees and 50-99 employees to make the sample representative to the population of Danish firms. The questionnaire was sent to the management of 4,136 companies, 1,775 answers were received, which gives a response rate of 42.9 percent.

To obtain detailed background information on the firms in the innovation survey the sample was merged with data from the IDA dataset (Integrated Database for Labour Market Research). IDA is a linked employer-employee database maintained by Statistics Denmark and it contains information on individuals and firms retrieved from government registers from 1980 onwards. All the required individual and firm level data needed to create the diversity measures are available in this database. The survey refers to the period 2003-2005 and therefore the data is merged with IDA data for November 2002. This provides information on the composition of the firm at the start of the survey period.² We exclude those firms that did not answer whether they innovated and firms without background information, which reduce the sample to 1,648 firms. More information on the sample can be found in Timmermans (2008).

This study has certain limitations. Whenever the firm has multiple plants, in our sample 42.26 percent of the firms have more than one plant and 10.34 percent of the firms have more than five plants, the information from the DISKO survey is merged with the characteristics of the largest plant in the firm. The questionnaire was sent to the head office of each firm and it is not possible to identify this specific workplace in the database. Another limitation is that it is not possible to identify the persons who interact with each other or who are involved in the specific innovation process. We only identify employee diversity at the start of the survey period. Changes in employment are not taken into consideration.

3.1. Diversity Measures

In this paper, employee diversity is defined as the distribution of differences among the members of the firm with respect to a common attribute. Diversity is thus treated as a unit-level compositional construct (Harrison and Klein, 2007). These differences are measured based on three dimensions, i.e. variety, balance, disparity (Stirling, 2007;

¹The DISKO4 survey on organisations, employees, and research and development strategies in Danish firms was conducted by Statistics Denmark in 2006 on behalf of four research groups (IKE, CARMA, CCWS, and CIP) from Aalborg University. Over time, four DISKO surveys have been conducted: DISKO1 in 1996, DISKO2 in 2001, DISKO3 in 2004, and DISKO4 in 2006. For a more thorough explanation of the DISKO research see http://www.business.aau.dk/ike/data.html

²The questionnaire was only sent to those firms that had 20 employees or more in 2006. Since we use information on the sampled firms in the year 2002 some of the firms have less than 20 employees.

Harrison and Klein, 2007). Variety relates to the number of categories of a certain attribute that are present in the firm where a high number of categories results in a high level of diversity. Balance is based on the shares of the specific categories where a more equal distribution of the categories gives a higher degree of diversity. The last dimension of diversity is disparity. This dimension refers to the distance between the outer boundaries of the categories within one characteristic. (Harrison and Klein, 2007) makes a distinction between separation and disparity where the first relates to horizontal differences, e.g. difference in position, opinion, education, and the latter on vertical differences, e.g. status and pay.

In this analysis two different measures are used. For the categorical variables we use a Shannon-Weaver entropy index, a method often used to measure diversity in organisational teams, to indicate the degree of diversity in the firm. Entropy is defined as:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i(\ln \frac{1}{p_i}) = (p_1(\ln \frac{1}{p_1}) + p_2(\ln \frac{1}{p_2}) + \dots + p_n(\ln \frac{1}{p_n})$$
 (1)

This entropy index is a dual concept measure that includes the variety and balance of the categories (Junge, 1994; Harrison and Sin, 2006; Stirling, 2007). However, the entropy index is more sensitive to an increase in variety than an increase in balance (Peet, 1974). Diversity on variables with a continuous scale can be measured by using the standard error and the coefficient of variation. The most appropriate measure for measuring diversity in this study is, however, the standard error since it best illustrates the separation of attitudes (Harrison and Klein, 2007). The coefficient of variation, which is the standard error divided by the average, puts more emphasis on the dominance of those who have a higher amount of a given attribute that is more appropriate when measuring diversity in status and pay.

3.2. Variables

3.2.1. Independent Variables

The characteristics that form the basis for our diversity measures are gender, age, ethnicity, and education. These are, with the exception of age, all categorical variables. For gender the categories are straight-forward but besides the entropy index (GenderDiv) a second set of variables is constructed. To determine the effect of a specific gender composition on the likelihood to innovate, and more specifically to test whether a balanced gender composition is more beneficial than an unbalanced gender composition, we create five compositional groups (Gendergroup 1 - Gendergroup 5) based on the share of the most represented gender: Group 1: 90-100 percent of the same gender, Group 2: 80-90 percent of the same gender, Group 3: 70-80 percent of the same gender, Group 4: 60-70 percent of the same gender and Group 5: 50-60 percent of the same gender. The age of the employees is represented by a natural number. Therefore diversity in age (AgeDiv) is measured by the standard deviation of age. In addition, a variable is created that indicates the average age of the employees (AgeMean).

To measure ethnicity (EthnDiv) we use the individual's country of origin. Subsequently, we divided these into six different groups: Danish, Nordic, EU15 and Swiss, other Europeans, other western countries, and the rest of the

world.³ Diversity in ethnicity is measured by calculating the entropy value of these categories.

The diversity in employees' education (HighEducDiv) focuses on the diversity among employees with a higher education, i.e. bachelor degree or higher. We focus on these education levels since preliminary studies of the data revealed a positive effect of having at least one highly educated employee in the firm on the likelihood of introducing an innovation. These individuals are divided into sixteen different higher education categories making a distinction between Bachelor's, Master's and Ph.D. degrees in social sciences, humanities, food and health science, engineering, and natural sciences. There is also a category for persons that are educated as high-school teachers and officers in the army, navy, and air force. In addition to the entropy index a dummy variable on the presence of at least one highly educated employee is added (HighEducDummy) as well as a variable that indicates the share of highly educated employees in the firm (HighEducShare).

Another issue related to diversity is how open firms are toward diversity. The openness of firms toward diversity is measured by a dummy variable (DivPolicy). This variable is derived from the questionnaire and indicates whether the firm has an active approach in hiring older and/or foreign employees.

3.2.2. Dependent and Control Variables

The dependent variable in the analysis is whether the firm introduced an innovation during the period 2003-2005. Innovation is defined as the introduction of a new product or service, excluding minor improvements on already existing products and services.

In addition to the variables listed above, we also add the usual predictors of innovation starting with the variable *OrgChange*. This variable indicates whether the firm has undergone important organisational changes during the period 2003-2005. Earlier DISKO studies show that organisational change is important for innovation (Lundvall, 2002). We also control for diversity in collaboration with external partners. Based on the questionnaire we create dummy variables for high intensity collaboration along the value chain (ValueChainColl) and knowledge institutes (KnowColl). The last three variables control for industry, size, and the age of the firm. The share of innovative firms varies between industries. To capture this variation we use industry fixed effects based on the two-digit NACE industry classification. For each class, a dummy variable is created and given the value one whenever the firm is active in this specific industry. Those two-digit industry classes with a low number of observations have been merged together with their most related two-digit industry class. In total we created 35 different industry groups. For size we created a total of 51 different size groups. The reason for using these size group dummies instead of a continuous size variable is two-fold. First, the diversity measures are very dependent on the size of the firm. Large firms can be more diverse in the number of categories of a specific multi-categorial characteristics; for this reason there is a high correlation

³The citizens in the different ethnicity groups are: **Danish**: Danish, Greenlandic, Faeroe; **Nordic**: Norwegian, Swedish, Finnish, Icelandic. **EU15 and Swiss**: All EU15 citizens excluding the ones mentioned above and including citizens from Liechtenstein, Monaco, Andorra, San Marino, and Switzerland. **Other Europeans**: All European citizens excluding the ones mentioned above. **Other Western Countries**: United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan. **Other World**: Citizens not included elsewhere.

between diversity in education, which has many categories, and size. Second, by using size fixed effects, we measure the impact of diversity on the likelihood within a group of firms of similar sizes. The age of the firm (FirmAge) is measured by identifying the start date and consequently calculate the age of the firm in year. Natural log values of this measure are used to reduce the impact of a skewed distribution.

3.3. Models

The above-mentioned variables are used in a logistics regressions where the first set of logistic regression models test whether there exist a relationship between diversity in the ascribed characteristics and the likelihood to innovate, see Table 3. The independent variables in *Model 1* are: GenderDiv (Hypothesis 1a), AgeDiv (Hypothesis 1b) EthnDiv (Hypothesis 1c). For education, we only tested whether there is a relation between the presence of a highly educated worker (HighEducDummy) and the firm's likelihood to innovate. Industry and size fixed effects are included in the models, but we do not report the results.

Model 2 extends the previous model with additional explanatory variables to test the robustness of the model. The variables added are OrgChange, the presence of openness toward diversity (DivPolicy) and whether the firm has collaborated with along the value chain (ValueChainColl) and/or with knowledge institutes (KnowColl). In addition, the education measure is changed into a share of highly educated in the firm (HighEducShare).

The last model in this set, *Model 3*, makes a distinction between the different gender distributions. Since gender entropy is based on two categories, it is replaced by the five gendergroup variable to analyse the effect of different distributions of men and women in the firm. Variables for the presence of highly educated employees (HighEduc-Dummy) and the diversity among these highly educated employees (HighEducDiv) are added to measure the effect of education diversity (Hypothesis 1d). The HighEducDummy variable is added because the entropy index can be *zero* when there is no or only one type of highly educated groups present in the firm.

Table 4 presents the last logistic regression model. *Model 4* adds the squared values of the diversity variables for gender, age, ethnicity, and education to test for a curvilinear relation (Hypothesis 2).

3.4. Descriptive Statistics

In Table 1 we present the descriptive statistics of the variables that are used in the analyses. More than 55 percent of the firms in the sample introduced at least one innovation in the period from 2003 to 2005. A total of 65 percent of the firms also indicated that they have been through a process of organisational change. The interpretation of the entropy variables is a bit more complicated because of the construction of these. The number of categories will determine the potential highest entropy value for each variable. The correlation matrix in Table 1 indicates that there is significant correlation between the different variables.⁴

Table 1 around here

⁴A test for multicollinearity using the Variance Inflation Factor method reveals no multicollinearity.

Table 2 presents the distribution of the different gender groups in the sample. As the table already indicates, the distribution is almost equally divided over the entire sample.

Table 2 around here

4. Results

The link between employee diversity and innovation is analysed by using four different models. Table 3 shows the result of the first three models. *Model 1* presents the basic model including only the standard control variables. The model reveals a strong positive and significant relation between GenderDiv and innovation. This indicates that a diverse gender composition is positively associated with the likelihood of introducing an innovation. The diversity measure of age (AgeDiv) shows a significant negative effect on the likelihood of introducing an innovation. However, there is no significant effect of average age of the employees and the age of the firm. Furthermore, there is a positive effect with having at least one highly educated employee present in the firm. The entropy value for ethnicity shows no significant relation.

Table 3 around here

Model 2 includes additional control variables on organisational change (OrgChange), openess toward diversity (DivPolicy), and collaboration along the value chain (ValueChainColl) and with knowledge institutes (KnowColl). There is, as expected, a positive relation between organisational change and the likelihood of innovation. This likelihood is more than two times as high compared to firm that not had implemented any form of organisational change. Furthermore, collaboration along the value chain has a significant and positive effect on the likelihood of introducing an innovation, while there is no significant effect of collaboration with knowledge institutes. This model also introduces the diversity policy variable indicating openness towards diversity, which reveals a significant and positive relation on the likelihood of introducing an innovation. The diversity measures for gender, age, and ethnicity show similar effects as presented in *Model 1*. The variable indicating the presence of a highly educated workers has been replaced with the share of highly educated employees in order to determine the level-effect of a higher share in the firm. Somewhat surprisingly, there seems to be no significant relation between the share of highly educated workers and the firms' likelihood to innovate.

The purpose of *Model 3* is, first of all, to look deeper into the positive effect of diversity in gender on the innovative performance by including the Gendergroup variables. The analysis indicates that there is only a significant and positive effect of Gendergroup 4, which is 60-70 percent of the same gender, although only on the 10 percent level of significance. The odds ratio shows that the likelihood of introducing an innovation is 68 percent higher in this group compared to a firm that is dominated by one gender. It appears that the likelihood of introducing an innovation increases whenever there is a composition that incorporates some degree of balance. Too much and too little diversity in this category are not significantly different. In this model, the entropy variable indicating the diversity among the highly educated employees is added. In order to control for the effect of not having any highly educated workers in

the firm we include the education dummy variable as presented in *Model 1*. The model shows that having at least one highly educated employee is not significant any longer while diversity in highly educated employees, when including size fixed effects, has a positive effect on the likelihood to introduce an innovation. Consequently, it can be derived that there is a positive relation between employing several highly educated workers that are diverse in their educational background and the likelihood to innovate.

Table 4 tests for a curvilinear relation between diversity and innovation using the same variables as those presented in *Model 3*. Due to a high degree of multicollinearity the variables are standardized by subtracting the mean and divide by the standard deviation. Model 4 shows no curvilinear relation on the diversity measures. The outcomes are somewhat surprising in the case of education. However, it should be taken into consideration that this diversity is only measured on the highly educated part of the employees in the firm and as Table 1 indicates 73 percent of the firms in the sample have at least one highly educated employee and the average share is 9 percent. In addition, human resource formation and recruitment processes often lead to the creation of homogeneous groups (McPherson et al., 2001), which might explain the missing curvilinear effect.

Table 4 around here

Besides curvilinearity we can also identify another important component of the diversity issue. Since all the diversity measures have been standardized it is possible to identify which type of diversity has the strongest effect by looking at the beta coefficient estimates. As expected diversity in education has the strongest effect on the likelihood of innovation, followed by gender.

5. Linking Employee Diversity and Innovation

This study of 1,648 Danish firms shows that there is a relation between the employee diversity based on the characteristics of all employees and the firms' likelihood to innovate. Thus it appears that not only diversity in terms of technologies or in the top management team, but also on the level of employees matters for firms' innovative performance. Obviously not all employees are involved in the innovation process, but as Lundvall (1992) and Woodman et al. (1993) argues this process often involves interaction between several groups in the organisation. Therefore it can be beneficial to look at the broader composition of employees in the firm. The hypotheses state that the relation between employee diversity and innovation is positive, but decreasing for high levels of diversity. The first hypothesis has been broken down to four sub hypotheses, each addressing a specific employee characteristic.

Hypothesis 1a, on a positive relation between gender diversity and the likelihood of innovation, is supported. The results for Gendergroup indicate that very low levels and very high levels of diversity are not significantly different from each other. Nevertheless a moderate degree of diversity, i.e. a degree of diversity where the minority group has a critical mass to contribute to the innovation process, appears to have higher likelihood of introducing an innovation. This is partly in line with the arguments of Milliken and Martins (1996) on the benefits of having a strong minority group. Other studies of diversity among top management teams on performance often find no significant relation

between diversity in gender and firm performance. However, these studies analyse the impact of diversity on other performance measures. Ordinary measures like productivity growth and effectiveness might not be influenced by a different composition in gender. These measures are not necessarily correlated with being innovative. In addition, the need of being creative as a group benefits more from being diverse, i.e. also being diverse in gender composition. The analysis shows that gender diversity is one of the variables that has the strongest relation with a firm's likelihood to innovate. This impact of gender diversity is somewhat overlooked in the innovation literature.

Hypothesis 1b is accepted since there is a negative, and for the Model 3 neutral, association between diversity in age and the likelihood to introduce an innovation. This finding is in line with Zajac et al. (1991) who argues that diversity in age causes disagreements that lead to lower innovative performance. To investigate the negative effect of age diversity, we also tested, but not reported, the relation between innovation and other age related variables, such as: Diversity in the length of service (Pfeffer, 1983) and diversity in the years of work experience. We found no significant effect of these variables nor did they affect the result of the model in any other way. There is no significant relation between average age and the likelihood that the firm introduces an innovation. In addition, the inclusion of the firm age variable has no effect on the negative results of age diversity.

The relation between diversity and ethnicity is not significant in the regression analyses, which means that *Hypothesis 1c* will be rejected. The argued positive relation of a diverse cultural heritage (Dahlin et al., 2005) cannot be identified from the analyses. The missing effect might be explained by the high share of Danes among the employees and subsequently on average very low entropy values. Alternatively, the effect is highly dependent on the type of work; for example a higher share of foreigners might take routine type work with low entry barriers in low innovative industries or in highly innovative firms that are sourcing very specialised employees regardless of ethnicity.

The hypothesis stating a positive relation between educational diversity and the likelihood to innovate, *Hypothesis 1d*, will be confirmed because the regression analyses show a positive effect of diversity in education among the employees with a higher education on the likelihood of introducing an innovation. There are two types of dynamics that influence this likelihood: The presence of different education groups or more balance between the education groups. There might be a bias in the education diversity measure, since it measures diversity within the highly educated group. Employing more highly educated employees is positive for innovation performance, more education categories increase this likelihood. Different educational backgrounds not only provide the firm with different knowledge and work methods but also increases the absorptive capacity and strengthen the firm's innovative capability (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990; Zahra and George, 2002).

An interesting result that can be found in the regression analyses and which is not explicitly hypothesised is the positive relation between diversity policy and the likelihood to innovate. Actively working on hiring foreigners and/or older people can be used as a proxy for a firm with an open culture towards diversity. A diverse composition of a firm should be accompanied with a culture that accepts this diversity. The organisational culture appears to be an important factor in the success of diversity. Only a few studies have touched upon this issue (e.g. Dwyer et al., 2003).

Hypothesis 2, a curvilinear relation between diversity and innovation is not supported by the results of the analysis.

There is no indication that a curvilinear relation exists in the diversity measures. There are several reasons why the curvilinear effect may not show up. A general explanation is that high degrees of diversity are avoided through organisational recruitment processes and self selection. In the particular case of education, a possible explanation might be that diversity is measured on a small proportion of the employees in a firm, i.e. only on the highly educated. A curvilinear relation might show up when including the diversity of all the employees with a degree below the bachelor's level. In the case of gender the curvilinear effect is not present since the dominance of one gender does not promote innovation (Milliken and Martins, 1996). This is found in the regression analysis where Gendergroup 4 has the largest and only effect on the likelihood to innovate.

6. Conclusion

Previous studies linking a diverse knowledge base to a firm's innovative capability have predominantly focused on the technological dimension of diversity, which overlooks the importance of intangible assets in the firm (Teece et al., 1997). The few studies that consider the more intangible human capital dimension focus only a small group within a larger organisational setting, i.e. top-management teams. However, the diversity in the composition of these teams might be a poor proxy for the effect of employee diversity on innovation, since the innovation process involves interaction between several employees at various levels in the firm (Lundvall, 1985, 1992; Laursen et al., 2005). Therefore it is necessary to look at the broader composition of skills and knowledge in the firm and to analyse the effect of employee diversity on the innovative performance of firms.

Based on 1,648 Danish firms, we found that employee diversity in terms of gender, age and education has an effect on the likelihood that firms innovate when controlling for other factors such as size, industry, organisational change and diversity in external cooperation. Firms with more balanced gender composition are more likely to innovate compared to firms with high concentration in one gender. Firms with a higher number of employees with a higher education and diversity in the types of educations have a higher likelihood of innovating. Diversity in age appears to have either negative or neutral effect, although average age has no significant impact. We find no significant effect of diversity in ethnicity on introducing an innovation. The regression for curvilinearity with the standardized variables indicates that educational diversity is most positive for innovation followed by gender diversity. This study has certain limitations since it is based on a cross-sectional analysis of 1,648 Danish firms and we are not able to identify who are involved in the innovations processes and the specific structures of the particular firms. However, we incorporate a short time lag between the diversity measures, firm level data and the questionnaire data.

The results in this paper clearly indicate that diversity aspects in terms of human capital cannot be ignored in relation to a firm's innovative capabilities. It is encouraging to notice that the demographic attributes in our study show the same impact on innovation as earlier studies that try to link diversity to innovation, e.g. the positive relationship of education diversity (Bantel and Jackson, 1989) and the negative and neutral relation of age diversity (Zajac et al., 1991). This is encouraging because studies focusing on other performance indicators often find inconsistent results regarding diversity where similar attributes appears to be positive, negative, or non-significant. It is difficult to relate

our study to studies that do not focus on innovation since one type of diversity composition might have a different impact on various types of performance measures. Creativity, which is at the center of every innovative process, calls for a different interaction style compared to the interaction that enhance a firm's effectiveness.

As already indicated, the studies linking employee diversity and innovation are scarce. We suggest that future studies look not only at the demographic composition, but also consider other factors that make the human capital composition of a firm to a success. As the analysis indicates, firms that are more conscious of diversity have a higher likelihood to innovate. Pitcher and Smith (2001) also finds that management plays a role in the effect of diversity. This opens up discussions on management cultures in the firm in line with Dwyer et al. (2003) and how firms can manage diversity and use other strategies to broaden the cognitive scope of the firm, e.g. through collaboration. In addition, future research should look at longitudinal analysis, and analyse if persistent innovative firms become more diverse or diverse firms become more innovative. It could also be fruitful to address particular industries based on their knowledge base and work organisation, since the effect of diversity might vary between industries based on doing-using-interaction modes compared to more science based industries. Similarly, diversity is likely to be less important in jobs with a high degree of routines compared to jobs characterised by interaction and problem solving. Future studies should also address the effect of organisational modes and innovation strategies.

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Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlation Coefficients (n=1,648)

| VARIABLE | MEAN | S.E. | MIN. | MAX. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 | 7 | ∞ | 6 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|------------------|--------|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|
| 1 innovabin | 0.55 | 0.50 | 0.00 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Size | 107.16 | 213.31 | 2.00 | 4041.00 | 0.14 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 FirmAge (ln) | 2.71 | 0.94 | 0.00 | 5.49 | 0.01 | 0.04 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 OrgChange | 0.65 | 0.48 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.27 | 0.14 | -0.01 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 DivPolicy | 0.19 | 0.39 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.09 | 0.13 | -0.04 | 0.05 | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 ValueChainColl | 0.76 | 0.42 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.14 | 0.04 | -0.01 | 0.09 | 0.03 | | | | | | | | |
| 7 KnowColl | 0.13 | 0.33 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.03 | 0.16 | -0.02 | 90.0 | 0.04 | 0.10 | | | | | | | |
| 8 AgeMean | 39.35 | 4.90 | 19.13 | 62.00 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.13 | 0.02 | -0.01 | -0.02 | 0.02 | | | | | | |
| 9 GenderDiv | 0.50 | 0.19 | 0.00 | 0.69 | 0.24 | 0.13 | 0.04 | 0.19 | 0.03 | 0.08 | -0.03 | -0.06 | | | | | |
| 10 AgeDiv | 11.26 | 2.21 | 0.00 | 20.17 | -0.14 | -0.07 | 0.16 | -0.12 | -0.02 | -0.01 | -0.03 | 0.10 | -0.11 | | | | |
| 11 EthnDiv | 0.20 | 0.21 | 0.00 | 1.20 | 0.09 | 0.17 | -0.01 | 0.07 | 0.13 | 0.04 | -0.02 | -0.15 | 0.19 | -0.10 | | | |
| 12 HighEducDummy | 0.73 | 0.44 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.22 | 0.20 | 0.04 | 0.19 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.10 | 0.12 | 0.25 | -0.16 | 0.18 | | |
| 13 HighEducShare | 0.09 | 0.13 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.14 | 0.14 | -0.04 | 0.14 | 0.04 | 0.01 | 0.19 | 0.07 | 0.25 | -0.27 | 0.10 | 0.45 | |
| 14 HighEducDiv | 0.51 | 09.0 | 0.00 | 2.30 | 0.27 | 0.41 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.11 | 0.02 | 0.07 | 0.03 | 0.36 | -0.25 | 0.26 | 0.52 | 0.51 |

Note: Correlation estimates in bold indicate significance at 5% level

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for Gendergroup

| | FREQUENCIES | PERCENT | CUMULATIVE FREQUENCIES | CUMULATIVE PERCENT |
|---------------|-------------|---------|------------------------|--------------------|
| Gendergroup 1 | 345 | 20.93 | 345 | 20.93 |
| Gendergroup 2 | 318 | 19.30 | 663 | 40.23 |
| Gendergroup 3 | 276 | 16.75 | 939 | 56.98 |
| Gendergroup 4 | 348 | 21.12 | 1287 | 78.09 |
| Gendergroup 5 | 361 | 21.91 | 1,648 | 100.00 |

Table 3: Summary of the regression analyses

| 27 10 10 17 | | | MODEL 1 | EL 1 | | | | MODEL 2 | EL 2 | | | | MODEL 3 | EL 3 | |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------|---------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------|---------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------|---------------|
| VAKIABLES | Estimates | tes | S.E. | Odds | Marg. Effects | Estimates | ites | S.E. | Odds | Marg. Effects | Estimates | tes | S.E. | Odds | Marg. Effects |
| Intercept | 0.861 | | 0.746 | | | 0.264 | | 0.793 | | | 0.402 | | 0.772 | | |
| FirmAge (ln) | -0.003 | | 0.063 | 0.997 | -0.001 | 0.035 | | 0.065 | 1.035 | 0.009 | 0.039 | | 0.065 | 1.040 | 0.010 |
| OrgChange | | | | | | 0.435 | * * * | 0.061 | 2.388 | 0.108 | 0.425 | * * * | 0.062 | 2.339 | 0.105 |
| DivPolicy | | | | | | 0.466 | * * * | 0.155 | 1.593 | 0.115 | 0.461 | * * * | 0.156 | 1.585 | 0.114 |
| ValueChainColl | | | | | | 0.540 | * * * | 0.137 | 1.715 | 0.133 | 0.551 | * * * | 0.138 | 1.735 | 0.136 |
| KnowColl. | | | | | | 0.136 | | 0.189 | 1.146 | 0.034 | 0.106 | | 0.188 | 1.112 | 0.026 |
| AgeMean | -0.011 | | 0.013 | 0.989 | -0.003 | -0.008 | | 0.013 | 0.992 | -0.002 | -0.015 | | 0.014 | 0.985 | -0.004 |
| Gendergroup 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 0.206 | | 0.128 | 1.665 | 0.051 |
| Gendergroup 4 | | | | | | | | | | | 0.216 | * | 0.122 | 1.683 | 0.053 |
| Gendergroup 3 | | | | | | | | | | | -0.033 | | 0.127 | 1.312 | -0.008 |
| Gendergroup 2 | | | | | | | | | | | -0.084 | | 0.121 | 1.246 | -0.021 |
| Gendergroup 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | Benchmark | mark | |
| GenderDiv | 1.383 | * * * | 0.388 | 3.987 | 0.342 | 1.247 | * * * | 0.403 | 3.479 | 0.308 | | | | | |
| AgeDiv | -0.062 | * | 0.028 | 0.940 | -0.015 | -0.058 | * | 0.029 | 0.944 | -0.014 | -0.044 | | 0.029 | 0.957 | -0.011 |
| EthnDiv | 0.075 | | 0.289 | 1.078 | 0.019 | -0.025 | | 0.298 | 926.0 | -0.006 | -0.125 | | 0.302 | 0.883 | -0.031 |
| HighEducDummy | 0.412 | * * * | 0.151 | 1.509 | 0.102 | | | | | | 0.239 | | 0.164 | 1.270 | 0.059 |
| HighEducShare | | | | | | 0.208 | | 0.589 | 1.232 | 0.052 | | | | | |
| HighEducDiv | | | | | | | | | | | 0.354 | * * * | 0.149 | 1.425 | 0.088 |
| Industry Fixed Effects | | | yes | 20 | | | | yes | | | | | yes | S | |
| Size Fixed Effects | | | yes | S | | | | yes | | | | | yes | S | |
| Z | | | 1,648 | ∞ . | | | | 1,648 | ∞. | | | | 1,648 | 48 | |
| Max Rescaled R ² | | | 0.24 | 4 | | | | 0.29 | 6 | | | | 0.29 | 66 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | | | 319.598*** | *** | | | | 396.622*** | 2*** | | | | 408.067 *** | *** L | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

*** significant at the 1% level, ** significant at the 5% level, * significant at the 10% level

Table 4: Testing for Curvilinearity

| V4. DV4. DV. E.G. | | | MOD | EL 4 | |
|-----------------------------|--------|------|--------|-------|---------------|
| VARIABLES | Estim | ates | S.E. | Odds | Marg. Effects |
| Intercept | 0.156 | | 0.763 | | |
| FirmAge | 0.004 | | 0.003 | 1.004 | 0.001 |
| OrgChange | 0.423 | *** | 0.062 | 2.324 | 0.104 |
| DivPolicy | 0.477 | *** | 0.156 | 1.596 | 0.116 |
| ValueChainColl | 0.543 | *** | 0.138 | 1.711 | 0.133 |
| KnowColl | 0.109 | | 0.188 | 1.115 | 0.027 |
| AgeMean | -0.014 | | 0.014 | 0.989 | -0.003 |
| GenderDiv | 0.235 | ** | 0.010 | 1.270 | 0.059 |
| GenderDiv ² | 0.039 | | 0.065 | 1.039 | 0.010 |
| AgeDiv | -0.110 | * | 0.063 | 0.904 | -0.025 |
| AgeDiv ² | 0.029 | | 0.037 | 1.030 | 0.007 |
| EthnDiv | -0.027 | | 0.088 | 0.975 | -0.006 |
| EthnDiv ² | -0.002 | | 0.037 | 0.998 | -0.001 |
| HighEducDummy | 0.192 | | 0.169 | 1.211 | 0.047 |
| HighEducDiv | 0.275 | *** | 0.105 | 1.315 | 0.068 |
| $HighEducDiv^2\\$ | -0.091 | | 0.081 | 0.911 | -0.023 |
| Industry Fixed Effects | yes | | | | |
| Size Fixed Effects | | | ye | es | |
| N | | | 1,6 | 48 | |
| Max Rescaled R ² | | | 0.3 | 30 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | | | 410.43 | 33*** | |

^{***} Significant at the 1% level

^{**} Significant at the 5% level

^{*}Significant at the 10% level