

ISSN: 2230-9926

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Available online at http://www.journalijdr.com



International Journal of Development Research Vol. 12, Issue, 07, pp. 57320-57331, July, 2022 https://doi.org/10.37118/ijdr.24730.07.2022



OPEN ACCESS

INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL UNCERTAINTY: A PROPOSITION OF CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION AND ITS CONSTITUENT ATTRIBUTES

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ARTICLE INFO

Article History: Received 15th April, 2022 Received in revised form 19th May, 2022 Accepted 08th June, 2022 Published online 25th July, 2022

Key Words:

Uncertainty, Attributes, Conceptual definition, Inter-Organizational and Innovation Management.

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ABSTRACT

Studies on innovation management have demonstrated that organizations adopt more open and collaborative attitudes to develop innovations in an increasingly dynamic and competitive environment. Technological, regulatory, and marketing changes arise that raise doubts about the return on investments in R&D projects. However, there is still a lack of insights into how to manage uncertainty, lack of insights into how to mitigate inter-organizational uncertainty, and how this can impact collaborative practices during the project lifecycle. Antecedent studies present confusing results, this may be a reflection of the generic conceptual application of uncertainty without considering that uncertainty is a phenomenon constructed from attributes. The proposal of the conceptual definition of inter-organizational uncertainty was elaborated from the conceptual bibliographic method based on the primary uncertainty to cover the organizational, inter-organizational, and collective levels. The results show four equivalence terms to uncertainty and sixteen attributes that can characterize uncertainty in organizations. These results provide a better understanding of how to deal with uncertainty by combining strategies for each attribute identified in innovative projects.

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Citation: Edimilson Cavalcante da Fonseca. "Inter-organizational uncertainty: A proposition of conceptual definition and its constituent attributes", International Journal of Development Research, 12, (07), 57320-57331.

INTRODUCTION

The literature on innovation management is characterized by its pragmatic nature. This nature is due to the process of applying new ideas to create, deliver and capture innovative results through a dynamic combination of resources, capabilities, and skills of organizations(DODGSON et al., 2014). In this field, the capture by returns of innovation is a concern for innovation managers, because, depending on the type of innovation, the return on investments can be highly distorted (SCHERER et al., 2000) and the distribution of profits can be asymmetric among innovators (FLEMING, 2007). This distortion, in part, is the result of the uncertainty inherent in the innovation process, because the returns on investments in innovation are unknown and sometimes time-consuming, such as investments in R&D projects (SALTER; ALEXY, 2014). In this sense, organizations create different structures to develop the most radical innovations, whilemaintaining organizational routines for incremental improvements of less disruptive ideas (TUSHMAN; O'REILLY, 1996). This has been an ambidextrous practice adopted by fractal organizations that develop innovations in exploitation and exploitation (NONAKA et al., 2014). Organizations have adopted more collaborative attitudes to develop open innovations with external partners (CHESBROUGH, 2003; RANDHAWA et al., 2016).

These ambidextrous practices for developing innovations were refined by Faccin and Balestrin (2018), who discovered a series of collaborative knowledge creation practices that can strategically be adopted throughout the life cycle of an R&D project. It is noticed that these strategies are important for the management of innovation because as managers seek to accumulate knowledge through collaborative arrangements (KAPOOR; MCGRATH, 2014), a favorable environment is created to face uncertainties during the process of innovation. innovation. This happens because the dynamics of innovation in collaborative projects are increasingly competitive and heterogeneous, new technologies, knowledge, and highly innovative resources emerge that cause technological discontinuity and market changes (GRANT, 1996; LAVIE; LECHNER; SINGH, 2007; BOUNCKEN; KRAUS, 2007; BOUNCKEN; KRAUS). 2013; FRISHAMMAR; ERICSSON; PATEL, 2015; MAJURI; NYLUND; LANZ, 2016; ZHANG; LI; LI, 2021) and because of this environmental dynamism, the interdependence between the actors of a collaborative project will cause the need to make mutual adjustments in the capacity of partners, more time to correct and require other capabilities that go beyond those existing in the alliance (DYER; SINGH; HESTERLY, 2018). In this sense, this study corroborates the need for new scientific approaches that contribute to managing collaborative projects (SYDOW; BRAUN, 2018), since the literature provides few

insights into how to manage uncertainties in collaborative projects (FANOUSSE, NAKANDALA; LAN, 2021), there is a lack of refined evidence on how inter-organizational uncertainty can be mitigated and evaluated (DE VASCONCELOS GOMES; LOPEZ-VEJA; FACIN, 2021) and how uncertainty can impact collaborative practices in R&D projects (FACCIN; BALESTRIN, 2018). It is argued that such gaps remain unclear empirically due to the lack of more refined approaches to uncertainty and therefore make the results inconsistent and confusing to interpret. It is at this point that this article proposes to elucidate the confusion of the generic and simplified conceptual use of uncertainty in the scope of innovation management studies. Uncertainty is a phenomenon that has been changing over time (SMALES, 2021; BUNN et al., 2021; MUMTAZ; THEODORIDIS, 2018), new attributes arise that challenge innovation management to manage uncertainty during projects. Thus, this article sought to answer the question: What is inter-organizational uncertainty, and what attributes constitute it?. Therefore, the objective is to provide a proposition of conceptual definition of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level and to identify which attributes are recurrent in the studies of this field. The importance of this research is justified by the need to gain insights for innovation managers and field researchers to establish links between the attributes of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level and collaborative practices in innovation projects.

This article was structured in the following form: in the next section, it is intended for a literature review of uncertainty. The method used to develop this research is then described. Then, the results of the collected data are presented, organized, and analyzed. Finally, the answer to the research question was generated with considerations and recommendations for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: The classical literature constituted the concept of uncertainty by immeasurable, unquantifiable, and cloudy attributes, and the risk by attributes that can be probabilities and measurements (KNIGHT, 1921). For decades, many organizational literature theorists have developed research to explain the antecedents, implications, and consequences of uncertainty in organizations. And because of this, different perspectives have emerged to demonstrate that environmental uncertainty can have a volatile and objective effect on organizations (MARCH; SIMON, 1958; DILL, 1958; THOMPSON, 1967.) Another perspective of uncertainty arose through the perception of organizational managers (DUNCAN, 1972; LAWRENCE; LORSCH, 1969). At this time, theorists began to conceptualize organizations as an open and adaptive system (THOMPSON, 1967; KATZ; KAHN, 1966), and this was the driving force to understand that exchange with the environment was essential for the survival of organizations (BUCKLEY, 1967). This vision triggered a movement for the formation of alliances to make exchanges, mutual help, and the search for perfect knowledge to reduce uncertainties (THOMPSON, 1967; LAWRENCE; LORSCH, 1967; COOK, 1977). Subsequently, the perspective of the effect of uncertainty on decision-making emerged, based on the control of resources, including human resources, to achieve the purposes of organizations (PFEFFER et al., 1976; COOK, 1977). In addition to these perspectives, Milliken (1987) highlighted the "perceived environmental uncertainty" within a conceptual "umbrella" to add other types of uncertainties: state uncertainty, the uncertainty of the effect, and uncertainty of response, which administrators experience in organizations in a complex and dynamic way.

This movement has boosted an agenda of scientific investigations that seek to explain the dynamics of uncertainty in organizations (GOLDMAN; VAN HOUTEN, 1980; SHUKLA, 1982; Hui; LEE, 2000; PARNELL *et al.*, 2000; CLAMPITT *et al.*, 2000; SHENHAV; WEITZ, 2000; WONG *et al.*, 2010; CEGIELSKI *et al.*, 2012; STURDY *et al.*, 2013; DESAI, 2014; ZHANG, 2016; DONG, 2016; Liu; LIN, 2018; HEROLD *et al.* 2021); interorganizational uncertainty (PERRY *et al.*, 2004; KREYE, 2017a-b; Hernandez; KREYE; 2020; KREYE, 2022); collective uncertainty (GEERSBRO; RITTER; 2010; DE VASCONCELOS GOMES *et al.*, 2021),

uncertainty in innovative projects (DAGHFOUS, 2004; HALL; MARTIN, 2005; MELANDER, MELANDER. TELL, 2014; ESLAMI; MELANDER, 2019; DOLD; SPECK, 2021) and uncertainty in innovation ecosystems (ADNER, 2006; Russell, RUSSELL, SMORODINSKAYA, 2018; DE VASCONCELOS GOMES, et al., 2018). These studies commonly treat uncertainty in specific empirical contexts that often make it difficult to replicate the results in other studies. In addition, different authors adopt generic, concurrent, and disparate concepts of attributes that are important to manage inter-organizational uncertainty in the empirical context, in this study, collaborative projects to develop innovations, for example, authors (PFEFFER, 1985; MCKELVIE et al., 2011). As stated in the introduction, this asymmetry of understanding seems to reflect the adoption of the generic concept of uncertainty, that is, the use of primary uncertainty without considering the type, level, or category of uncertainty being researched. This practice underestimates the attributes inherent in the types of uncertainty and makes it difficult to combine to manage uncertainty in innovation projects. This problem was also signaled by the organizational theorists of the time, for example, Thompson (1967) sought to conceptualize organizational uncertainty because of the taxonomy necessary to aggregate other types of attributes that link power to the absorption of uncertainty, for example, belief, conflict, cognition, and level of knowledge. Shukla (1982) sought to reconceptualize organizational uncertainty in a decision-making context, incorporating the size and degree of interdependence of the group of participants because of the complexity of the decision environment. This is because the use of the term "uncertainty" is popular and used in many situations (DOWNEY; SLOCUM, 1975) and this assumption may cause researchers not to pay much attention to the conceptual definition and its operationality (MILLIKEN, 1987). About this theoretical background, it is argued that the absence of conceptual rigor of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level is the obstacle to understanding how uncertainty can be managed by managers during the life cycle of innovation projects.

METHODOLOGY

Initially, a literature review was conducted on organizational uncertainty to identify the contributions and gaps in these studies. The bibliographic search was performed in the databases "Web of Science, Scopus, and Science Direct" by the term "organizational uncertainty", filtering by topics in the articles published in the area of business and management. The articles that were repeated were excluded, resulting in a total of 40 studies published from 1980 to 2022. All articles were read to understand how uncertainty was addressed at the organizational and inter-organizational level and, among these studies, it was possible to find the classic publications of organizational theorists from the 1950s to the 1980s, which did not appear in the search. Given the conceptual gap of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level identified in the literature review, this study proceeded to reverse search for the primary conceptual definition of uncertainty. The procedures consisted of logical steps through the conceptual bibliographic method, which was divided into four stages: 1) formulation of the research question; 2) data collection; 3) organization and analysis of data and 4) generating a response to the research question. In the first stage, the research problem questions what inter-organizational uncertainty is, and what attributes it, is based on the conceptual gap as exposed. In the second stage, literary data collection was performed through the databases "Web of Science, Scopus, and Science Direct" by the following terms: "uncertainty is understood", "uncertainty is defined", "uncertainties are defined", "uncertainties are known as", "uncertainty is dealt with", "definition of uncertainty", "uncertainty if referred", "uncertainty refer" and "uncertainty can be defined" to find as much uncertainty-setting data as possible. Filters were applied by searching for articles, the terms can be found in any part of the documents and published in English, resulting in 569 publications. Then, the bibliographic data were analyzed to verify if the results presented conceptual definitions of uncertainty, and the Foxit Reader software was used to search for the keywords in the articles in pdf

format. The preliminary results of this analysis were not satisfactory because most of the data did not represent a concept of uncertainty, making it impossible to create a corpus of data for future semantic analysis. In this sense, a new search for literary data was established in Google Scholar by the following terms: "uncertainty can be defined as "and "organization", resulting in 690 publications. The first term was defined to have a response pattern and the second term was inserted to obtain results that deal with uncertainty in the organizational context. No filters were applied by the business and management area because uncertainty is a phenomenon that is very addressed in the field of innovation, technology, engineering, health, and the sciences that involve management decision-making. To ensure the quality of the literary data collected, we adopted only the primary conceptual definitions of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level of peer-reviewed articles with impact factors A1, A2, and B1 and other levels of uncertainty that do not add to the conceptual proposition according to the objective of this study, in the end, a total of 88 conceptual data resulted. In the third stage, the organization and analysis of data, first, a corpus of data was created in a table with two columns, one with the names of the authors and the other with the answers identified (conceptual definitions). After that, the terms equivalent to uncertainty were identified and grouped, which is the first term that arises at the beginning of a response. Next, we identified the attributes that characterize the term equivalent and that constitute uncertainty in organizations. Then, semantic groups of attributes were grouped, i.e., grouping by linguistic meanings. Thus, with the equivalent terms and the attributes identified, the last phase consisted of the answer to the research question proposed by this study. The paraphrastic structure adopted to generate the response was through the formula: f(phenomenon) = equivalence terms + attributes. The methodological design used in this research is represented in Figure 1 below.



Source: Prepared by the author

Figure 1. Search designer



Source: Prepared by the author

Figure 2. Logical design of uncertainty in organizations

Finally, the units of analysis used in this research were the conceptual definitions identified in the literature. The unit of analysis is the central object of scientific research (PADHY *et al.*, 2021). This means that the object will be subject to analysis, where the researcher "breaks down in parts" to understand the object being observed, investigated, and researched (AHMAD; KHAN, 2019; YIN, 2001; PADHY *et al.*, 2021. In thisstudy, the objects investigated were the conceptual definitions of uncertainties. Another fundamental point was the level of analysis chosen, the organizational level was covered

to propose the definition at the inter-organizational level and differentiate it from the collective level, avoiding asymmetric use.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the results obtained in the research, as well as the discussion of the results based on a literature review and the conceptual bibliographic method. The findings are divided into two parts: terms of equivalence and attributes of uncertainty.

Uncertainty equivalence term: The term equivalence is a term that can replace another term without modifying its meaning or meaning (SCHUBERT, 1976). Thus, the equivalent term can be found at the beginning of the conceptual definition, usually, it is the first term that appears in the answer to the question. For example, uncertainty can be defined as a manager's perceived inability to predict something accurately (MILLIKEN, 1987). In this case, the equivalent term is disability. The following results were organized into semantic groups of linguistic meanings: unknown state, asymmetry, lack, and disability, as shown in Table 1. The first semantic grouping refers to the unknown state in which organizations face adverse situations. The term state is an indication that uncertainty can be seen with a state that is not known or the understanding of happeningis limited (DOWNEY; SLOCUM, 1975; KOH; SAAD, 2002; KOH; SIMPSON, 2005; KOH; GUNASEKARAN, 2006; EMBLEMSVÅG, 2010; GOSLING et al., 2013; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; HUBBARD, 2014; GUJAR, 2014; MESROBIAN et al., 2015; Shankar, 2010. RAMULU, 2016; RUSSEL et al., 2021). The distribution of a state under uncertainty occurs through situations that cannot be predicted (GABALDON, 1993; FLANAGAN; NORMAN, 1993; SCHRADER et al., 1993; LEE, 2002; LEMPERT, 2003; BAIRAMZADEH et al., 2018; DIKMEN et al., 2021) due to the degree of difficulty perceived by the organization (PAVLOU et al., 2007; WIEGMANS et al., 2007). In this semantic group, other terms were identified that corroborate the unknown state, for example, chance, chance, effect, risk, form, and probability of analyzing events (MURRAY, 1961; TAFTI et al., 2012; SMITH, SMITH, SMITH, MERNA, 2014; JAAFARI, 2001; LANDEMORE, 2014; DENIS, 1991). Asymmetry is another term that can be equivalent to uncertainty. This group consists of deviation, this term refers to the effect of change of what was planned (DAVIS; KELLER, 1997; WALKER et al., 2003), this deviation occurs due to verification of the difference in values and/or information, according to the studies by Galbraith (1973), Navy (1995), Thiry (2002), Meyers and Kromer (2008), Finnveden et al. (2009) and Sinaga et al. (2021). Generally, this discrepancy can be perceived by measuring the values (CHOW et al., 1995; BHARATH: ARUL MOZHI SELVAN, 2021), which manifests itself through doubt (BORDIA et al., 2006; MARTIN et al., 2017) or, for ambiguities and inaccuracies (BRASHERS, 2001; KINKELDEY et al., 2017). In this group, uncertainty may be equivalent to the parameter that is associated with the dispersion of values that causes asymmetries (VIM, 2004; CHIUMIENTO et al., 2015).

The third semantic group refers to the effect of the lack. This effect is related to a lack of knowledge and information, the recurrence of this equivalent term can be observed in the studies by Duncan (1972), NRC (1983), March and Olsen (1976), Aubert et al. (1996), Crawford (1997), Zimmermann (2001), Kirby (2001), Weaver et al. (2006), Ramsey (2009), Daft et al. (2010), Kreye et al. (2012), Hale (2012), Kettler et al. (2015), Hortal et al. (2015), and Mironova and Ibragimov (2021). Another term that makes up this group is the gap, which is related to the knowledge, data, and information gap (TUSHMAN; NADLER, 1978; TREVINO, 1990; CHENG, 1992; SCHNEIDER et al., 2021), due to the lack of precise information (ROWE, 1994; POBLETE; BENGTSON, 2020), sometimes due to the imperfection of knowledge and information (MCBEAN; RODGERS, 2010; AVEN et al., 2018), and/or the incompleteness of knowledge (AYYUB, 2001; AYYUB et al., 2002; PEYGHAMI et al., 2020). The last term of equivalence to uncertainty identified in the literature is a disability.

Table 1. Terms of equivalence to uncertainty

Authors	Equivalent Term	Semantic Groups
DOWNEY; SLOCUM (1975) KOH; SAAD (2002) KOH; SIMPSON (2005) KOH; GUNASEKARAN (2006) EMBLEMSVÅG (2010) GOSLING et al. (2013) WAGNER;	State	Unknown state
DE HILAL (2014) HUBBARD (2014) GUJAR (2014) HUBBARD (2014) MESROBIAN et al. (2015) SHANKAR; RAMULU (2016) RUSSEL et al. (2021)		
PAVLOU et al. (2007); WIEGMANS et al. (2007)	Degree	
GABALDON (1993); FLANAGAN; NORMAN (1993); SCHRADER <i>et al.</i> (1993); LEE (2002); LEMPERT (2003); BAIRAMZADEH <i>et al.</i> (2018); DIKMEN <i>et al.</i>	Situation	
(2021)		
MURRAY (1961); TAFTI et al. (2012); SMITH; MERNA (2014); JAAFARI (2001); LANDEMORE (2014); DENIS (1991)	Accident, chance, effect, risk, form,	
	and probability	
DAVIS; KELLER (1997); WALKER et al. (2003)	Detour	Asymmetry
GALBRAITH (1973); NAVY (1995); THIRY (2002); MEYERS; KROMER (2008); SINAGA et al. (2021); FINNVEDEN et al. (2009)	Difference/ Discrepancy	
CHOW et al. (1995); BHARATH; ARUL MOZHI SELVAN (2021)	Measure	
BORDIA et al. (2006); MARTIN et al. (2017)	Doubts	
KINKELDEY et al. (2017); BRASHERS (2001)	Inaccuracy/Ambiguity	
VIM (2004); CHIUMIENTO et al. (2015)	Parameter	
DUNCAN (1972); NRC (1983); MARCH; OLSEN (1976); AUBERT et al. (1996); CRAWFORD (1997); ZIMMERMANN (2001); KIRBY (2001); WEAVER et al.	Lack	Lack
(2006); RAMSEY (2009); DAFT et al. (2010); KREYE et al. (2012); HALE (2012); KETTLER et al. (2015); HORTAL et al. (2015); MIRONOVA; IBRAGIMOV (2021)		
TUSHMAN; NADLER (1978); TREVINO (1990); CHENG (1992); SCHNEIDER et al. (2021)	Gap	
ROWE (1994); POBLETE; BENGTSON (2020)	Absence	
MCBEAN; RODGERS (2010); AVEN et al. (2018)	Imperfection	
AYYUB (2001); AYYUB et al. (2002); PEYGHAMI et al. (2020)	Incompleteness	
MILLIKEN (1987); SHELANSKI; KLEIN (1995); DICKSON; WEAVER (1997); SOMMER; LOCH (2004); WALDEN; BROWNE (2009); WONG et al. (2011)	Inability	Inability
BECKMAN et al. (2004); BAPTISTA et al. (2020)	Difficulty/Inexperience	

Table 2. Attributes of uncertainty

Authors	Attributes	Semantic Groups
DOWNEY; SLOCUM (1975); MARCH; OLSEN (1976); NRC (1983); ROWE (1994); SCHRADER <i>et al.</i> (1993); DAVIS; KELLER (1997); KIRBY (2001); AYYUB (2001); AYYUB <i>et al.</i> (2002); WALKER <i>et al.</i> (2003); RAMSEY (2009); MCBEAN; RODGERS (2010); GOH <i>et al.</i> (2010); GOSLING <i>et al.</i> (2013); XU <i>et al.</i> (2012); HUBBARD (2014); KETTLER <i>et al.</i> (2015); PEYGHAMI <i>et al.</i> (2020); MIRONOVA; IBRAGIMOV (2021); SCHNEIDER <i>et al.</i> (2021).	Knowledge	
AYYUB (2001); AYYUB et al. (2002); PEYGHAMI et al. (2020)	Knowledge acquisition	Knowledge
WAGSTAFF et al. (2015); MCBEAN; RODGERS (2010); MARCH; OLSEN (1976); MILLIKEN (1987); TAFTI et al. (2012); DENIS (1991); KREYE et al. (2012)	Understanding, perception, and understanding	
MURRAY (1961); NAVY (1995); DAVIS; KELLER (1997); HALE (2012); KREYE <i>et al.</i> (2012); LANDEMORE (2014); SMITH; MERNA (2014); MESROBIAN <i>et al.</i> (2015); HORTAL <i>et al.</i> (2015); HORTAL <i>et al.</i> (2015); BAPTISTA <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Unknown/ Ignorance	Ignorance
LEE (2002); LEMPERT (2003); MCBEAN; RODGERS (2010); SHANKAR; RAMULU (2016)	Not knowing	
BECKMAN et al. (2004); HUBBARD (2014); AVEN et al. (2018); RUSSEL et al. (2021)	Incomplete knowledge	
SHANKAR; RAMULU (2016); LEE (2002); MEYERS; KROMER (2008); HALE (2012); GOH et al. (2010); XU et al. (2012)	Happening/ possibility	
DICKSON; WEAVER (1997) AVEN et al. (2018); DORIA-BELENGUER et al. 2020	Occurrences	Eventuality
SHELANSKI; KLEIN (1995); DICKSON; WEAVER (1997); LEE (2002); DAFT et al. (2010); WAGSTAFF et al. (2015); GUJAR (2014); BAIRAMZADEH et al. (2018) POBLETE; BENGTSON (2020)	Changes	
CRAWFORD (1997); BORDIA et al. (2006); LEMPERT (2003); WONG et al. (2011); WAGNER; DE HILAL (2014); LANDEMORE (2014); SMITH; MERNA (2014); SHANKAR; RAMULU (2016); AVEN et al. (2018); DIKMEN et al. (2021)	Upcoming Events/ Events	
DUNCAN (1972) FLANAGAN; NORMAN (1993) NAVY (1995) BRASHERS (2001)	Situation	Conditionality
HUBBARD (2014); PAVLOU et al. (2007)	State	Conumonanty

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MUREAU (196) E. MARCEL OLES (1976). EDNS (1971). EDNS AAD (2002). KOL SAMTSON (2005). WALDEN: BROWNE (2007). WAONER, DE BILAL (2014). BAPTISA et al. (2001). Notesting and the state of particular state of pa			
UTBER AVI (Jung): A NUMBER DEFUTING ACCOUNT Intercent of the processes Intercent of the processes DEFUNC AVI (20): OVERNYS IS COLUMNES (NO SUM MATERS REGIMER 0008): WAI DYN, BROWNE 0009; DAT (<i>ed.</i> 0, 001); XUI (<i></i>	MURRAY (1961); MARCH; OLSEN (1976); DENIS (1991); KOH; SAAD (2002); KOH; SIMPSON (2005); WALDEN; BROWNE (2009); WAGNER; DE HILAL (2014); MESROBIAN et al. (2015); WAGSTAFF et al. (2015); RUSSEL et al. (2021)	Climate sensitivity, turbulence, accidental speculation, tension, <i>perturbation</i> ,	
SUDEX Lobits Lobits </td <td>MUDDAV(10(1), VI, c, (0, 1)), WA CNED, DEFINIAL(2014), DADTISTA (c, 2) (2020).</td> <td>insecurity, and psychosis</td> <td></td>	MUDDAV(10(1), VI, c, (0, 1)), WA CNED, DEFINIAL(2014), DADTISTA (c, 2) (2020).	insecurity, and psychosis	
INITIZIEST 1021: 10	MURKAY (1961); AU et al. (2012); WAGNER; DE HILAL (2014); BAY IISTA et al. (2020) DINICAN (1072); DOWNEY, SLOCIMU (1075); TAETL et al. (2012); MILLIER (1097); DINICAN EAVER (1007); DAVI OL et al. (2014); BAAD (2014); KOLL SAAD (2020)	Doubts	Environment
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NARSH, DE INTER, DU MIXER, MU MIXER	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Mutray} (1901); \text{ KRY E tet } at (2012) \\ \text{WACNED: DE HIL AL (2014), WINKEL DEV of al (2017); DOPDIA of al (2006) \\ \end{array}$	Ambiguity	-
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When managers realize that they are facing unexpected happenings, they feel unable to determine actions to face uncertainty (MILLIKEN, 1987; SHELANSKI; KLEIN, 1995; DICKSON, WEAVER, 1997; SOMMER; LOCH, 2004; Walden; BROWNE, 2009; WONG et al., 2011). This feeling of disability is caused by a lack of experience or by the difficulty of managers in choosing alternatives to solve the problems caused by uncertainty (BECKMAN et al., 2004; BAPTISTA et al., 2020). The analysis of these results showed that the most recurrent equivalence term to uncertainty is the unknown state, then comes the effect of lack, asymmetry, and finally, disability. These results represent the first part of the proposition of the conceptual definition of organizational uncertainty. This means that these terms cannot be used in isolation if a complement must make sense of the construction of the concept. Thus, in the next section, the attributes that complement the term equivalence and that characterize uncertainty in organizations will be presented.

Attributes of uncertainty: In the organizational field, there is evidence that uncertainty has changed overtime (SMALES, 2021; BUNN *et al.*, 2021; MUMTAZ; THEODORIDIS, 2018). New factors, attributes, and challenges emerge as managers fail to deal with uncertainty in innovative organizations and projects. The results of the attributes identified in the literature were: 1) Knowledge; 2) Ignorance; 3) Eventuality; 4) Conditionality; 5) Environment; 6) Forecast; 7) Unpredictability; 8) Organizational; 9) Organizational processes and routines; 10) Accuracy; 11) Inaccuracy; 12) Decisionmaking; 13) Probability; 14) Information; 15) Uncertainty valuation and 16) Results. The attributes were organized into semantic groups of meanings, according to Table 2, and constitute the second part of the conceptual proposition.

Uncertainty is characterized by its epistemic nature. This nature is due to the realization that uncertainty is caused by a lack of knowledge. Knowledge, therefore, is one of its main attributes, as shown by the studies by Downey and Slocum (1975), March and Olsen (1976), NRC (1983), Rowe (1994), Schrader et al. (1993), Davis and Keller (1997), Ayyub (2001), Kirby (2001), Ayyub et al. (2002), Walker et al. (2003), Gosling et al. (2013), Ramsey (2009), McBean and Rodgers (2010), Goh et al. (2010), Xu et al. (2012); Kettler et al. (2015), Hubbard (2014), Peyghami et al. (2020), Mironova and Ibragimov (2021) and Schneider et al. (2021). Thus, organizations seek knowledge to solve incompleteness, through the acquisition of knowledge, therefore, another attribute identified in the literature (AYYUB, 2001; AYYUB et al., 2002; PEYGHAMI et al., 2020). The reason for this is that complete knowledge enables organizational managers, understanding, understand and perception of events that cause organizational uncertainty (WAGSTAFF et al., 2015; MCBEAN; RODGERS, 2010; MARCH; OLSEN, 1976; MILLIKEN, 1987; TAFTI et al., 2012; DENIS, 1991; KREYE et al., 2012). The analysis of these attributes demonstrated that when organizational managers have complete knowledge, they have a greater understanding of the environment, understanding of changes, and cognitive perception of happening, therefore, knowledge reduces organizational uncertainty.

In counterpoint to knowledge, ignorance increases uncertainty. This contrast is due to evidence that ignorance is one of the main attributes inherent to uncertainty, as shown by the studies by Murray (1961), Navy (1995), Davis and Keller (1997), Hale (2012), Kreye et al. (2012), Landemore (2014), Smith and Merna (2014), and Mesrobian et al. (2015), this means that Ignorance is the materialization of the lack of experience of managers who do not know how to explain the facts (HORTAL et al., 2015; BAPTISTA et al., 2020). Generally, ignorance is perceived by the organization when managers do not know or do not know the happening and events (LEE, 2002; LEMPERT, 2003; MCBEAN; RODGERS, 2010; SHANKAR; RAMULU, 2016). For this reason, incomplete knowledge also makes it difficult to determine actions to manage uncertainty (BECKMAN et al., 2004, HUBBARD, 2014; AVEN et al., 2018; RUSSEL et al., 2021). In literature, ignorance is often associated with uncertainty, because of this, innovations are being developed more openly and collaboratively to strategically accumulate, access, and create a stock

of partners' knowledge in an R&D alliance, for example, Kapoor and McGrath (2014), Dietrich et al. (2010), and Faccin and Balestrin (2018), according to the nature of the uncertainty. Eventuality is another essential attribute of all uncertainty. In this semantic group, it was identified that happening arises unexpectedly, and the possibilities are confusing (LEE, 2002; MEYERS; KROMER, 2008; HALE, 2012; GOH et al., 2010; XU et al., 2012; Shankar, 2010. RAMULU, 2016). Some authors refer to the attribute of occurrences, which also challenge organizational managers because of their unpredictable character (DICKSON; WEAVER, 1997; AVEN et al., 2018; DORIA-BELENGUER et al., 2020). This eventual and unlikely character is provoked by the changes, another attribute evidenced in the studies of Shelanski and Klein (1995), Dickson and Weaver (1997), Lee (2002), Daft et al. (2010), Wagstaff et al. (2015), Gujar (2014), Bairamzadeh et al. (2018), and Poblete and Bengtson (2020). Finally, the most recurrent attribute in the literature is events that managers do not know what to be by vim (CRAWFORD, 1997; BORDIA et al., 2006; LEMPERT, 2003; WONG et al., 2011; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; LANDEMORE, 2014; SMITH; MERNA, 2014; SHANKAR; RAMULU, 2016; AVEN et al., 2018; DIKMEN et al., 2021). Thus, the eventuality challenges the ability of organizational managers to predict how such events can impact the innovation process. These events can arise as market, technological and regulatory changes, causing the need to make adaptations (MCCARTHY et al., 2010) and when the interdependence between project participants is high, there will be a need for mutual adjustments and capabilities that may be beyond the alliance (DYER et al., 2018). This evidence also corroborates the environmental nature of uncertainty. This nature is due to the dynamic environment in which it causes uncertainty to organizations (DUNCAN, 1972; DOWNEY; SLOCUM, 1975; TAFTI et al., 2012; MILLIKEN, 1987; DICKSON; WEAVER, 1997; KOH; SAAD, 2002; PAVLOU et al., 2007; GUJAR, 2014). This means that changes in the environment are dynamic, and managers should adjust to minimize the impacts caused by the environment and ensure that the results will not be affected by the uncertainty arising from the environment. Conditionality is another attribute inherent in uncertainty. This conditional aspect is due to the attributes that characterize uncertainty in organizations. The situation is an attribute that characterizes and qualifies uncertainty (DUNCAN, 1972; FLANAGAN; NORMAN, 1993; NAVY, 1995; BRASHERS, 2001), for example, asking about the situation of an occurrence is usually the first question that an agent/manager asks in the face of uncertainty. Managers need to understand what state a happening is in (PAVLOU et al., 2007; HUBBARD, 2014). Generally, these conditions are related to contexts involving wars, catastrophes, and instabilities, identified in the literature as a climate of sensitivity, tension, turbulence, speculation, disturbance, insecurity, and/or psychosis (MURRAY, 1961; MARCH; OLSEN, 1976; DENIS, 1991; KOH; SAAD, 2002; KOH; SIMPSON, 2005; WALDEN; BROWNE, 2009; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; MESROBIAN et al., 2015; WAGSTAFF et al., 2015; RUSSEL et al., 2021). Doubt is another attribute that supports the idea that all uncertainty has a specific condition, which challenges the investigation of organizational managers (MURRAY, 1961; XU et al., 2012; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; BAPTISTA et al., 2020). These data reveal that uncertainty can be qualified by constraints that, in turn, attribute characteristics to the conception of uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational levels.

Predictability is a fundamental attribute of uncertainty management. This characteristic was identified in the literature through the attributes of prediction, anticipation, and future. In this semantic group, prediction is the most recurrent attribute in the literature, according to the studies by Milliken (1987), Shelanski and Klein (1995), Beckman *et al.* (2004), Meyers and Kromer (2008), Walden and Browne (2009), Daft *et al.* (2010), Wong *et al.* (2011), Xu *et al.* (2012), Hubbard (2014), Hortal *et al.* (2015), Shankar and Ramulu (2016), Ozmel *et al.* (2020), Poblete and Bengtson (2020), and Dikmen *et al.* (2021). Managers find it difficult to predict changes in the environment in advance (GABALDON, 1993; PAVLOU *et al.*, 2007), because of this, the future is an uncertain attribute in

organizations (BORDIA et al., 2006; BECKMAN et al., 2004; BAIRAMZADEH et al., 2018). The analysis of this data denotes that forecasting is an essential attribute for managing uncertainty at the organizational and inter-organizational level, because of this, managers should be able to find data, information, and knowledge to determine the most realistic forecast possible, anticipating events that arise unexpectedly over time. In counterpoint to the prediction, unpredictability is an attribute identified in the literature, according to the studies by Williamson (1985), Chow et al. (1995), Crawford (1997), Lee (2002), Brashers (2001), Koh and Saad (2002), Koh and Simpson (2005), Koh and Gunasekaran (2006), and Pavlou et al. (2007). Analysis of data shows that unpredictability is the result of the manager's inability to predict events that may generate uncertainty during the R&D project. Whereas turbulence in uncertainty challenges organizations and their managers (DUNCAN, 1972; GALBRAITH, 1973; MILLIKEN, 1987; DENIS, 1991; DICKSON; WEAVER, 1997; KOH; SAAD, 2002; SOMMER; LOCH, 2004; BECKMAN et al., 2004; DAFT et al., 2010; TAFTI et al., 2012; OZMEL et al., 2020). This turbulence is usually perceived by the organization through the eventuality attribute (SMITH; MERNA, 2014; SHANKAR; RAMULU, 2016), in business performance (KOH; SAAD, 2002) and organizational results (WONG et al., 2011; HALE, 2012). The analysis of these data demonstrated that uncertainty is a phenomenon present in organizations and in the routine of managers who need to determine appropriate strategies to ensure the survival of the organization through innovation. Therefore, the organization is an attribute subject to uncertainty. Thus, the attribute of organizational processes and routines that characterize and constitute uncertainty in organizations was identified in the literature. This semantic group consisted of the attributes of action, activity, operation, tasks, and processes. Actions, activities, operations, and tasks are attributes performed by managers, who generally have direct relationships with ambiguous or planned results by the organization (GALBRAITH, 1973; TUSHMAN; NADLER, 1978; KOH; SAAD, 2002; KOH; SIMPSON, 2005; GOH et al., 2010; XU et al., 2012). The execution of these attributes takes place within the scope of established steps, routines, and organizational objectives called the process. Organizational processes are related to decision-making subprocesses, management, strategy elaboration, and modeling process (GOH et al., 2010; XU et al., 2012; TAFTI et al., 2012; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; MARTIN et al., 2017; POBLETE; BENGTSON, 2020). The analysis of these data shows that the realization of these actions and operations facilitates the creation of organizational processes and routines to obtain the competitive advantage of the innovations developed. The relational view proposed that the routines of sharing knowledge between partners maintain an interdependent relationship, generate relational gains, and create value that others outside the alliance do not obtain individually (DYER; SINGH, 1998; DYER et al., 2018). These routines occur through the transfer, combination, and creation of valuable knowledge at the end of the life cycle of the collaborative R&D project. Precision is another attribute that reduces uncertainty. This semantic group consisted of the attributes precision, accuracy, calculation, certainty, and reliability identified in the literature. Accuracy refers to the ability to assign precise probabilities about events and their consequences (NRC, 1983; DAVIS; KELLER, 1997; DICKSON; WEAVER, 1997; LEE, 2002; PAVLOU et al., 2007; RAMSEY, 2009; WONG et al., 2011; HUBBARD, 2014; KETTLER et al., 2015; OZMEL et al., 2020; DORIA-BELENGUER et al., 2020). The attributes of calculation, accuracy, and unequivocal, which in the literature are adopted to express the need to calculate the measures accurately to avoid decision-making with mistaken data and information (FINNVEDEN et al., 2009; LANDEMORE, 2014; HUBBARD, 2014; HORTAL et al., 2015; Mironova; IBRAGIMOV, 2021). These attributes are important for organizations because as managers obtain certainty and reality of what can be done, clarity about decisions becomes more evident, according to authors NRC (1983), Kirby (2001), Gosling et al. (2013), Hale (2012), and Gujar (2014). In turn, reliability assigns a degree of confidence in organizational processes and decisions (SHELANSKI; KLEIN, 1995; DUNCAN, 1972; XU et al., 2012; WEAVER et al., 2006). The analysis of this data is assumed that reliability is a necessary attribute

for the organization to have dominion over happening that can impact the innovative processes of organizations.

In counterpoint, inaccuracy is another attribute that sustains uncertainty. Inaccuracy refers to insufficient data, information, and reliable values to make an assertive decision. This insufficiency can be characterized by the attributes of the inaccuracy of information (MURRAY, 1961; XU et al., 2012; KINKELDEY et al., 2017), mistrust (MURRAY, 1961; KREYE et al., 2012), and ambiguous events and occurrences (BRASHERS, 2001; BORDIA et al., 2006; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; KINKELDEY et al., 2017). Occasionally, these attributes arise with evidence of data errors, uncontrolled situations, uncertain information, inconsistent results, imprecision, difference, dispersion of values, and random variables that disturb the organization's processes and routines (BRASHERS, 2001; KIRBY, 2001; VIM, 2004; VAN DER DUIN; DE GRAAF, 2010; XU et al., 2012; CHIUMIENTO et al., 2015; KINKELDEY et al., 2017; KINKELDEY et al., 2017; BAPTISTA et al., 2020; Bharath; ARUL MOZHI SELVAN, 2021). Finally, the attribute of uncertainty causes a lack of understanding and experience of ignorance for organizational managers (MURRAY, 1961; KREYE et al., 2012; BAPTISTA et al., 2020). These data show that inaccuracy is related to managers' inability to obtain accurate information in a state of uncertainty, so organizations should seek reliable and accurate sources of knowledge to be used in the decision-making process. It was identified that all uncertainty involves a decision. This relationship is due to the finding that uncertainty is a phenomenon that provokes the need for a resolution. Decision-making, therefore, is one of its main attributes, as shown by the studies by Murray (1961), Duncan (1972), Bairamzadeh et al. (2018), Wong et al. (2011), Martin et al. (2017), and Saidi-Mehrabad and Pishvaee (2018). Tomake a decision, the action of a dirtier is necessary to conduct the process. Those who assume this role in organizations are the agent takers, also known as managers, humans, human agents, participants, and people. (DOWNEY; SLOCUM, 1975; MARCH; OLSEN, 1976; DENIS, 1991; FLANAGAN; NORMAN, 1993; GABALDON, 1993; SHELANSKI; KLEIN, 1995; Dickson, DICKSON, DICKSON, WEAVER, 1997; ZIMMERMANN, 2001; LEE, 2002; LEMPERT, 2003; MCBEAN; RODGERS, 2010; TAFTI et al., 2012; WAGNER; BY HILAL, 2014; MESROBIAN et al., 2015). During the decisionmaking process, relationships arise between participants (DOWNEY; SLOCUM, 1975; LEMPERT, 2003; SOMMER; LOCH, 2004) with the joint objective of solving the problems caused by uncertainty (TREVINO, 1990; CHENG, 1992; SCHRADER et al., 1993). In this sense, decision-makers should determine what actions should be implemented in the organization to solve the problems (DUNCAN, 1972; WALKER et al., 2003; SINAGA et al., 2021; RUSSEL et al., 2021; BAPTISTA et al., 2020). For this, decision-makers adopt modeling processes and/or are based on management models, because uncertainty causes doubts when choosing the best alternative to reduce it (GOH et al., 2010; XU et al., 2012; LEMPERT, 2003; CRAWFORD, 1997; VAN DER DUIN; DE GRAAF, 2010). The analysis of these attributes showed that the resolution of the problems caused by uncertainty in organizations is, therefore, the attribution of innovation managers who should adopt precise measures to avoid losses of investments in projects (CHEN, 2004), and more collaborative postures with the people involved in the decisionmaking process. This semantic group includes, therefore, the attributes of decision-making, managers, problem-solving, relationships, determination, and modeling that characterize and constitute uncertainty in organizations that develop innovations.

Probability is another attribute that constitutes uncertainty. Assigning probabilities to future events is a generally difficult task for decision-makers. This difficulty is perceived when there is no mastery over the information, the variables are unknown and, much less, there is agreement among managers about a probabilistic future (LEMPERT, 2003; WONG *et al.*, 2011; LANDEMORE, 2014; SMITH, MERNA, 2014). Thus, decision-makers are unable to determine probabilities in a favorable perspective of what may occur. The analysis of this information shows that uncertainty is not probability able. This is because there is no complete information or a history of event

frequency to assign the probabilities. However, under organizational uncertainty, managers seek to mitigate this inability by exchanging experiences with partners facing uncertainty, for example, the institutions that established decision-making through panels with other members, as stated by Pfeffer et al. (1976), although this possibility may generate another uncertainty when companies create relationships to exchange information, however, the specific capabilities of each partner create a climate of doubt about capturing the value of another partner, e.g., Kreye (2017a). Uncertainty is often characterized by problems with information. This recurrence comes from evidence that shows that when managers have complete information of happening, the greater chance of making a decision capable of reducing uncertainty (DUNCAN, 1972; GALBRAITH, 1973; TUSHMAN; NADLER, 1978; WILLIAMSON, 1985; ROWE, 1994; AUBERT et al., 1996; CRAWFORD, 1997; BRASHERS, 2001; ZIMMERMANN, 2001; THIRY, 2002; DAFT et al., 2010; EMBLEMSVÅG, 2010; KREYE et al., 2012; WAGSTAFF et al., 2015; AVEN et al., 2018; POBLETE; BENGTSON, 2020; DIKMEN et al., 2021; MIRONOVA; IBRAGIMOV, 2021). On the other hand, managers are unable to decide precisely when information is imperfect (PAVLOU et al., 2007; WALDEN; BROWNE, 2009; BAIRAMZADEH et al., 2018). Information is essential for managing uncertainty, managers feel more reliable to make decisions, solve problems, and anticipate events that can impair organizational performance. These results corroborate the study by Lasso et al. (2020) that identified an uncertain situation where customers received limited information at the beginning of the project to establish contact with R&D to discuss technical issues. This study contributes to providing more characteristics of how information can be combined to avoid misinformation in the project. All uncertainty expresses a value resulting from events. This expression is characterized by the evaluation of the values, data, measurements, and quantifiable and qualifying variables that constitute the semantic group called uncertainty valuation. The value, therefore, is one of its main attributes as observed in the studies by Schrader et al. (1993), Davis and Keller (1997), Jaafari (2001), Vim (2004), Finnveden et al. (2009), Chiumiento et al. (2015), Sinaga et al. (2021), and Bharath and Arul Mozhi Selvan (2021). The data, in turn, are necessary to attribute values to the happening (TREVINO, 1990; CHENG, 1992; FLANAGAN; NORMAN, 1993; THIRY, 2002). This attribution happens through the measurement of data (VIM, 2004; CHIUMIENTO et al., 2015; HORTAL et al., 2015; DORIA-BELENGUER et al., 2020; BHARATH; ARUL MOZHI SELVAN, 2021). Another attribute identified is the variables, this attribute is used by the organization from the moment it recognizes the relevant variables to decide on uncertainty (SCHRADER et al., 1993; ZIMMERMANN, 2001; SOMMER; LOCH, 2004; GOSLING et al., 2013) and these variables are obtained by qualitative or quantitative data records (GALBRAITH, 1973; NRC, 1983; ZIMMERMANN, 2001; FINNVEDEN et al., 2009; RAMSEY, 2009; KETTLER et al., 2015; AVEN et al., 2018). Finally, the literature demonstrated that the value of uncertainty is expressed by descriptive attributes to evaluate the events as it was properly occurred and were measured. The analysis of these findings shows that uncertainty causes valuation resulting from the subtraction of the value reached and the value planned by the organization. This discovery is important for uncertainty management studies because as the value of innovation is subtracted by uncertainty it will lead to low financial return, loss of valuable assets, and increased transaction costs that could be avoided by decision-makers if there was an accurate assessment of uncertainty. These results contribute to evaluating the spread of uncertainty in innovation projects (DE VASCONCELOS GOMES; LOPEZ-VEGA; FACIN, 2021). These attributes note that the spread of uncertainty reflects the valuation of uncertainty resulting from the difference between the planned value and the value created and the profits achieved by the development of innovation.

All uncertainty causes a result to the organization. This characteristic is verified by identifying the attributes of the results, consequences, performance, and development, which together constitute the semantic group of the results of the organization. Therefore, the result appears as the main attribute in all kinds of uncertainty and marks its

worrying character in organizations, as can be measured in the studies of Duncan (1972), Williamson (1985), Gabaldon (1993), Chow et al. (1995), Crawford (1997), Kirby (2001), Brashers (2001), Vim (2004), Meyers and Kromer (2008), Van Der Duin and De Graaf (2010), Wong et al. (2011), Hale (2012), Gosling et al. (2013), Hubbard (2014), Landemore (2014), Chiumiento et al. (2015), Mesrobian et al. (2015), Bharath and Arul Mozhi Selvan (2021), and Dikmen et al. (2021). The results can be seen as the consequence of the choices and decisions that managers make during uncertainty (LEMPERT, 2003; MCBEAN; RODGERS, 2010), because of this, the consequences directly affect the performance and development process of organizations (DUNCAN, 1972; KOH; GUNASEKARAN, 2006; KOH; SAAD, 2002; KOH; SIMPSON, 2005; WAGNER; DE HILAL, 2014; HUBBARD, 2014). The analysis of these attributes demonstrates that organizational results depend on the decision-taker to face uncertainty during an innovation project. Therefore, the result must be seen as an attribute that depends on the collaboration of the participants in the decision-making process and, thus, obtains organizational results according to what was planned. These results seem to suggest the idea that uncertainty is a logical scheme that begins with the existing dynamics between the external environment and the organizational environment (including interdependent and independent relationships) and ends with an evaluation of uncertainty by organizations, as shown in Figure 2. This dynamic is often not explicit in innovation management studies, so there will always be a need to understand how this dynamic will imply in the organization. It is what the literature calls the perception of managers. However, in terms of unexpected changes, the starting point is to understand how these dynamics arise to establish actions to cope with uncertainty. This problem with uncertainty is called here in the decision-making scheme.

The decision-making process often depends on the decision-maker's knowledge of the happening caused by dynamics, that is, it is a relationship between dependent and independent attributes. Independent attributes are related to knowledge, forecasting, accuracy, information, and environment. This means that these attributes are independent of other factors, on the contrary, ignorance, unpredictability, inaccuracy, and misinformation will cause changes in other factors. In the logical schema, there are also dependent attributes, they are eventuality, conditionality, organizational processes and routines, probability, decision making, and results. These attributes depend on the independent attributes for an effect. For example, in the face of an unknown state, managers need to have complete information about which event was triggered, what conditions of these events, how this impacts the organization's processes, and verify that the information is sufficient to establish probabilities based on other events, which decision-making will be adopted to address uncertainty, and how this may impact the organization's results. A consistent assessment of uncertainty can generate experiences for the innovation project and its managers. This means that the unknown state may be better known, the lack can be reduced, the asymmetry may be less discrepant, and disability may be reduced. In this case, uncertainty would become a risk consisting of attributes that can be forecasted, accurate, and probabilities. Thus, this study advances previous studies that marginalized the attributes of organizational and inter-organizational uncertainty that are necessary for innovation managers to make combinations to manage uncertainty during the life cycle of innovation projects.

CONCLUSION

This study sought to answer what inter-organizational uncertainty is and what its constituent attributes are, through a conceptual proposition developed from the bibliographic method. According to the results presented, the formula adopted to generate the conceptual proposition was: f (phenomenon) = equivalence term + attributes. Therefore, we have: f (inter-organizational uncertainty) = (unknown state / lack / asymmetry / or incapacity) + independent attributes (knowledge, lack of knowledge, prediction, unpredictability, precision, imprecision, information, and environment) + dependent attributes (eventuality, conditionality, processes and routines, probability, decision making and outcome) + evaluative attribute (valuation of uncertainty). In response to the research question, interorganizational uncertainty can be defined as a state unknown to partners who develop collaborative innovations, which are not immune to unexpected events, under unpredictable conditions, and which make it impossible to assign probabilities. And because of interdependence, decisions are taken together to avoid negative results and losses of invested assets. At the organizational level, the main difference is the absence of interdependence and mobilization with external partners to manage organization-specific uncertainties. In this way, organizational uncertainty can be defined by the lack of knowledge about future events that can impact organizational routines, processes, and results. And that causes the need for managers to make accurate decisions to face uncertainty and ensure the survival of the organization in the dynamic and competitive environment. At the collective level, the main difference is the independence between organizations because uncertainty can impact companies in different ways, which can be positive and negative depending on the nature of the uncertainty. So, based on the attributes, collective uncertainty can be defined by the asymmetry of information that different organizations perceive in the face of an unexpected event. In this way, each organization chooses its strategy to face uncertainty independently according to its nature. This study contributed to clarifying the understanding of how to measure uncertainty (DE VASCONCELOS GOMES; LOPEZ-VEJA; FACIN, 2021). It was found that the propagation of uncertainties in innovation projects reflects the valuation of uncertainty. Future studies should validate that the valuation of uncertainty is obtained through the difference between the estimated value creation and the value created in collaborative R&D projects. Future research is needed to explain how collaborative practices and routines are mobilized according to the nature of uncertainty and its attributes. Finally, it is recommended that studies adopt the conceptual proposition in their empirical studies to confirm the conceptual framework and the attributes of uncertainty identified in this study.

Acknowledgment

This study was sponsored by the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES) Brazil, process code [88887.242075/2018-00].Acknowledgment to Instituto Federal do Amazonas for financial and institutional support.

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