

Outsourced R&D and GDP Growth

by

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Abstract

Endogenous growth theory holds that growth should increase with R&D. However coarse comparison between R&D and US GDP growth over the past forty years indicates that inflation scientific labor increased 2.5 times, while GDP growth was at best stagnant. The leading explanation for the disconnect between theory and the empirical record is that R&D has gotten harder. I develop and test an alternative view that firms have become worse at it. I find no evidence R&D has gotten harder. Instead I find firms' R&D productivity declined 65%, and that the main culprit in the decline is outsourced R&D, which is unproductive for the funding firm. This offers hope firms' R&D productivity and economic growth may be fairly easily restored by bringing outsourced R&D back in-house.

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I. Introduction

In January 2011, President Obama signed into law the “America COMPETES Reauthorization Act of 2010”. The goal of the act was to invest in innovation through research and development (R&D) and to thereby improve the competitiveness of the United States. This act reflects the belief since at least Solow (1957) that technological progress drives economic growth. However coarse comparison between R&D and GDP growth over the past forty years (Figure 1) indicates that scientific labor has been increasing, while GDP growth has been declining.

[Insert Figure 1 Here]

This disconnect between R&D and growth conflicts with expectations from endogenous growth theory (Romer 1990, Grossman and Helpman 1991, Aghion and Howitt 1992). That theory builds upon the basic insight of Solow’s model (and empirics) that technological progress drives economic growth. However it departs from Solow with regard to the source of technological change. Solow treated technological change as exogenous (which would be the case if it were coming from universities or government labs), whereas endogenous growth theory treats technological change as the outcome of investment by profit maximizing agents. One of the predictions from Romer is “scale effects”—that the growth rate, g , of knowledge, A , (and under balanced growth, the growth rate for capital and final goods output as well) is defined by the total human capital employed in research, H_A , and the productivity per researcher, δ :

$$(1) \quad g = \delta H_A$$

Thus Romer expects growth to increase in the level of R&D. Figure 1 suggests that isn’t happening in the US. R&D has increased by a factor of 2.5, while GDP growth is at best stagnant. Jones (1995), who first compared the trends in Figure 1, concludes that the “prediction of scale effects is clearly at odds with time series empirical evidence”. He and others (Kortum 1997, Segerstrom 1998) propose that the disconnect between theory and the empirical record occurs because R&D has gotten

harder. In an effort to reconcile theory with the data, Jones offers a model that preserves the basic structure from endogenous growth, but eliminates the scale effects prediction. In particular he introduces a “fishing out” term, θ , which causes the rate of innovation to decrease with the level of knowledge. He also introduces an “externalities” term, λ , which captures duplication in the R&D process by reducing innovation per unit of scientific labor, H_A . Adding fishing out and externalities to the basic growth model yields revised expectations for growth:

$$(2) \quad g = \delta H_A^\lambda A^{\theta-1}$$

In Jones’ view, Romer is a specific form of this more general functional form in which λ and θ both equal 1. If Jones’ arguments are valid then the rate of growth is declining in the level of knowledge, A , as well as the amount of research labor, H_A . Thus growth converges towards zero.

Because the Jones result that growth is independent of R&D runs counter to the intent of endogenous growth theory, I propose and test an alternative interpretation of Figure 1.¹ I argue rather than R&D getting harder, firms have become worse at it. Thus instead of challenging the scale effects assumption, I challenge the assumption that δ is fixed. This explanation preserves Romer, and accordingly the expectation of steady-state growth from R&D.

This paper empirically tests both explanations for the disconnect between the scale effects prediction and the empirical observation in Figure 1. In testing Jones, I find that firms’ maximum R&D productivity across firms is actually increasing over time. Thus I find no support for the argument that R&D has gotten harder. In testing the alternative explanation that firms have gotten worse at R&D, I find that mean firm R&D productivity has declined 65%.

To further support the argument that firms have gotten worse at R&D, I present a causal (and reversible) explanation for the decline in δ . In particular, I show it is due in large part to a shift in firms’ R&D practices toward outsourced R&D, which has

¹ Note a third theory has also been advanced. Peretto (1998) and others (Young 1998, Aghion and Howitt 1998, and Dinopoulos and Thompson 1998) propose that population growth expands the variety of goods (equivalently firms) and that Romer’s mechanics apply within a firm, rather than in aggregate. In analysis available from the author, I show that the phenomenon in Figure 1 also holds within the firm. Thus this theory doesn’t resolve the puzzle.

dramatically lower productivity than internal R&D (essentially zero). I also demonstrate that while the elasticity of firms' combined R&D has deteriorated over the period, there is no decline in productivity for any of the components of R&D (internal, outsourced, foreign). This provides additional evidence that R&D has not gotten harder. Finally, I examine whether outsourcing is inherently less productive, or whether its lower productivity reflects selection effects: low-quality firms outsource and/or firms outsource low-quality projects. Given that the outsourcing effect persists after controlling for the selection effects, I then speculate why outsourcing has lower productivity and why, given that, firms persist with it.

This paper proceeds as follows. First I discuss the empirical approach. Second, I discuss results. Third, I conduct deeper examination of the result that firms have become worse at R&D, by examining changes in firms' R&D practices. Finally, I discuss implications.

II. Empirical Approach

This paper empirically tests both explanations for the disconnect between the scale effects expectation in Romer and the empirical evidence that R&D has grown, while GDP growth has at best remained constant.

The first explanation, Jones (1995) is that R&D has gotten harder. If Jones is correct, then the full distribution of R&D productivity should decline over time. I examine this by constructing rolling R&D productivity estimates for each firm in Compustat over 42 years (1972 to 2013). I then identify the maximum productivity in each year, and examine the significance of a time trend in that maximum. If Jones is correct, the time trend should be negative and significant.

The second explanation, advanced here, is that R&D productivity has declined. To test this, I regress mean firm-year R&D productivity estimates on a time trend. If correct, the time trend should be negative and significant. This of course is very similar to the Jones test—in essence if R&D has gotten harder, firms will appear to have lower R&D productivity. Thus to tease apart firms getting worse from R&D getting harder, I require that maximum productivity is non-decreasing (the Jones test), while within-firm

productivity is decreasing.

Thus tests for both explanations require firm-specific R&D productivity estimates over time. The measure we use for firms' R&D productivity is RQ (short for research quotient). RQ is the firm-specific output elasticity of R&D (Knott 2008). It is exponent γ_i in firm i 's production function (Equation 3). Thus RQ matches the most common approach to measuring returns to R&D at the industry level (Hall, Mairesse, Mohnen 2010). What distinguishes RQ from prior measures is that coefficients are firm-specific rather than shared across all firms in an industry.

$$(3) \quad Y = A_i K_{i,t}^\alpha L_{i,t}^\beta R_{i,t-1}^\gamma S_{i,t-1}^\delta D_{i,t}^\phi e_{i,t}$$

where $Y_{i,t}$ is output, A_i is a firm fixed effect, $K_{i,t}$ is capital, $L_{i,t}$ is labor, $R_{i,t-1}$ is lagged R&D, $S_{i,t-1}$ is lagged spillovers, $D_{i,t}$ is advertising.

We obtain the RQ for each firm-year from 1972-2006 from the [Research Quotient \(RQ\) database](#) hosted by Wharton Data Research Services (WRDS). Table 1 provides summary statistics for RQ and the corresponding variables from equation 3.

[Insert Table 1 Here]

III. Results

3.1 Test of Jones (1995)-R&D getting harder

Results for the first test (the Jones model), are presented in Table 2. If Jones is correct that R&D has gotten harder, then maximum firm RQ should decline over time. Table 2 (Model 1), an OLS model at the firm level, reveals the opposite is true—maximum RQ is increasing over time. While only significant at the 10 percent level, the coefficient on year is positive. The coefficient estimate of 0.007 implies that max RQ is growing at roughly 7% per year. Thus, if anything, R&D appears to have become easier.

[Insert Table 2 Here]

To examine this result further, I constructed a series of industry-year maximums, where I sequentially model more granular definitions of industry: Model 2 examines

industry defined at the 1 digit SIC code, Model 3 at the 2 digit, Model 4 at the 3 digit and Model 5 at the 4 digit. An interesting pattern emerges as industry definition becomes more granular—maximum RQ transitions from increasing over time to decreasing over time. This suggests that the Jones hypothesis might hold at the industry level. More interestingly, it suggests that while R&D is getting harder within industry, we are generating new industries with greater opportunity.

3.2 Test of firms getting worse at R&D

To test the explanation that firms have gotten worse at R&D, I examine the trend in firm RQ. I first present this graphically in Figure 2. The figure indicates there has been a dramatic decline (65%) in mean firm RQ. Moreover, the decline coincides with the decline in implied δ from equation 1 (GDP growth divided by scientific labor).

[Insert Figure 2 Here]

While Figure 2 graphically presents evidence of declining firm productivity, I formally test that by regressing firm RQ on a time trend. Table 3 reveals that the coefficient on year is negative and significant in both OLS (Model 1) and firm fixed effects (Model 2) models. The coefficient -0.0014 in the fixed effects model indicates that on average firm R&D productivity was declining at a rate of 1.4% per year. This is consistent with the total decline of 65% in Figure 2.

[Insert Table 3 Here]

As mentioned previously, the result of declining RQ is also consistent with the Jones hypothesis—if R&D has gotten harder, firms will appear to have lower R&D productivity. However, the combination of the result here that mean firm RQ is decreasing, with that from Table 2, that maximum R&D is increasing (the Jones test), suggests that firms are getting worse at R&D, rather than that R&D is getting harder.

IV. WHAT ACCOUNTS FOR THE DECLINE IN FIRMS' RQ

The results so far provide preliminary evidence that the explanation advanced here (firms are getting worse at R&D) better accounts for the disconnect between Romer and the empirical evidence in Figure 1 than does the Jones explanation. However, the result that firms have gotten worse would be more compelling if we could tie it to firm behavior. Doing so requires data on firms' R&D practices. Thus while the data for the primary tests come from publicly available sources, data for deeper examination comes from the National Science Foundation (NSF) Survey of Industrial Research and Development (SIRD). The SIRD is an annual survey of firms conducting R&D in the US. Since historically 69% to 75% of US R&D is performed by firms², this comprises the majority of US R&D activity. The SIRD was collected through a joint partnership between the sponsoring agency, the National Science Foundation (NSF), and the Census Bureau from 1957 to 2007 (though microdata is only available from 1972 forward)³.

The SIRD is gathered from a sample intended to represent all for-profit R&D-performing companies, either publicly or privately held. (see Foster and Grimm 2010 for details). The sampling methodology comprises a census of all firms whose R&D expenditure exceeds one million dollars, and a random sample of firms with smaller budgets. In order to minimize the burden of completing the survey, the SIRD collects some data each year, and other data in alternating years. The data collected annually includes: domestic sales, domestic employment, number of scientists/engineers, and total domestic R&D expenditures by source of funding (Federal R&D funds versus company R&D funds), horizon (basic research, applied research, and development), and location (internal, outsourced within US, conducted by foreign entities). The data collected in alternating years adds: total R&D costs decomposed by type (wages and salaries of R&D personnel, costs of materials, depreciation on R&D property and equipment, and other costs). For R&D conducted internally, it also includes distribution across the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Survey instructions provide details on what to include in each category (as well as

² www.nsf.gov/statistics/seind12/c4/c4s1.htm

³ As of 2008, the SIRD was substantially redesigned and renamed the Business Research and Development and Innovation Survey (BRDIS).

give examples). For example, R&D includes: *Basic research*: “the planned, systematic pursuit of new knowledge or understanding toward general application”, *Applied research*: “the acquisition of knowledge or understanding to meet a specific recognized need”, and *Development*: “the application of knowledge or understanding toward the production or improvement of a product, service, process or method”. However, R&D explicitly excludes “quality control, routine product testing, market research, sales promotion, sales service, routine technical services and other non-technological activities.”

I construct a variable *internal R&D*, by summing three SIRD variables (basic research, *brtot*, applied research, *ardtot*, development, *devtot*). Other variables include: US outsourced R&D, *outuscomp*, and foreign R&D, *outforeign*, domestic revenues, *dns*, and the number of full-time equivalent employees, *dne*. A summary of these variables is presented in Table 4.

[Insert Table 4 Here]

The first step in understanding the decline in RQ examines trends in the SIRD data. Those data reveal that the only trend as dramatic as the decline in RQ is the rise in R&D outsourcing (Figure 3). Mean firm outsourcing increased by a factor of 20.5 for the thirty-year period 1972 to 2001. In contrast, foreign R&D grew by a factor of 3.0 and scientific labor by a factor of 2.4. This prompts the hypothesis that outsourcing may have contributed to the decline in δ .

[Insert Figure 3 Here]

This shift from internal R&D to outsourced R&D is only relevant to total decline in δ however, if the productivity of internal and outsourced R&D differ. To test that, I decompose R&D investment into its three SIRD constituents (internal, outsourced, and foreign), then substitute all three constituents for the single R&D input, *R*, in Equation 3. I then estimate the contribution of each form of R&D to firm output. Note that SIRD

does not collect data on capital or advertising, thus this estimation suffers from omitted variables. Comparison of RQ estimates of Compustat data with the full set of variables in equation 3 versus the abbreviated set of SIRD variables, indicates the RQs from the two approaches are correlated at 92%.

Results are presented in Table 5. Model 1 presents results for the full period over which we have all variables (1983 to 2000).⁴ The model indicates the elasticity of internal R&D is 0.0128, whereas the elasticity of outsourced R&D is essentially zero (0.001). This means a 10% increase in internal R&D increases revenues 1.3%, whereas a 10% increase in outsourced R&D has no impact on revenues. Since the scales of internal versus outsourced R&D differ, we also evaluate the marginal values in dollars. An additional \$100,000 in internal R&D at the mean yields a 1.30% increase in revenues. In contrast an additional \$100,000 in outsourced R&D yields a 0.03% increase in revenues—a 43X difference. These results are robust to the exclusion of spillovers (Model 2). Thus outsourcing appears to be unproductive for the funding firm.

[Insert Table 5 Here]

This result seems fairly compelling, but because I posit that outsourcing rather than “R&D getting harder” is responsible for the decline in RQ, it is useful to examine how coefficients on the R&D elements are changing over time. To do so, I subdivide the data from Model 1 into three periods, and re-estimate the production function for each period (Models 3-5). Results indicate the elasticities for all three components of R&D are fairly stable over time. The difference in coefficients from model 3 to model 5 for each component is insignificant. Thus again, I find no support for the hypothesis that R&D has gotten harder. More interestingly, firms have not gotten worse at any element of R&D. Thus the decline in RQ appears to stem from reallocation of R&D resources from more productive (internal) to less productive (outsourced) elements.

The result that outsourcing is unproductive raises the question of whether the effect is real or merely an artifact of who outsources (firm quality) or what gets outsourced (project quality). Building a model of the outsourcing decision to address the

⁴ Prior to 1983 not all SIRD variables were available all years; post 2000 some variable definitions changed

firm quality question requires some understanding of why firms outsource. Interviews with R&D managers indicate they outsource for a number of reasons, and that those reasons vary with top-level R&D strategy rather than industry mandate (in less than 5% of industries is it the case that all firms outsource). At one end of the outsourcing spectrum, firms outsource only to universities and government labs. They do this to gain access to basic research as well as to identify potential employees. In the middle of the spectrum, firms outsource under special circumstances. For example, they use outsourcing as a flexible substitute for internal hiring when future demand is uncertain; they outsource activities where they lack capability and don't intend to develop it internally (because they would operate below efficient scale); or they outsource testing (particularly in the case of pharmaceutical trials by contract research organizations, CROs). At the extreme end, firms outsource all "non-core" R&D activities.

The SIRD did not collect data on the destination for outsourced R&D, however these data were collected in its successor, the Business R&D and Innovation Survey (BRDIS). A report of BRDIS data (Morris and Schakelford 2014) indicates 3.4% of outsourcing is to universities, 81.3% is to companies, and the remaining 15.2% is to government agencies and other organizations. Thus the vast majority of outsourcing is to firms, suggesting it conforms to rationale in the middle and extreme ends of the spectrum.

I employ these insights to construct a two-stage treatment model of the impact of outsourcing, where the first stage models the firm's decision to outsource, and the second stage models the treatment effect of that choice on internal R&D productivity. To estimate the first stage, I construct a variable, *neverout*, which takes on the value 0 if the firm has ever outsourced, and takes on the value 1 otherwise. Because of the limited number of variables in SIRD, no first stage model was able to explain more than 5% of the variance in *neverout*. Despite that, the treatment model (Table 6) yields interesting results.

[Insert Table 6 Here]

Model 1 captures the impact of outsourcing on *internal RQ*. If quality of firms who outsource drives the lower productivity of outsourcing, the coefficient for *neverout*

should be significant in the second stage model of internal R&D productivity. This “treatment effect” would mean that firms who outsource have lower internal R&D productivity. Table 6 indicates that’s not the case. The coefficient on *neverout* in model 1 is zero. This implies that outsourcing firms are of the same quality as non-outsourcing firms (have the same internal R&D productivity). In contrast, Model 2 repeats the test but examines the treatment effect of outsourcing on the *total RQ* (the sum of internal, outsourced and foreign). Here the coefficient on *neverout* is significant. Because the first test rules out differences in internal RQ, the second test suggests the lower RQ of outsourcing firms stems from outsourcing itself.

While firm quality doesn’t appear to drive the outsourcing result, it is still possible the lower productivity of outsourced R&D is driven by project quality—firms outsource their lower quality projects. To investigate that, I examine what happens to firms’ internal R&D productivity surrounding the time they first outsource. I do this by creating an eleven-year event window around the time a firm first outsources R&D (year zero ± 5). I then regress moving estimates of firms’ internal RQs on the set of event-year dummies. If firms are merely outsourcing their lower quality R&D projects, their internal productivity should increase immediately after they shunt those projects to outsourcing. Table 7 indicates that doesn’t happen. In fact, the mean coefficient prior to outsourcing (0.0006) is actually higher than post-outsourcing (0.0000), though not significantly. Thus it appears unlikely project quality is driving the lower productivity of outsourcing.

[Insert Table 7 Here]

Since neither low quality firms nor low quality projects explain the lower productivity of outsourced R&D, it appears outsourced R&D inherently has lower productivity than internal R&D. What might drive that? While the data don’t provide insight, a reasonable explanation is that R&D produces internal spillovers. We know R&D generates spillovers across firms, e.g., Spence 1984, so it seems reasonable this would be true within firms. To understand the intuition for internal spillovers, consider the fact that firms carry portfolios of projects. The most likely outcome from each project is termination: a survey of member firms in the Industrial Research Institute (IRI) reports

that on average only two in 125 funded projects are ultimately launched commercially (Stevens and Burley 1997). This means the value of R&D projects lies outside project outcomes themselves—most likely in the ability to recycle knowledge gleaned from the failures into subsequent projects.

A specific example of this from Hughes Aircraft Company (Chester 1994) pertains to ion propulsion technology. The technology was originally developed for attitude correction of military satellites, though its real advantage lay in long-term reliability. Given military satellites generally have missions lasting only five years, the higher upfront costs of ion propulsion were never warranted, so development was terminated. However, because of Hughes' broad product base, the company was able to redeploy the technology for previously unforeseen applications such as ion implantation of semiconductor layers. Had Hughes outsourced the ion propulsion R&D, the outsourced firm would have derived that benefit (to the extent they too were broad-based). While the Hughes case is anecdotal, there is some quantitative evidence that firms fail to capture spillovers when they outsource. A recent study of internet banking adoption finds that banks who outsource the initial IT integration are less able to develop new applications and accordingly have lower revenues from their internet operations (Weigelt 2009).

An alternative explanation for inherently lower productivity of outsourced R&D is that it is more costly to exploit and/or less likely to be exploited because key technical resources lie outside the firm. This explanation would be consistent with early work by Tom Allen (1977) showing that R&D project efficiency is driven in part by proximity, and with later work (Clark and Fujimoto 1991) showing that co-locating design engineers and manufacturing engineers dramatically reduced the duration and cost of automobile development. Similar effects have been found for technology outsourcing (Helfat and Raubitschek 2000, Weigelt 2009).

In summarizing this deeper examination of the decline in firms' R&D productivity, it appears to be driven by a shift toward greater use of outsourced R&D. This conclusion is based on the following observations: a) Outsourcing has grown at ten times the rate of R&D labor, b) outsourced R&D is unproductive for the funding firm, and c) the lower productivity of outsourcing does not appear to be driven by firm quality or project quality.

V. Discussion

Since at least Solow (1957) there is widespread belief that technological progress drives economic growth. Romer's (1990) theory to explain the mechanism through which R&D investment drives growth yielded the "scale effects" prediction that growth should increase in the level of scientific labor. However empirical evidence conflicts with that: US scientific labor has been increasing, while GDP growth has been stagnant.

The first hypothesis advanced to explain the disconnect between Romer's theory and the empirical evidence (Jones 1995) holds that R&D has gotten harder. Since that theory implies zero growth from R&D in steady-state (which is inconsistent with the spirit of endogenous growth theory), I offered an alternative explanation that preserves the Romer model: R&D productivity has declined.

I tested both explanations. I found first that mean firm R&D productivity (RQ) had declined dramatically. Moreover the decline in firm RQ was highly correlated with the decline in Romer's δ . Since it would appear firms' RQ had declined whether it had in fact declined, or whether it had gotten harder, I conducted two additional tests to see which explanation was driving the apparent decline. First I examined what happened to maximum RQ over time. If R&D has gotten harder, then the entire distribution of RQ should decline. I found instead that maximum RQ had actually increased, suggesting that R&D may instead have become easier. Thus I found no evidence that R&D has gotten harder. Having ruled out R&D getting harder, the decline in firm R&D productivity appears to stem from firms becoming worse at it.

The bulk of the analysis then explored the "getting worse" explanation further. I found first, that the composition of firms' R&D had changed. In particular, outsourced R&D had increased 20.5x during a period over which R&D labor had increased 2.5x. I found second, that outsourced R&D was unproductive--its output elasticity was essentially zero. Thus it appears outsourced R&D offers a plausible explanation for the decline in R&D productivity. Further tests of firm quality and project quality suggest that neither is driving the lower productivity of outsourced R&D. Thus outsourced R&D appears to be inherently less productive.

While the question of why outsourced R&D has lower productivity than internal R&D is interesting and important, a related and equally important question is why firms persist with outsourcing, given its lower productivity. Again the SIRD data provide no insights. However, there is substantial evidence that firms don't know the underlying productivity of their R&D. Indeed the Industrial Research Institute (IRI) reports the need for better R&D metrics is a top concern of members (Schwartz, Miller, Plummer, Fusfeld 2011).

Given this ambiguity about the productivity of R&D, firms are vulnerable to information cascades. An information cascade occurs when it is optimal for actors to follow the behavior of preceding actors without regard for their own information (Bikchandani, Hirshleifer and Welch 1992). The relevant cascade in this instance pertains to open innovation, which was first mentioned in 1983, but was later popularized by books (Chesbrough 2000) as well as articles in MIT Sloan's Review (Chesbrough 2003) and Business Week (Eingardio and Einhorn 2005). The espoused benefits of open innovation include reduced cost of R&D as well higher R&D productivity. Evidence of the power of the open innovation cascade comes from a survey of CIOs and CEOs which reveals 70% of them believe outsourced innovation improves financial performance (Oshri and Kotlarsky 2011), which is unlikely given the evidence presented here.

It is worth noting that outsourcing is just one form of open innovation. Another form—"external knowledge sourcing" appears to increase innovation (Cassiman and Veuglers 2006, Arora, Cohen and Walsh 2014). The key distinction between the two forms of open innovation is that external knowledge sourcing pertains to the locus for obtaining an idea, whereas R&D outsourcing pertains to the locus for researching and developing an idea.

While the questions of why outsourcing has lower productivity and why, despite that, firms persist with it, are ripe areas for future research, we have made progress in explaining the disconnect between Romer's theory and the empirical record. It is not that R&D has gotten harder, a dismal explanation that yields zero growth in steady-state. Rather it appears firms have become worse at it--their R&D productivity has declined. This decline stems from reallocation of R&D resources from more productive (internal R&D) to less productive (outsourced R&D) activity, rather than from fundamental decay

in R&D capability.

These results have two implications. First, Romer's prospect of steady-state growth from R&D may still be valid. Second, the solution to economic growth rests with firms rather than policymakers. The decline in economic growth merely reflects the aggregate decline in firm level growth. Accordingly, and perhaps most importantly, it may be possible to restore R&D productivity and growth fairly simply—by gradually bringing outsourced R&D back inside the funding firm.

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TABLE 1. Compustat Data Summary

Observations=55947

| | Mean | StDev | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|
| 1. l(revenue) | 5.24 | 2.47 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 2. l(capital) | 3.42 | 2.92 | 0.95 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 3. l(employees) | 0.19 | 2.30 | 0.95 | 0.93 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 4. l(R&D) | 1.89 | 2.43 | 0.82 | 0.75 | 0.74 | 1.00 | | | |
| 5. l(advertising) | -5.07 | 5.31 | 0.19 | 0.16 | 0.20 | 0.18 | 1.00 | | |
| 6. l(spillovers) | 5.80 | 4.18 | -0.17 | -0.21 | -0.28 | 0.04 | -0.05 | 1.00 | |
| 7. RQ | 0.10 | 0.08 | 0.16 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.18 | 0.07 | -0.06 | 1.00 |

TABLE 2. Test of Jones hypothesis that R&D has gotten harder

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | OLS | FE | FE | FE | FE |
| Dependent variable | yearRQmax | sic1yr RQmax | sic2yr RQmax | sic3yr RQmax | sic4yr RQmax |
| Year | 0.007 [^] 0.004 | 0.002 0.001 | 0.000 0.000 | -0.001 0.000 | -0.001 0.000 |
| Industry effects | | included | included | included | included |
| Constant | -13.900 8.731 | -4.245 1.514 | 0.126 0.449 | 1.961 0.206 | 2.138 0.161 |
| R-squared within | 0.067 | 0.011 0.023 | 0.000 0.000 | 0.010 0.013 | 0.012 0.016 |
| between | | 0.289 | 0.012 | 0.000 | 0.001 |
| adjusted R-sq | 0.043 | | | | |
| observations | 41 | 402 | 1938 | 6197 | 9627 |
| groups (sic) | | 10 | 65 | 235 | 367 |

TABLE 3. Test of Firms getting worse at R&D

| Dependent variable | 1 | 2 |
|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | OLS RQ | FE RQ |
| Year | -0.0009 0.0000 | -0.0014 0.0000 |
| firm effects | | yes |
| Constant | 1.9233 0.0660 | 2.8637 0.0853 |
| R-squared within | 0.0134 | 0.0134 0.0206 |
| between | | 0.0019 |
| adjusted R-sq | 0.0134 | |
| observations | 55957 | 55957 |
| groups (firms) | | 6217 |

TABLE 4. NSF Survey of Industrial R&D (SIRD) Data
 28500 Firm-year Observations (3500 firms)

| | Mean | Std.Dev. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|------------------|-------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1.ln(revenue) | 10.89 | 2.28 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 2.ln(scientists) | 2.82 | 1.93 | 0.53 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 3.ln(employees) | 6.20 | 2.00 | 0.92 | 0.76 | 1.00 | | | |
| 4.ln(InternalRD) | 7.73 | 2.46 | 0.63 | 0.91 | 0.71 | 1.00 | | |
| 5.ln(outUS) | 5.45 | 2.47 | 0.29 | 0.54 | 0.33 | 0.63 | 1.00 | |
| 6.ln(foreign) | 7.27 | 2.29 | 0.44 | 0.62 | 0.49 | 0.64 | 0.51 | 1.00 |

TABLE 5. Decomposing R&D productivity

| <i>Random coefficients estimation</i> | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Dependent variable: ln(Revenues) Y_{it} | 1983-2000 | 1983-2000 | 1983-1988 | 1989-1994 | 1995-2000 |
| ln(employees) (L_{it}) | 0.841 | 0.843 | 0.885 | 0.867 | 0.921 |
| | 0.006 | 0.006 | 0.018 | 0.015 | 0.023 |
| ln(internalR&D) (R_{it-1}) | 0.128 | 0.126 | 0.114 | 0.094 | 0.108 |
| | 0.004 | 0.004 | 0.015 | 0.010 | 0.011 |
| ln(outsource R&D) (O_{t-1}) | 0.001 | 0.002 | 0.008 | 0.006 | 0.009 |
| | 0.002 | 0.002 | 0.003 | 0.003 | 0.004 |
| ln(foreignR&D) (F_{it-1}) | 0.008 | 0.007 | 0.003 | 0.004 | 0.000 |
| | 0.002 | 0.002 | 0.004 | 0.004 | 0.003 |
| ln(spillovers) (S_{it-1}) | 0.004 | | 0.003 | -0.005 | -0.008 |
| | 0.001 | | 0.002 | 0.002 | 0.002 |
| Constant | 4.872 | 4.915 | 4.487 | 5.210 | 4.931 |
| | 0.049 | 0.047 | 0.147 | 0.113 | 0.123 |
| Log-likelihood | -25911 | -26195 | -2094 | -5019 | -3902 |
| Wald chi2 | 23438 | 24022 | 3939 | 5649 | 8292 |
| prob>chi2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Observations | 28500 | 28500 | 2500 | 5000 | 5000 |
| Firms | 3500 | 3500 | 500 | 1000 | 1000 |

Obs and firms rounded to nearest 500

Std errors below coefficients

Coefficients in bold significant at 0.05

TABLE 6. Treatment test of firm quality

| <i>Treatment regression</i> | (1) | (2) |
|--|---------------|---------------|
| Dependent variable: | Internal RQ | Aggregate RQ |
| ln(employees) | 0.000 | -0.004 |
| | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Scientist ratio (dns/dne) | 0.006 | 0.012 |
| | 0.001 | 0.002 |
| Scientist cost (totcost/dns) | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Neverout | 0.000 | 0.015 |
| | 0.001 | 0.008 |
| Constant | 0.093 | 0.087 |
| | 0.001 | 0.007 |
| <hr/> | | |
| wald chi2 | 40.46 | 484.5 |
| prob>chi2 | 0 | 0 |
| <hr/> | | |
| <i>stage 1 neverout</i> | | |
| Basic percent (brtot/rdtotown) | 0.511 | 0.508 |
| | 0.122 | 0.117 |
| Applied percent (ardtot/rdtotown) | -0.186 | -0.291 |
| | 0.124 | 0.118 |
| Foreign percent (outforeign/RDtrue) | -1.330 | -1.451 |
| | 0.215 | 0.194 |
| Federal percent (fedtot/Rdtrue) | 0.194 | 0.098 |
| | 0.164 | 0.180 |
| Constant | 0.857 | 0.870 |
| | 0.078 | 0.073 |
| <hr/> | | |
| /ath rho | 0.030 | -0.242 |
| /lnsigma | -4.548 | -3.676 |
| rho | 0.030 | -0.237 |
| sigma | 0.010 | 0.025 |
| lambda | 0.000 | -0.006 |
| prob>chi2 | 0.690 | 0.026 |
| <hr/> | | |
| observations | 6000 | 6500 |
| firms | 500 | 500 |
| <hr/> | | |
| Obs and firms rounded to nearest 500 | | |
| Std errors below coefficients | | |
| Coefficients in bold significant at 0.05 | | |

TABLE 7. Test of Project Quality

| | (1) |
|--|------------------------|
| Dependent variable: Internal RQ | |
| t-5 | 0.003 0.001 |
| t-4 | 0.002 0.001 |
| t-3 | 0.003 0.001 |
| t-2 | -0.004 0.001 |
| t-1 | -0.001 0.001 |
| first year of outsourcing | -0.003 0.001 |
| t+1 | 0.002 0.001 |
| t+2 | -0.002 0.001 |
| t+3 | 0.004 0.001 |
| t+4 | -0.003 0.001 |
| t+5 | 0.001 0.000 |
| Constant | 0.097 0.000 |
| R-squared | 0.013 |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.012 |
| Observations | 15000 |
| Firms | 1000 |

Obs and firms rounded to nearest 500

Std errors below coefficients

Coefficients in bold significant at 0.05

FIGURE 1. Empirical Evidence Questioning Romer's Scale Effects

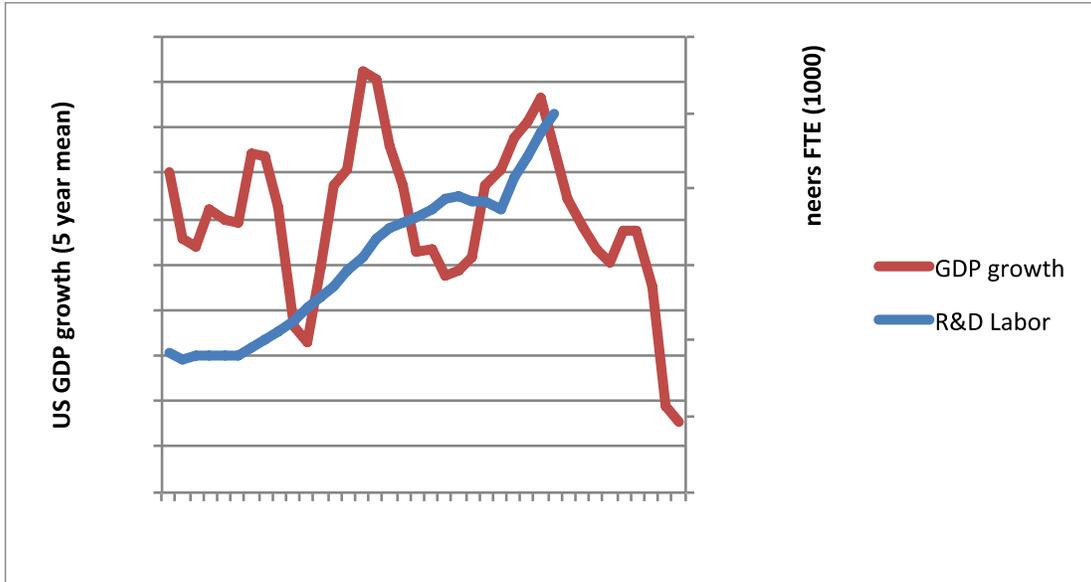


FIGURE 2. Test of R&D getting harder

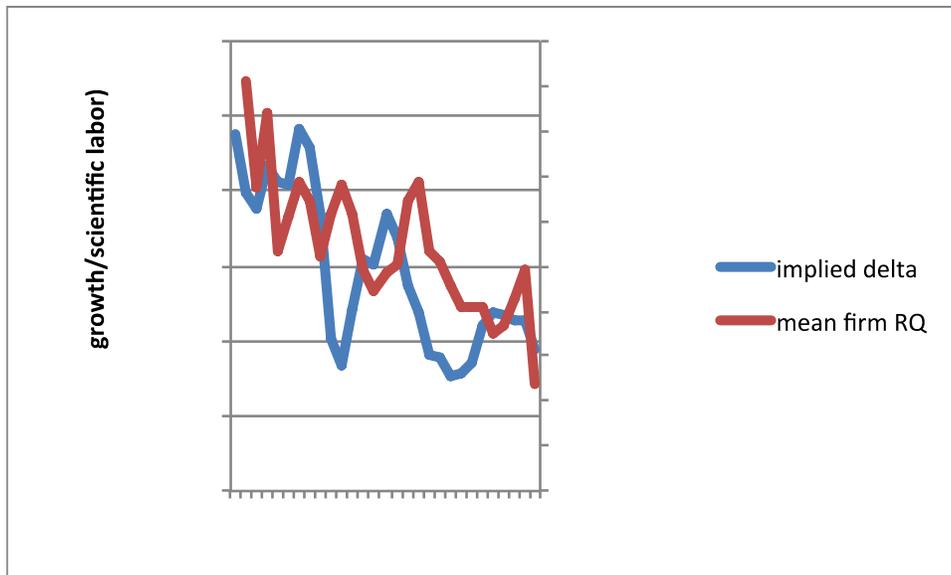


FIGURE 3. Trends in SIRD Data

