// NO.20-021 | 05/2020

DISCUSSION PAPER

// CHRISTIAN RAMMER, FELIX ROTH,
AND MARKUS TRUNSCHKE

Measuring Organisation Capital at the Firm Level: A Production Function Approach





Measuring Organisation Capital at the Firm Level:

A Production Function Approach

Christian Rammer^{a)}, Felix Roth^{b)} and Markus Trunschke^{a)}

April 2020

Abstract

Organisation capital is one of the key intangible assets of firms, driving innovation and firm performance. Measuring this asset has been notoriously difficult, however. Differently to other intangible assets, firms do not build up organisation capital primarily by monetary investment but rather through establishing new organisational routines and building up trust, which often do not coincide with any financial expenditure. Quantifying such efforts at the firm level has largely failed so far. This paper takes up a traditional production function approach which includes, in addition to labour and tangible assets, investment in all measurable intangible assets (technological and non-technological knowledge, software and databases, firm-specific human capital, brand equity), but excluding organisation capital. The residuum of the estimation is considered as a measure of a firm' organisation capital. Using panel data from the German innovation survey, we find higher organisation capital in young and small firms. Our measure tends to show a u-shaped link to qualitative indicators such as organisational

JEL-Classification:

D24, E22, L25

Key words:

innovation.

Organisation Capital, Production Function, CIS

a) Centre for European Economic Research (ZEW), Mannheim, Germany, rammer@zew.de, trunschke@zew.de

b) University of Hamburg, Germany, felix.roth@uni-hamburg.de

Acknowledgments: This paper is part of the research project "INFOWIK - Investment in New Forms of Knowledge-based Capital" funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (funding ID: 161FI007).

1

1 Introduction

Organisation capital has been identified as a key driver of firm performance (Lev and Radhakrishnan 2005). Building up organisation capital is hence at the centre of organisational development of firms, and a priority of the management of a firm. The literature on intangible assets considers the investment in organisation capital (cost of organisational change and development) as a key component of a firm's expenditure on economic competences (Corrado et al. 2005). Measuring organisation capital is difficult, however. There are no established metrics, no category in firms' accounting and reporting systems that can be used. Some attempts have been to measure investment in organisation capital at the firm level (see Awano et al. 2010, focussing on business process improvement).

Corrado et al. (2005) propose to use a certain share of labour cost of managers and the purchase of consulting services as a proxy. While these measures may correlate with organisation capital at an aggregate (sector, country) level, it is a less appropriate measure at the firm level. Increasing salaries of managers, employing more managers and hiring business consultants are not necessarily linked to a higher level of organisation capital. More investment in organisational development may rather indicate a deficit in organisation capital which should be overcome by these efforts, but it is uncertain whether this investment will actually result in higher organisation capital. The same applies to expenditure related to the accounting item 'selling, general and administrative expenses' which was used by Lev and Radhakrishnan (2005) and Tronconi and Marzetti (2011) to measure investment in organisation capital at the firm level. If a firm has managed to establish organisational routines and social practices that encourage collaboration and creativity, it will have to spend little if any extra money on maintaining its high level of organisational efficiency. Effective organisational structures will rather reduce the administrative expenses.

The limitations of expenditure figures for measuring the amount of organisation capital a firm has built up, led the empirical literature to focus on more qualitative measures (Mayer et al. 1995, Dietz and den Hartog 2006). While these studies provide very valuable insights into the ways firms successfully develop effective organisational routines and business processes, these measures are difficult to be combined with other measures on intangible assets. They also require dedicated surveys.

This paper proposes an alternative way of measuring the extent of organisation capital in firms. The basic idea is borrowed from early works on measuring technological change as a residual in a production function (Solow 1957). If one captures all measurable tangible (capital, labour) and intangible determinants of productivity (R&D, other innovative property, software & databases, firm-specific human capital, brand equity), but excludes the difficult-to-measure organisation capital, the residual should be highly correlated with the unmeasurable.

We use firm-level panel data from the German innovation survey to empirically apply this approach and to test the plausibility of the results by comparing the estimated firm-specific residual with other qualitative measures of organisation capital. The next section discusses the role of organisation capital as part of the concept of intangible investment and summarises empirical approaches that have been used in the past to measure organisation capital at the firm level. Section 3 describes our empirical approach while section 4 presents the estimation results. Section 5 concludes.

2 Organisation Capital and Intangible Investment

Organisation capital has been defined by Evenson and Westphal (1995: 2237) as "knowledge used to combine human skills and physical capital into systems for producing and delivering want-satisfying products." This knowledge relates to various firm capabilities, including the way different activities are managed and interlinked, how the allocation of resources across activities is organised and optimised, and how change and innovation is incorporated into the organisation. Lev and Radhakrishnan (2005: 75) summarise that "organisation capital is an agglomeration of business practices, processes and designs, and incentive and compensation systems that together enable some firms to consistently and efficiently extract from a given level of physical and human resources a higher value of product than other firms find possible to attain." In this paper, we follow Corrado et al.'s (2005) classification of intangibles that considers organisation capital as one part of the category 'economic competences'. Other parts of 'economic competences', which are not considered organisation capital in this paper, include brand equity and firm-specific human capital.

Organisation capital is a very special type of intangible asset, quite different from the others (technological and non-technological knowledge, software and databases, firm-specific human capital, brand equity). Organisation capital is mainly built up through interaction of people and

the establishment of organisational routines and social practices which facilitate collaboration among individuals and encourages creativity (e.g. by building trust). This type of investment is only partially related to monetary expenditure. Organisation capital is mainly embodied in employees and how employees interact with each other (se Jovanovic 1979)

Measuring organisation capital is particularly difficult owing to its tacit nature. Investment in organisation capital is not captured by accounting categories, and usually firms do not track such investment in their internal reporting system (Corrado et al. 2005:76f). In the literature, various approaches have been explored to come up with estimates on organisation capital at the firm level:

- (a) An input-based approach attempts to identify the costs of organisational change and development, using the revenues of the management consulting industry and wages in executive levels (see Corrado et al. 2005).
- (b) A task-based approach (see Squicciarini and Mouel 2012) uses the salaries for managers in certain managerial occupations as a proxy for investment in organisation capital.
- (c) An accounting-based approach uses the accounting category 'selling, general and administrative expenses' from firm accounts as a starting point for estimating investment in organisation capital (Lev and Radhakrishnan 2005, Tronconi and Marzetti 2011).
- (d) A survey-based approach tries to collect data on expenditure related to improving the efficiency and the effectiveness of business processes, including both internal costs and purchased services. Awano et al. (2010a,b) for the UK, and Perani and Guerrazzi (2012) for Italy run such surveys.
- (e) A production-function approach aims to identify the contribution of measurable capital inputs (fixed capital, labour, measurable intangibles) to output and analyse the part of output not accounted for by these inputs with respect to organisation capital inputs (see Atkeson and Kehoe 2005, Lev and Radhakrishnan 2005, Miyagawa and Kim 2008).

Lev and Radhakrishnan (2005) simultaneously estimate a production function and a function of selling, general and administrative expenses. The extra revenues generated by a firm given its level of resources is the difference between the predicted revenue with and without organisation capital in the production function as captured by the instrument of selling, general and administrative expenses. This extra revenue is viewed to arise from organisation capital. In a different model

setting, Atkeson and Kehoe (2005) analyse the specific productivity of plants which is assumed to depend on the vintage of the plant's technology and its built-up stock of knowledge on how to use that technology. The growth of a plant's specific productivity is viewed to result from a stochastic learning process and will increase over time. The rents exceeding the rental payments for physical capital and labour are interpreted as organisation rents based on the built-up organisation capital. These rents, and hence organisation capital, increases over time in Atkeson and Kehoe's (2005) model. Miyagawa and Kim (2008) estimated a production function for Japanese manufacturing firms considering fixed capital and two types of intangible capital, R&D and branding. The elasticities of R&D and branding are used to estimate organisation capital at the firm level, assuming that the elasticities exceeding 1 is the contribution of organisation capital to output.

In this paper, we follow the production-function approach. In contrast to previous studies, we aim at capturing intangible inputs as completely as possible and interpret the residual of the production function as representing a firm's (not measurable) organisation capital.

3 Empirical Approach

We employ a production function approach at the firm level. Gross output is a function of intermediary input (materials, energy, services), labour, tangible capital (fixed assets) and intangible assets. We distinguish five types of intangibles, following Corrado et al. (2005):

- technological knowledge (result of R&D)
- non-technological knowledge (result of other innovative activities such as design)
- software and databases (result of in-house programming and data generation and externally purchased software services and databases)
- firm-specific human capital (result of training activity)
- brand equity (result of marketing and advertising activity)

As these intangibles cover all major intangible categories of Corrado et al.'s (2005) framework except organisation capital, the part of firm-specific output that could not be explained by these tangible and intangible inputs (= the residual in the production function) should be related to organisational capital.

Model

Following former literature (e.g. Mairesse and Sassenou 1991), we derive our organisation capital measure from a Cobb-Douglas production function of the following form:

$$Y_{i,t} = A_{i,t} L_{i,t}^{\beta_L} K_{i,t}^{\beta_K} M_{i,t}^{\beta_M} , \qquad (1)$$

where labour $L_{i,t}$, tangible capital $K_{i,t}$ and intermediate goods $M_{i,t}$ correspond to the typical production function inputs. $Y_{i,t}$ denotes firm revenues and $A_{i,t}$ total factor productivity. We augment this standard production function by considering five intangible assets, as additional inputs of the production process, effectively assuming that $A_{i,t}$ only consists of the five intangible assets $I_{i,t}$, organisation capital $\omega_{i,t}$, a constant and an idiosyncratic error term. Taking the logarithm on both sides, the estimation equation becomes:

$$y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_K k_{i,t} + \beta_L l_{i,t} + \beta_M m_{i,t} + X_{i,t} \gamma + I_{i,t} \delta + \omega_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t}$$
 (2)

The lower case variables denote corresponding logarithmic values. We also include a group of industry dummy variables and a dummy for being located in Eastern Germany as control variables in vector $X_{i,t}$. The error term capturing unobserved shocks and measurement errors is represented by the variable $\epsilon_{i,t}$.

To estimate equation (2) we use a two stages structural production function estimator developed by Olly and Pakes (1996), Levinsohn and Petrin (2003), and Ackerberg et al. (2015) to avoid simultaneity issues between revenues, input choices and the unobserved organisation capital. Following Levinsohn and Petrin (2003) we use the intermediate input demand function

$$m_{i,t} = f_t(k_{i,t}, \omega_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, X_{i,t}, I_{i,t})$$
 (3)

as the proxy for organisation capital by inverting (3) for $\omega_{i,t}$ resulting in

$$\omega_{i,t} = f_t^{-1}(k_{i,t}, m_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, X_{i,t}, I_{i,t})$$
(4)

Substituting $\omega_{i,t}$ in the production function (2) with the proxy from equation (4) we obtain

$$y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_K k_{i,t} + \beta_L l_{i,t} + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{i,t} + \delta \mathbf{I}_{i,t} + f_t^{-1}(k_{i,t}, m_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{I}_{i,t}) + \epsilon_{i,t}$$
 (5)

We approximate $f_t^{-1}(k_{i,t}, m_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, \boldsymbol{X}_{i,t}, \boldsymbol{I}_{i,t})$ with a second order polynomial and estimate this first stage with OLS. However, because all input variables appear both in the first part of the production function and the inverse demand function, the β parameters are not separately identified from $f_t^{-1}(k_{i,t}, m_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, \boldsymbol{X}_{i,t}, \boldsymbol{I}_{i,t})$.

In the second stage of the estimation we identify these parameters. Using the predicted values from the first stage we can calculate the composite term

$$\phi_{i,t}(.) = \beta_0 + \beta_K k_{i,t} + \beta_L l_{i,t} + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{i,t} + \delta \mathbf{I}_{i,t} + f_t^{-1} \quad (k_{i,t}, m_{i,t}, l_{i,t}, \mathbf{X}_{i,t}, \mathbf{I}_{i,t})$$
(6)

This allows us to obtain our organisation capital measure $\omega_{i,t}$ for any value of the parameters β , γ and δ as

$$\omega_{i,t} = \hat{\phi}_{i,t} - (\beta_0 + \beta_K k_{i,t} + \beta_L l_{i,t} + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{i,t} + \delta \mathbf{i} \mathbf{I}_{i,t}) \tag{7}$$

Assuming organisation capital to develop following a Markov process $\omega_{i,t} = g_t(\omega_{i,t-1}) + \zeta_{i,t}$ we can also recover the innovation to organisation capital $\zeta_{i,t}$ given the values of β , γ and δ . This combined with a set of moment conditions described in Ackerberg et al. (2015) allows us to estimate the parameters β , γ and δ using GMM while relying on bootstrapping to estimate the standard errors of the parameter point estimates.

After obtaining point estimates of all parameters we can now compute our measure of organisation capital as:

$$\widehat{\omega}_{i,t} = \widehat{\phi}_{i,t} - (\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_K k_{i,t} + \widehat{\beta}_L l_{i,t} + \widehat{\gamma} x_{i,t} + \widehat{\delta} i_{i,t})$$
 (7)

Data

We use data from the German innovation survey, i.e. the German part of the EU's Community Innovation Survey (CIS) initiative. In contrast to most other national CIS, the German survey is designed as a panel survey and conducted annually (called the 'Mannheim Innovation Panel - MIP', see Peters and Rammer 2013 for more details). In addition to the standard questionnaire programme of the CIS, the MIP survey includes questions on expenditure related to intangibles.

We use annual expenditure for measuring intangible assets instead of stock variables. This choice is mainly driven by data availability. For most firms, we do not have a sufficiently long time series on investment in intangibles in order to calculate stocks. In addition, there is no

information on depreciation rates for intangibles. Other survey results (Awano et al. 2010) suggest that the economic life time of intangible investment is rather short, so that annual expenditure should be a valid proxy of the actual stock variables.

While the MIP data span the period from the first CIS survey (1992) to the most recent one (2016 at the time this paper was produced), expenditure data on all five types of intangibles are only available from 2011, restricting our observations period to the six-year period 2011 to 2016. For this period, at total of 16,204 observations from 7,854 different firms is available. The five types of expenditures on intangibles are defined as follows

- technological knowledge: current expenditure on in-house R&D and expenditure for contracted-out R&D
- non-technological knowledge: total current innovation expenditure excluding R&D
 expenditure and innovation expenditure on training and marketing (these remaining
 other innovation expenditure mainly includes design and engineering)
- software and databases: expenditure for in-house software development and databases, purchase of external software and databases
- firm-specific human capital: expenditure for training of staff
- brand equity: expenditure for advertising, market research and other marketing activities (excluding general selling expenses)

The descriptive statistics shown in Table 1 reveal that among the five intangibles, investment in technological knowledge (R&D) is by far the largest component (€14.3m average annual investment at 2005 prices), followed by investment in brand equity (€7.3m) and software and databases (€5.3m). The average annual investment in non-technological knowledge such as design is €3.4m while firms spend on average less than €1.0m per year on building-up firm specific human capital.

Table 1: Model variables

Model variable	Indicator	Mean	Std.D.	Min	Max
Output	Sales (m€)	440.43	2695.05	0.004	70729.23
Labour	No. employees (FTE)	1164.41	6473.61	1	184650
Tangible capital	Net stock of fixed assets (m€)	261.40	1993.26	0.001	52720.79
Intermediary input	Purchase of material, energy, services (excl. material/services related to R&D, software, databases, training, marketing) (m€)	295.79	1928.79	0	53411.75
Technological knowledge	R&D expenditure (m€)	14.27	152.67	0	5064.63
Non-technological knowledge	Current innovation expenditure excl. R&D (m€)	3.37	31.48	0	1106.75
Software & databases	In-house and extramural expenditure on software and databases (m€)	5.31	43.44	0	1915.91
Brand equity	In-house and extramural expenditure on advertising and other marketing (m€)	7.34	80.37	0	3151.63
Firm-specific human capital	In-house and extramural expenditure on firm-specific training (m€)	0.95	6.74	0	198.61

Notes: All monetary variables are deflated using a German wide GDP deflator with base year 2005.

4 Estimation Results

Production function

The estimation results of (2) are shown in Table 2. We find an elasticity for labour input of 0.54, for physical capital input of 0.04 and for material input of 0.40. With respect to investment in intangibles, all but other current innovation expenditure show a statistically highly significant positive impact on firm productivity. Highest elasticities are found for firm-specific training (0.034) and software and databases (0.033). The contribution of branding (0.014) and R&D (0.009) are substantially lower.

Table 2: Results of production function estimation

Dependent variable: log(sales)	coefficient t val			
log(employees)	0.5400***	-916.83		
log(fixed assets)	0.0366***	-43.72		
log(intermediary input)	0.3980***	-533.81		
log(R&D expenditure)	0.0086***	-11.35		
log(other current innovation expenditure)	0.0010	-1.58		
log(software and databases expenditure)	0.0325***	-45.20		
log(advertising/marketing expenditure)	0.0140***	-14.73		
log(training expenditure)	0.0341***	-35.51		
# observations	16,204			
# firms	7,854			

Sector dummies included. Reference period: 2011 to 2016

Organisation capital measure

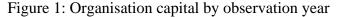
We derive our measure for organisation capital from (7). This measure is an index which shows the relative role of organisation capital for a firm's productivity, based on the residual in the production function. The mean of the index across all firms is close 1.0, ranging from 026 to 27.6 (Table 3). This index is size neutral, i.e. it indicates that the relative importance of organisation capital is independent of the organisation's size and is hence not a measure of the stock of organisation capital. The index allows to investigate the heterogeneity of the importance of organisation capital across industry, size, age and other firm characteristics.

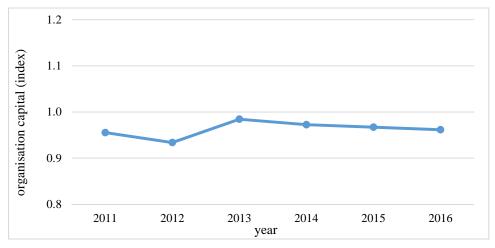
Table 3: Summary statistics of the organisation capital index

	Mean	Standard deviation.	Median	Skewness	Minimum	Maximum
orgcap	0.989	0.746	0.849	13.833	0.262	27.670

First, we see little variation in the index over time (Figure 1). For our 6-year observation period, the lowest value is found for 2012 and the highest for 2013. For the three most recent years, differences are small.

^{***} p < 0.001

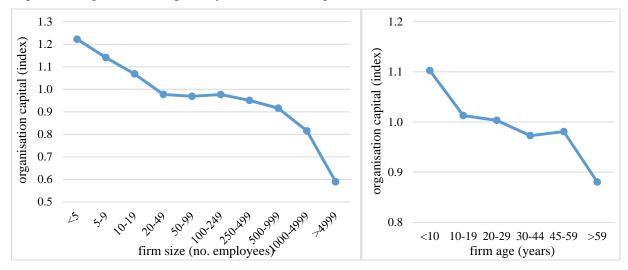




However, we do find substantial differences by firm size and firm age (Figure 2). Smaller and younger firms show relatively higher organisation capital than large and old firms. Firms up to nine years of age show the highest index. This cohort represents about 14% of our sample. There are rather small differences among firms between 10 and 59 years which represent 69% of all firms in the sample. Firms which have been founded 60 or more years ago show a significantly smaller index for organisation capital.

For firm size, we find the highest index of organisation capital for the smallest firms in our sample (less than 5 employees). The index monotonously decreases until size class 20 to 49 employees. From this size class up to medium-sized firms with 500 to 999 employees, differences in the index of organisation capital are minor. Large firms with 1,000 to 4,999 employees, and particularly very large firms with 5,000 or more employees (representing about 5% or our sample) report substantially lower index values for organisation capital.

Figure 2: Organisation capital by firm size and age



This finding is in contrast to Atkeson and Kehoe (2005) whose model assumes that organisation capital increases with the aging of a plant through the accumulation of knowledge on how to efficiently run a plant. Our results suggests that this process may be driven by other investment in intangible assets, e.g. R&D, branding or human capital. For the pure organisational part of intangible assets, young firms seem to possess more such capital in relation to other assets than large firms.

We believe that this result is meaningful. It can be linked to an important concept within the management literature, namely that of organisational trust (Mayer et al. 1995). Building up organisation capital should be cheaper for small firms than any of the other intangibles, as it is about employing the right routines and establish organisational trust among employees and towards superiors. Such trust strengthens the competiveness of a firm by fostering higher organisational commitment, achieving higher flexibility of work organisation and resolving collective action problems more easily (Leana and van Buren 1999). When an organisation grows, more and more routines have to be formalised, urging the management to build up other types of capital, e.g. brand name, codified technological knowledge, fixed assets, training of staff etc.

The index of organisation capital also varies by industries, partly - but not only - reflecting differences in age and size composition of firms in each industry. Industries with firms showing a rather high index of organisation capital include other financial services, wholesale, manufacturing of paper and paper products, and postal services. Industries that are characterised by rather high expenditure on technological knowledge and branding, e.g.

manufacturing of vehicles, machinery, electronics, electrical equipment, chemicals and pharmaceuticals show rather low index values. The lowest one is found for banking and insurances, a sector which is dominated by large firms.

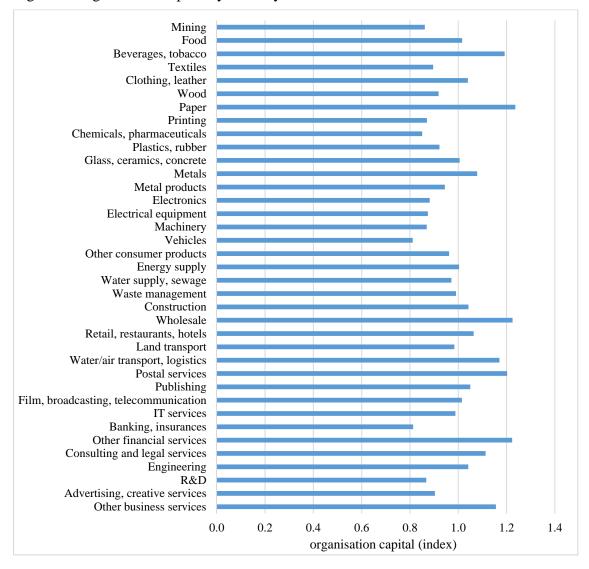


Figure 3: Organisation capital by industry

Link of organisation capital to other measures of organisational development

We test the link between our index of organisation capital and other measures of organisational development in firms through simple regression analysis. The MIP survey includes several variables related to organisational development:

• Organisational innovation: Firms are asked whether they have introduced new organisational methods in any of the following three areas: (a) business practices

- (including knowledge management), (b) workplace organisation (including decision making), (c) external relations that have not been previously used by the firm.
- Cooperation on innovation: Firms reported whether they actively collaborated with other firms or organisations on innovation activities.
- Obstacles to innovation related to organisational problems: Firms were asked whether innovation activities have been (a) abandoned, (b) delayed or (c) did not start because of internal organisational problems. This information was used to construct an ordered variable taking the values 3 (if all three events occurred) to 0 (if innovation were not hampered by internal organisational problems).

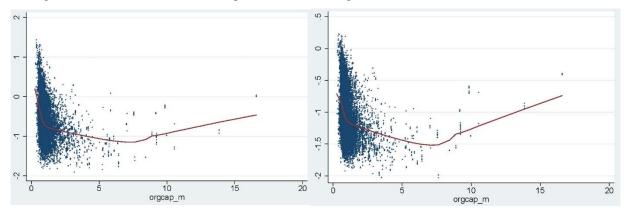
We regress our index of organisation capital on the measures of these variables. In order to investigate likely non-linear relationships, we run one model variant that includes the squared term of organisation capital. In addition to organisation capital, the models include several control variables (age, size, industry, share of graduates, continuous R&D activity). The results are shown in Table 4.

We find that organisation capital is negatively related to organisational innovation. But when including a squared term, we find that there is a lower turning point of organization capital, and that firms with very high organisation capital are more likely to introduce organisational innovation. This result is found for two types of organisational innovation, business practices (see Figure 4) and external relations, but not in workplace organisation and decision making. This result suggests that firms with low organisation capital try to overcome this limitation by introducing new organisational methods whereas firms with a medium to high organisation capital see less need for reorganisation. If firms have very high organisation capital, they seem to use this ability to accelerate organisational change. The latter applies to a very small fraction of the firms in our sample only, however, as the turning point of the organisation capital index is around 7.0, a value found for less than 1% of all firms.

Figure 4: Effect of organisational capital on the probability to introduce organisational innovation

Organisational innovation in business practices

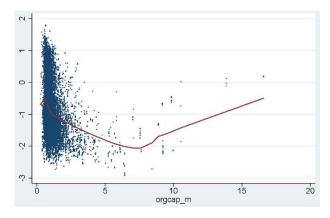
Organisational innovation in external relations



orgcap_m: firm-level mean of organisation capital

For cooperation on innovation, we also find a u-shaped relationship (see Figure 5). The turning point is at a similar range (7.5) as for organisational innovation.

Figure 5: Effect of organisational capital on the probability to engage in cooperation on innovation



orgcap_m: firm-level mean of organisation capital

For the occurrence of obstacles to innovation from organisational problems within the firm, no such non-linear relationship is found, however. Firms with higher organisation capital report less obstacles. This result holds both for the relative importance of organisational problems as a hampering factor for innovation, and the occurrence of organisational problems.

Table 4: Estimation results on regression analyses on the link between organisation capital and indicators related to organisational development

	Organisational innovation in business practices			Organisational innovation in workplace organisation and decision making			Organisational innovation in external relations				
	(1)	I	(2)	(1)		(2)		(1)		(2)	
Model type:			Probit			Probit					
Organisation capital	-0.068	** -0.1	52 **	-0.070	**	-0.063		-0.058	*	-0.154	**
	(-3.23)	(-3.	99)	(-3.22)		(-1.47)		(-2.42)		(-3.56)	
Organisation capital ²		0.0	11 **			-0.001				0.012	**
		(2.	59)			(-0.18)				(2.74)	
Age (log)	-0.067	** -0.0	67 **	-0.055	**	-0.055	**	-0.080	**	-0.081	**
	(-4.84)	(-4.	37)	(-4.00)		(-4.00)		(-5.16)		(-5.19)	
Size (log)	0.188	** 0.1	86 **	0.156	**	0.156	**	0.090	**	0.087	**
	(21.4)	(20.	96)	(17.99)		(17.87)		(9.42)		(9.04)	
Share of graduates	0.158	** 0.1	59 **	0.109		0.109		0.326	**	0.328	**
-	(2.53)	(2.	54)	(1.76)		(1.76)		(4.81)		(4.83)	
Continuous R&D activity	0.446	** 0.4	41 **	0.310	**	0.311	**	0.469	**	0.463	**
	(13.55)	(13.	39)	(9.37)		(9.37)		(12.95)		(12.78)	
No. of observations	12,680	12,6	80	12,699		12,699		12,700		12,700	<u></u>

	Cooperation on	n on innovation Innovation obstacle: organisational			Innovation obstacle: organisational problems			
			problems (relative importance)		(occurrence)			
	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)		
Model type:	Probit		OLS		Ordered probit			
Organisation capital	-0.123 **	-0.281 **	-0.005 *	-0.010 *	-0.110 **	-0.203 **		
	(-3.56)	(-4.63)	(-2.35)	(-2.39)	(-2.70)	(-2.73)		
Organisation capital ²		0.021 **		0.001		0.015		
		(3.45)		(1.43)		(1.59)		
Age (log)	-0.074 **	-0.074 **	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.007		
	(-3.90)	(-3.90)	(0.35)	(0.33)	(0.31)	(0.30)		
Size (log)	0.136 **	0.131 **	0.003 **	0.003 **	0.039 **	0.036 *		
ζ,	(12.14)	(11.69)	(3.32)	(3.11)	(2.70)	(2.49)		
Share of graduates	0.860 **	0.863 **	-0.011	-0.012	-0.179	-0.182		
C	(10.52)	(10.55)	(-1.78)	(-1.82)	(-1.65)	(-1.67)		
Continuous R&D activity	0.911 **	0.907 **	0.006	0.006	0.128 *	0.124 *		
	(24.13)	(24.00)	(1.73)	(1.64)	(2.31)	(2.23)		
No. of observations	7,503	7,503	5,020	5,020	5,075	5,075		

Parameter estimates, t-values in brackets. ** (*): p<0.01 (0.05). All models include 32 industry dummies.

5 Conclusions

This paper made an attempt to measuring organisation capital at the firm level by employing a production function approach. By capturing all measurable tangible (capital, labour) and intangible determinants of productivity (R&D, other innovative property, software & databases, firm-specific human capital, brand equity), but excluding the difficult-to-measure organisation capital, the residual should be highly correlated with the unmeasurable. In contrast to similar approaches employed by other researchers before (Atkeson and Kehoe 2005, Lev and Radhakrishnan 2005, Miyagawa and Kim 2008), we are able to exploit detailed firm-level panel data on expenditure on all the above-listed types of intangibles.

A key result of our study is that organisation capital tends to be higher in young and small firms. This finding differs from Atkeson and Kehoe (2005) who assume that organisation capital increases by age as firms learn how to efficiently run a business. We relate our finding to the fact that young and small firms should find it easier to build-up organisational trust – which is a key component of organisation capital and which should be easier to develop in smaller organisations where individuals can build strong and stable relationships without the need of formalizing routines and specified roles (see Leana and van Buren 1999). We also find that firms in industries which tend to rely less on R&D show, on average, a higher level of organisation capital. Aside from indirect size effects, the result may indicate a substitutive relation between technological know-how and organisation capital.

Our measure of organisation capital negatively correlates with a firm's perception of internal organisational problems, supporting that our measure is an indicator of a firm's organisational capabilities. When examining the link between with indicators on organisational development, we find a u-shaped relation to qualitative indicators such as the introduction of organisational innovation and entering into cooperation with other organisations. It seems that firms with low organisation capital invest more into organisational development to overcome this shortcoming while firms with high organisation capital possess a better ability to accelerate organisational change. This result challenges previous findings which pointed to a positive linear relationship between organisation capital and organisational innovation (see Sanchez-Famoso et al. 2014). Our finding would hence imply that measures on organisational development activities and organisational innovation are not adequate variables for indicating the progress a firm has achieved in building-up organisation capital.

Our study has a number of shortcomings that should be addressed by future research. First, our measure of organisation capital is a dimensionless indicator that does not indicate the size of this capital in each firm. Second, there might be unobserved drivers of productivity other than organisation capital that affect our measure. Finally, the production function estimation rests on expenditure variables for intangibles assets rather than asset stocks.

References

Ackerberg, D.A., K. Caves, G. Frazer (2015), Identification properties of recent production function estimators, *Econometrica* 83(6), 2411–2451.

Atkeson, A., P.J. Kehoe (2005), Modeling and measuring organisation capital, *Journal of Political Economy* 113(5), 1026–1053.

Awano, G., M. Franklin, J. Haskel, Z. Kastrinaki (2010a), Measuring investment in intangible assets in the UK: results from a new survey, *Economic and Labour Market Review* 4(7), 66–71.

Awano, G., M. Franklin, J. Haskel, Z. Kastrinaki (2010b), *Investing in Innovation: Findings from the UK Investment in Intangible Assets Survey*, NESTA Index Report, London.

Corrado, C., C. Hulten, D. Sichel (2005), Measuring capital and technology: an expanded framework, in: C. Corrado, J. Haltiwanger, D. Sichel (eds.), *Measuring Capital in the New Economy*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 11–46.

Dietz, G., D.N. Den Hartog (2006), Measuring trust inside organisations, *Personnel Review* 35(5), 557–588.

Evenson, R.E., L.E. Westphal (1995), Technological change and technological strategy, in J. Behrman, T.N. Srinivasan (eds.), *Handbook of Development Economics*, Amsterdam: North-Holland, 2211–2298.

Sanchez-Famoso, V., A. Maseda, T. Iturralde (2014), The role of internal social capital in organisational innovation. An empirical study of family firms, *European Management Journal* 32(6), 950–962.

Jovanovic, B. (1979), Job matching and the theory of turnover, *Journal of Political Economy* 87, 972–990.

Leana, C., H.J. van Buren III (1999), Organizational Social Capital and Employment Practices, *Academy of Management Review* 24(3), 538–555.

Lev, B., S. Radhakrishnan (2005), The valuation of organisation capital, in: C. Corrado, J. Haltiwanger, D. Sichel (eds.), *Measuring Capital in the New Economy*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 73–110.

Lev, B., S. Radhakrishnan, W. Zhang (2009), Organisation capital, *Abacus* 45(3), 275–298.

Levinsohn, J., A. Petrin (2003), Estimating production functions using inputs to control for unobservables, *Review of Economic Studies* 70(2), 317–341.

Mairesse, J., M. Sassenou (1991), *R&D Productivity: A Survey of Econometric Studies at the Firm Level*, NBER Working Papers No. 3666, Cambridge, MA.: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Mayer, R.C., J.H. Davis, F.D. Schoorman (1995), An integrative model of organisational trust, *Academy of Management Review* 20(3), 709–734.

Miyagawa, T., Y.G. Kim (2008), Measuring organisation capital in Japan: an empirical assessment using firm-level data, *Seoul Journal of Economics* 21(1), 169–189.

Montresor, S., G. Perani, A. Vezzani (2014), *How do Companies 'Perceive' their Intangibles? New Statistical Evidence from the Innobarometer 2013*, JRC Technical Reports, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Olley, G.S., A. Pakes (1996), The dynamics of productivity in the telecommunications equipment industry, *Econometrica* 64(6), 1263–1297.

Perani, G., M. Guerrazzi (2012), *The Statistical Measurement of Intangible Assets:*Methodological Implications of the Results of the ISFOL 2011 Pilot Survey, Rome: National Institute of Statistics (mimeo).

Peters, B., C. Rammer (2013), Innovation panel surveys in Germany, in: F. Gault (ed.), *Handbook of Innovation Indicators and Measurement*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 135–177.

Solow, R. (1957), Technical change and the aggregate production function, *Review of Economics and Statistics* 39(3), 312–320.

Tronconi, C., G.V. Marzetti (2011), Organisation capital and firm performance. Empirical evidence for European firms, *Economic Letters* 112(2), 141–143.



Download ZEW Discussion Papers from our ftp server:

http://ftp.zew.de/pub/zew-docs/dp/

or see:

https://www.ssrn.com/link/ZEW-Ctr-Euro-Econ-Research.html https://ideas.repec.org/s/zbw/zewdip.html



ZEW – Leibniz-Zentrum für Europäische Wirtschaftsforschung GmbH Mannheim

ZEW – Leibniz Centre for European Economic Research

L 7,1 · 68161 Mannheim · Germany Phone +49 621 1235-01 info@zew.de · zew.de

Discussion Papers are intended to make results of ZEW research promptly available to other economists in order to encourage discussion and suggestions for revisions. The authors are solely responsible for the contents which do not necessarily represent the opinion of the ZEW.