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Co-operative R&D: why and with whom?

An integrated framework of analysis

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Abstract

Firms use R&D partnerships to access knowledge and build global R&D networks. This article develops an integrated framework to examine the determinants of the choice of partners with which firms co-operate on R&D. This resource-based perspective underscores the interactions between three major questions: why co-operate, who does and with whom? It argues in particular that the choice of partners is dictated by the complementary resources which the latter command. The framework is then expanded to predict the relative efficiency of R&D co-operation with different partners, including suppliers, clients, rivals, academic institutions and foreign firms. The empirical analysis, which is based on responses to France's version of the second European community innovation survey (CIS-2), strongly supports the overall framework of analysis.

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1. Introduction

In the context of the emerging knowledge-based global economy, both supply and demand for technology have been increasing at the world level. Since the late 1980s, the role of innovation as a factor of competitiveness and the accelerating pace of technological progress have combined to make firms deepen and broaden their innovative capabilities. Firms have allocated increasing resources to R&D to speed up the pace of innovation and diversify their technological capabilities. Firms have also designed new R&D practices, including both internal organisational changes and the building up of complex networks to deal with growing outsourcing and various types of technologi-

cal partnerships. Since transactions involving the exchange of knowledge are notoriously imperfect, they tend to be embedded in various types of alliances. More frequent and diverse knowledge exchanges have thus constituted one major driving force behind the growing number of domestic and international technological alliances since the 1980s.

This article focuses on inter-firm co-operative agreements as one of the major modes firms use to access knowledge and build global R&D networks. The relative flexibility of co-operative agreements has been underscored as one of the main reasons for their remarkable development since the 1980s (Kogut, 1988; Ciborra, 1991; Teece, 1992; Gomes-Casseres, 1996; Sachwald, 1998). Strategic and organisational perspectives have further shown that the choice of co-operative R&D, rather than internal R&D, equity relationships or outsourcing, depends on the

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53 characteristics of the technologies involved, as well
 54 as on the characteristics of firms' competencies.¹
 55 This article does not focus on the choice of R&D
 56 partnerships among the diverse organisational and
 57 inter-organisational arrangements that firms use to
 58 acquire technology, but rather on the choice of part-
 59 ners. It shows that the choice of R&D partners with
 60 a specific profile depends on the type of complemen-
 61 tary R&D resources firms seek to access, which, in
 62 turn, depends on their own profile. Partnerships have
 63 developed in particular between high-tech (HT) start
 64 ups and larger incumbents, but also between suppli-
 65 ers and clients in various sectors, and more rarely
 66 between competitors. At the same time, firms tend
 67 to enter various co-operations with universities and
 68 public institutes, including as part of large research
 69 consortia. Furthermore, since national innovation
 70 systems tend to nurture specific creative activities
 71 and more generally reflect national specialisation
 72 patterns, R&D networks may have an international
 73 dimension.

74 The contribution of this article to the analysis of
 75 R&D co-operation is threefold. First, it develops an
 76 integrated framework which relates the set of ex-
 77 ternal R&D resources firms target to the choice of
 78 partners. This resource-based perspective underscores
 79 the interactions between three major questions: why
 80 co-operate, who does and with whom? Second, this
 81 framework is used to predict the relative efficiency
 82 of co-operation with different types of partners to
 83 innovate. Third, the empirical analysis is based on a
 84 French survey of firms' innovation practices, which
 85 provides a large sample of observations. Co-operation
 86 on R&D is defined as a firm's behaviour rather than
 87 measured by a count of technological partnerships as
 88 in databases on alliances.

89 The paper is organised as follows. [Section 2](#) dis-
 90 cusses the results from the literature on the interactions
 91 between the motivation of alliances and the profile of
 92 partners. This discussion is used to build the integrated
 93 framework that relates the profile of co-operating firms
 94 with the profile of their partners, including suppliers,
 95 clients, rivals, public institutions and foreign partners.
 96 [Section 3](#) describes the data, explains differences with

'literature-based alliance counting' data² and tests the
 set of hypotheses on the reasons for co-operation and
 the profile of R&D partners. [Section 4](#) then exam-
 ines the relative efficiency of R&D co-operation with
 the different types of partners. The conclusion sum-
 marises the results and discusses theoretical and pol-
 icy implications.

2. The why–who framework of R&D co-operation

A large proportion of the literature on technological
 alliances has focused on the issue of the motivation
 for co-operation. In view of the increasing complex-
 ity and multi-disciplinarity of research, firms seek to
 access complementary resources from beyond their
 boundaries. In this context, R&D partnerships have
 been analysed as organisational answers to the require-
 ments of innovation-based competition and rapid tech-
 nological change, the 'why' issue being related to the
 forms taken by co-operation. Interactions between the
 motivation for co-operation and the profile of partners
 have been less systematically explored. This section
 reviews the literature with the view to establish a set of
 hypotheses relating the motivation for co-operation to
 the profile of partners. Some of these hypotheses have
 already been discussed in the literature and the pur-
 pose here is to build an integrated framework, which
 relates the R&D resources firms seek to access—
 why co-operate?—to their own profile—who co-
 operates?—and to the profile of their partners—with
 whom?

2.1. Why co-operate on R&D?

The literature has extensively discussed the moti-
 vations for entering into co-operative agreements as
 organisational forms. The transaction cost perspective
 studies the circumstances under which co-operative
 agreements are the most efficient form of organization
 (Stukey, 1983; Hennart, 1988, 1991; Robertson and
 Gatignon, 1998). In depth studies of the attributes of
 the knowledge involved and of the characteristics of
 the innovation process itself have further contributed

¹ For different perspectives and types of empirical support, see (Kogut and Zander, 1993; Nagarajan and Mitchell, 1998; Narula, 2001).

² This term is used by Hagedoorn (2002) in his presentation of the MERIT-CATI database.

137 to the analysis of the role of internalisation in the
 138 evolution of firms' capabilities.³ Besides, the logic
 139 of transaction cost minimisation does not capture
 140 many of the strategic advantages of alliances, and
 141 strategic management perspectives are complemen-
 142 tary (Foss, 1994; Gulati, 1998; Tidd and Trehwella,
 143 1997; Sachwald, 1998; Hagedoorn et al., 2000). In the
 144 resource-based perspective, partnerships are driven
 145 by a logic of strategic resource needs and, this ap-
 146 proach is well suited to studying simultaneously the
 147 motivations of alliances and the characteristics of
 148 partners.

149 The resource-based perspective suggests that firms
 150 conducting expensive, risky or complex research
 151 projects will seek R&D co-operation. In turn, these
 152 firms tend to be concentrated in high-tech sectors.
 153 Sectoral studies broadly support the idea that R&D is
 154 a major area of co-operation in high-tech or emerging
 155 industries. Incumbents may use alliances to enter new
 156 product areas or technological fields, as they allow
 157 them to expand their knowledge sources with limited
 158 investment exposure. Incumbents can thus test the
 159 importance of the new market or technology as well
 160 as evaluate strategic solutions (Mitchell and Singh,
 161 1983). Such behaviour has been well documented
 162 in the pharmaceutical industry, where incumbents
 163 have extensively resorted to alliances in order to ex-
 164 pand their knowledge base in biotechnology (Pisano
 165 et al., 1988; Arora and Gambardella, 1990; Powell
 166 and Brantley, 1992; Sharp et al., 1994). Conversely,
 167 entry by new biotechnology firms is eased by vertical
 168 alliances with pharmaceutical, chemical or marketing
 169 firms, which possess complementary assets (Shan
 170 et al., 1994; Calabrese et al., 2000). In the emerg-
 171 ing multimedia fields, where speed to market and
 172 innovative product combinations constitute major
 173 competitive strengths, firms actively knit networks
 174 of complementary assets (Gomes-Casseres, 1996;
 175 Quélin, 1996).

176 In the MERIT-CATI database, the proportion of
 177 "R&D partnerships"⁴ in pharmaceuticals and informa-

tion technologies has increased from 40 to 80% of the
 total between 1980 and 1998.⁵ The positive influence
 of R&D intensity on the propensity to co-operate has
 been recently confirmed for large cross-sectoral sam-
 ples of German and Spanish firms (Fritsch and Lukas,
 2001; Bayona et al., 2001). The first hypothesis be-
 low is thus included to start building our integrated
 framework, in which the *quantity* and *quality* of R&D
 resources influence both the propensity to co-operate
 and the propensity to co-operate with specific partners.

Hypothesis 1. The propensity to co-operate on R&D
 is higher for firms from sectors with relatively high
 R&D intensity.

The strategic need for high R&D efforts may also
 explain intra-sectoral co-operative patterns. During the
 1980s, electronic products at the earliest stages of the
 life cycle exhibited a higher number of R&D alliances
 (Cairnaca et al., 1992). Similarly, among a sample of
 new American semiconductor firms, the most inno-
 vative ones and those faced with the fastest pace of
 technological change exhibit a higher propensity to
 co-operate on product development (Eisenhardt and
 Schoonhoven, 1996).

Hypothesis 2. The propensity to co-operate on R&D
 is higher for firms that draw the most on scientific
 resources to innovate, as opposed to firms further away
 from the technological frontier.

The literature on innovation and technology trans-
 fer has established that access is not sufficient to learn
 from external knowledge sources, adequate absorp-
 tion capacity being a necessary complement (Cohen
 and Levinthal, 1989). Absorption capabilities depend
 on specific investment, including in particular the ex-
 istence of an R&D department and enough qualified
 personnel. Internal R&D capabilities have thus a com-
 plex influence on the propensity to co-operate. On
 the one hand, co-operation may become necessary be-
 cause internal resources are insufficient to meet the
 firms' strategic objectives. On the other hand, the ex-
 istence of adequate absorption capabilities increase

³ Kogut and Zander (1993) studies the role of complexity and tacitness; Nagarajan and Mitchell (1998) and Narula (2001) studied the impact of the extent to which new knowledge is related to core R&D resources or to more peripheral assets.

⁴ Which includes joint ventures and other inter-firm agreements that "contain some arrangements for transferring technology or joint research" (Hagedoorn, 2002, p. 491).

⁵ The share of R&D partnerships in aerospace and defense has rather decreased since the 1970s, which may be related to the shrinking of defense activities in the 1990s, while IT activities have expanded.

220 the returns firms can expect from access to external
221 resources. This second effect has been found to be
222 stronger in biotechnology (Arora and Gambardella,
223 1990) and in a survey of UK firms (Lowe and Taylor,
224 1998).

225 **Hypothesis 3.** The propensity to co-operate on R&D
226 is higher for firms with stronger absorptive capabi-
228 lities.

229 2.2. And with whom?

230 This section relates the above set of hypotheses on
231 the profile of firms that choose to co-operate on R&D
232 to complementary hypotheses on the profile of their
233 partners.

234 2.2.1. Partners with the right complementary 235 resources

236 The resource-based perspective considers that the
237 necessity for complementary resources is a key driver
238 of inter-organisational co-operation.⁶ It suggests that
239 the adequate partners should possess the resources
240 which the firm is seeking. The latter may be classified
241 into two broad categories, depending on the needs
242 of the partners. If partners aim at reducing costs and
243 risks through economies of scale and rationalised in-
244 novation processes,⁷ they will pool *similar* resources
245 to the alliance. If partners aim instead at managing
246 technological convergence such as in the multimedia
247 nexus or inter-dependence among innovation pro-
248 cesses, they will combine *complementary* resources.
249 This distinction is crucial for choosing the right
250 partners.

251 Suppliers and clients play an important part in the
252 innovation process as they can contribute crucial in-
253 formation on technologies, users' needs and markets.
254 Hence, innovation requires vertical interactions and
255 communication flows. The latter may be more im-
256 portant in some sectors and may be organised in dif-
257 ferent ways, but the general need is quite pervasive.

⁶ This perspective is widely adopted, explicitly or implicitly, by the management literature (Roberts and Berry, 1985; Kogut and Chang, 1991; Gomes-Casseres, 1996; Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1996; Doz and Hamel, 1998; Mowery et al., 1998).

⁷ This rationale for R&D co-operation has been explored from different perspectives, including industrial organization models (Katz, 1986; Jacquemin et al., 1985).

258 Vertical R&D co-operation is thus hypothesised to
259 be an integral part of the innovation process, espe-
260 cially so now that firms tend to focus on a smaller
261 set of businesses Bresnahan (1999) emphasises this
262 feature in the case of the computer industry by forg-
263 ing the notion of 'co-invention' involving buyers and
264 sellers.

265 Rivals may nevertheless possess complementary
266 R&D resources. They may also be attractive partners
267 to team up with in order to reduce costs and risks
268 for large projects. They are however potentially dan-
269 gerous because they sell on similar markets and may
270 access the firm's own R&D resources through collab-
271 oration. The industrial organization literature has de-
272 veloped models to analyse both the incentives and the
273 risks of and R&D co-operation. They draw attention
274 to the risks involved in co-operation, related to in-
275 voluntary 'outgoing spillovers' to partners (Cassiman
276 and Veugelers, 1998). Such considerations suggest
277 that co-operation between competitors is particularly
278 risky and should be limited to two types of cases:
279 first, when a particularly strong common interest has
280 been identified and, second, when the co-operation
281 concerns far-from-market research leading to generic
282 results.

283 The tension between the resource considerations,
284 which constitute an incentive to co-operate, and the
285 risks involved, which may inhibit co-operation, is
286 stronger in the case of alliances with rivals since risks
287 are lower with suppliers and clients. In high-tech
288 sectors, firms may nevertheless co-operate with ri-
289 vals as they feel strong incentives to pool R&D
290 resources and/or integrate networks in order to estab-
291 lish standards. The literature has amply documented
292 such cases (Mariti and Smiley, 1983; Garrette and
293 Dussauge, 1995), which may give the impression that
294 co-operation with rivals is frequent.

295 **Hypothesis 4a.** Vertical R&D co-operation is more
296 frequent than horizontal co-operation with rival firms.

298 **Hypothesis 4b.** Horizontal co-operation with rival
299 firms is more frequent in high-tech sectors.
300

301 Co-operation with public partners does not involve
302 commercial risk. Public research institutions do not
303 seek commercial applications and tend to focus on the
304 most generic or basic end of the R&D complex. Con-

305 sortia involving a large number of firms, including ri-
 306 vals, tend to focus on this type of research and have of-
 307 ten been supported by public funds (Sachwald, 1990;
 308 Sakakibara, 1997, 2001a,b; Branscomb and Keller,
 309 1999). More generally, when co-operative research is
 310 supported by public funding, it is designed in order to
 311 maximize disclosure and spillovers.⁸

312 **Hypothesis 5.** Co-operation with public research in-
 313 stitutions is most attractive to firms that conduct R&D
 314 at the technological frontier.

316 2.2.2. *Why choose foreign partners?*

317 The dynamic global competitive environment and
 318 efforts by firms to expand and reorganize their inno-
 319 vative capabilities have led to reconsidering a num-
 320 ber of results from the economic literature on multi-
 321 nationals and on national innovation systems. Evolu-
 322 tionary and resource-based perspectives emphasize the
 323 stickiness of innovative capabilities. The latter evolve
 324 along specific trajectories, which depend on both ge-
 325 ography and history as firms' capabilities are em-
 326 bedded in national systems of innovation. Yet, in the
 327 context of globalization, as firms strive to access ex-
 328 ternal resources through webs of technology trans-
 329 fer and learning, they act upon national trajectories.
 330 Likewise, as internationalization provides access to
 331 foreign systems, innovative activities become some-
 332 what less dependent on the innovation system of home
 333 countries.

334 International co-operative ventures can provide
 335 firms with access to country-specific advantages em-
 336 bedded in their partners and R&D co-operation can
 337 be viewed as a vehicle for tapping into the compara-
 338 tive advantages of foreign countries. The nationality
 339 of R&D partners should thus depend on the relative
 340 technological strength of their country in the relevant
 341 fields. From this perspective, there is a broad distinc-
 342 tion between European firms and American firms as
 343 the US tends to be closer to the technological fron-
 344 tier in a number of high-tech sectors. Studies based
 345 on diverse data sources indeed show that European
 346 firms tend to choose American partners in sectors
 347 where the US has developed the strongest technologi-
 348 cal advantages, such as biotechnology, electronics or

medical equipment (Hobday, 1994; Sharp et al., 1994; 349
 Veugelers, 1995; Mouline, 1999; Sachwald, 2000). 350

Hypothesis 6a. Co-operation with American partners 351
 is more frequent in sectors where the US has a com- 352
 parative advantage, especially in high-tech. 353

Hypothesis 6b. Firms conducting research at the 355
 technological frontier co-operate more with American 356
 partners. 357
 358

National innovation systems and technological spe- 359
 cialisation are closer between European countries than 360
 between European countries and the US, co-operation 361
 R&D. As a result, intra-European R&D co-operation 362
 will typically not aim at pooling *complementary* re- 363
 sources. It may however be used to pool *similar* re- 364
 sources in order to reduce costs. 365

Hypothesis 6c. R&D co-operation of French firms 366
 with European partners aims at sharing the costs of 367
 innovation. 368

370 **3. Testing the determinants of choice**
 371 **of partners**

This section describes the data and presents the 372
 empirical test of the why–who framework developed 373
 above. 374

The empirical work is based on the French CIS-2 375
 survey conducted in 1997 by the SESSI (Ministry of 376
 Industry) and covering manufacturing firms located 377
 in France. Questions related to innovation practices 378
 over the period 1994–1996. Albeit non-compulsory, 379
 the survey features an outstanding response rate of 380
 85%. The sample of 4215 firms gives a reliable image 381
 of the behaviour of the manufacturing firms with more 382
 than 10 employees.⁹ The survey includes a question 383
 on whether firms have co-operated in order to inno- 384
 vate, meaning active participation in joint R&D and 385
 projects (contracting out is thus excluded). Firms that 386
 co-operate in R&D are innovative, i.e. they have stated 387
 that they innovated over the 1994–1996 period (prod- 388

⁸ Which corresponds to the suggestions of theoretical models on the role of disclosure within alliances (Katz, 1986).

⁹ The sample weighted with the expansion coefficient represents 20,997 firms; firms with more than 500 employees are all included.

uct, process, patent). The innovative sample includes
2378 firms (9832 when weighted).

3.1. Scope of R&D co-operation in France

According to Table 1, a third of the firms choose to co-operate in R&D. This is substantial but also means that only a minority of firms enter into R&D co-operation as part of their innovative process. The proportion is substantially higher for firms from high-tech sectors (53%)¹⁰ and for the largest firms (67%). Firms from inter-related groups of firms also tend to have a relatively high propensity to co-operate (49%), but their major partners are other firms from the group. This means that firms consider that co-operation within groups involving subsidiaries does indeed constitute co-operation. From the point of view of inter-firm co-operation, however, intra-group co-operation has to be considered as a specific case. Competitive risks are a priori much lower, which may for example be an incentive to co-operate for relatively small firms from a group. The specific contribution of intra-group R&D co-operation may also be different in nature.

The propensity to co-operate with competitors is particularly low, which confirms that firms tend to avoid R&D co-operation with rivals (Hypothesis 4a).¹¹ Conversely, Table 1 confirms the more important role played by clients and suppliers in the innovative process. Co-operation with academic organisations, which is substantial, is markedly more intense for the largest firms and for patenting firms.

Table 2 indicates that firms co-operate first with French partners. The domestic scope of the majority of technological partnerships has been underscored mainly in the case of the US (EU, 1997; Hagedoorn, 2002), but may actually be a quite general phenomenon. The reason for this different observation may be due to the type of data used in different studies. Databases on technological partnerships

¹⁰ Kleinknecht and Reijnen (1992) reported a different result but used a broad classification to distinguish sectors and did not really isolate high-tech industries (their Table 3 includes such aggregates as chemicals and plastics and does not isolate electronics for example).

¹¹ For similar observations see (EU, 1997) and sectoral studies. According to data not restricted to R&D alliances, co-operation between rivals is relatively more important (Veugelers, 1995).

largely rely on public sources to identify alliances and thus tend to be more exhaustive on operations from large firms, and probably too on firms from the largest countries. National surveys, such as the one used here provide a better coverage of smaller firms, which tend to have a smaller geographical reach. As indicated in Table 2, large firms and firms in high-tech sectors are more likely to choose foreign partners.

The table also indicates that among foreign partners, French firms tend to first choose EU partners. As a result, intra-European alliances are substantially more frequent than transatlantic alliances—more than twice as much for all firms. The share of intra-European technological partnerships is on the contrary lower than the share of transatlantic ones in the MERIT-CATI database.¹² The source of this difference may also be the more systematic coverage of smaller firms in the CIS survey. Large firms and high-tech firms exhibit a relatively higher propensity to team with American partners.

Fig. 1 further describes the data set. It shows in particular, that R&D co-operation is relatively intense in mid-high-tech (MHT) sectors, such as chemicals and automobiles. It means that R&D co-operation in France is not strongly concentrated in high-tech sectors, which actually reflects the structure of the French industrial activities in France.

3.2. Test design

The different tests below are built on a similar design in order to test the integrated framework developed above. Dependent variables are dummy variables, which are equal to 1 when a firm co-operates on R&D with certain types of partners. The same set of independent variables is used to successively test the different hypotheses—with the exception of one variable in the test of the geographical origin of partners. This design results in a set of logit specifications, which allows a clear interpretation of the influence of the different independent variables.¹³ The regression coefficients estimate the impact of the independent

¹² In the 1980s and 1990s, but not in the 1960s and 1970s according to Hagedoorn (2002).

¹³ A multi-nomial specification has been run, but interpretation was difficult and this design is more satisfactory to test successively the whole set of hypotheses and reflect on the framework.

Table 1
Propensity to co-operate on R&D among innovating firms by type of partner (%)

Partners	Firms' characteristics					
	All firms ^a	Groups	>500	In high-tech sector ^b	Patent in 1994–1996	New product in 1994–1996
All types of partners	33.6	49.0	66.8	52.7	47.4	40.2
Within groups ^c	16.9	33.6	50.1	31.6	24.8	21.8
Clients	15.0	20.9	27.9	23.5	21.8	20.9
Suppliers of components	11.6	17.3	33.5	22.2	18.9	16.8
Suppliers of equipment	8.8	13.2	28.9	16.6	14.6	11.9
Competitors	4.3	7.3	15.4	12.8	7.1	5.5
Universities, institutions	13.3	19.8	37.6	22.1	25.8	16.2
Number of firms ^a	9832	4766	717	608	3044	4377

^a Innovative firms of the survey with more than 10 employees; weighted numbers (unweighted total is 2378). The propensity to co-operate is the ratio of the number of firms that co-operate over the total number of firms.

^b OECD classification.

^c Inter-related groups of firms including subsidiaries (50% threshold).

468 variables on the probability that the firm will conduct
469 co-operative R&D, either in general or with specific
470 partners.

471 3.2.1. *Dependent variables*

472 The dependent variable in the first test is a dummy
473 variable which is equal to 1 when the firm co-operates
474 to innovate, whatever its partners. It thus provides
475 a general perspective on the determinants of R&D
476 co-operation and a sort of baseline for the other
477 tests, which address the hypotheses on the choice
478 of partners. They are conducted on the sample of
479 firms which co-operate and each singles out one
480 type of co-operation. To test for the determinants of
481 co-operation with rivals for example, the dependent
482 variable is a dummy variable which is equal to 1 if
483 the firm co-operates with rival partners, and 0 other-
484 wise. The dependent variable is designed in the same

way for other types of partners: clients or customers,
public institutions.

In the case of foreign partners, the sample is reduced
to firms co-operating with American and/or European
firms in order to specifically identify the determinants
of the choice of an American or of a European partner.
In the test of the determinants of R&D co-operation
with US partners for example, the dependent vari-
able is a dummy which is equal to 1 when firms
co-operate with American partners and 0 otherwise.
The sample is further restricted to French firms, as for-
eign subsidiaries tend to co-operate with their parent
company.

3.2.2. *Independent variables*

Four sets of independent variables are included as
determinants of the propensity to co-operate in R&D;
they relate to sectoral characteristics, firms' character-

Table 2
Geographical distribution of partners, in percentage of the firms that co-operate on R&D^a

Nationality of partner	Firms' characteristics				
	All firms ^b	>500	In high-tech sector ^c	Patent in 1994–1996	New product in 1994–1996
French	83.3	88.4	87.0	85.6	83.0
European	44.3	69.4	57.4	51.8	50.4
American	19.9	45.3	36.4	29.3	25.3
Japanese	6.5	19.1	12.1	10.7	8.7
Others	9.2	14.5	16.5	10.5	11.4

^a As indicated in Table 1, these represent 33% of the total of innovative firms.

^b Innovative firms of the survey with more than 10 employees; weighted numbers (unweighted total is 2378).

^c OECD classification.

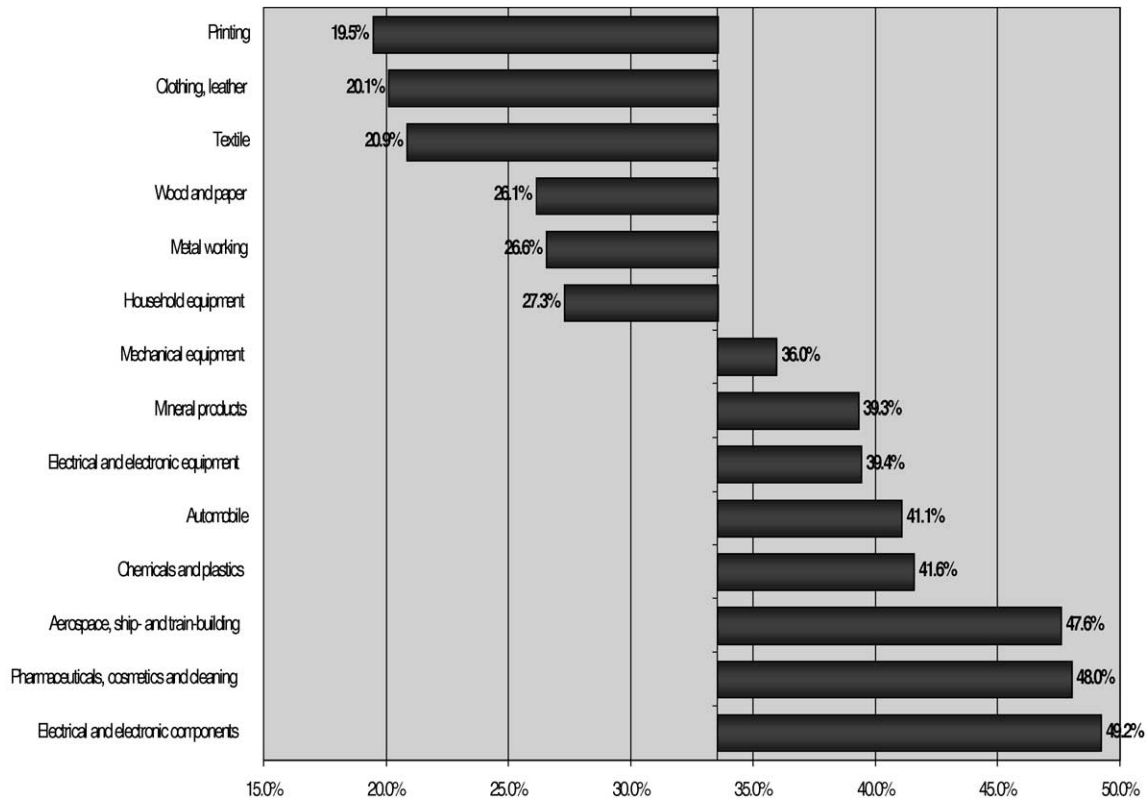


Fig. 1. Propensity to co-operate on R&D among innovating firms, by sector. Note: as in Table 1, the propensity to co-operate is the ratio of the number of co-operating firms to the total number of firms. The average propensity in the total sample is 33.6% (Table 1).

501 istics, obstacles to innovation and public funding. The
 502 focus of the discussion below is on R&D variables,
 503 which are central to our hypotheses.

504
 505 3.2.2.1. Sectoral variables. In order to test
 506 Hypothesis 1, sectoral R&D intensity variables are
 507 introduced. Dummy variables are included to indi-
 508 cate whether the sector to which the firm belongs
 509 is high-tech, mid-high-tech, mid-low-tech (MLT) or
 510 low-tech (LT), using OECD classification. Fig. 1
 511 above suggests to expect a positive influence of both
 512 HT and MHT on the propensity to co-operate.

513 The discussion above argues that the propensity to
 514 co-operate with partners of a given country should dep-
 515 end on their competitive advantage. Hypothesis 6a
 516 is based on the idea that firms' competitive advan-
 517 tage are related to national comparative advantage. A
 518 measure of the US comparative advantage (USCA) is

introduced in the equation of the propensity to co-
 operate with American firms, and a positive impact is
 expected.

3.2.2.2. Firms' characteristics. Most statistical stud-
 ies show that the propensity to co-operate in R&D
 is positively related to the size of the firm (Bayona
 et al., 2001; Fritsch and Lukas, 2001).¹⁴ Veugelers
 (1997) goes deeper into this issue by exploring the
 interactions between internally financed R&D ex-
 penditure and co-operation. She finds that big R&D

¹⁴ Kleinknecht and Reijnen (1992) found no influence of firms' size on the propensity of Dutch firms to co-operate in R&D (except for co-operation with research institutes). This surprising result may be due to the fact that the estimate of the probability to co-operate included other independent variables positively related to size, in particular the propensity to export and the existence of an R&D laboratory in the firm.

530 spenders have a significantly higher probability of
 531 co-operating, but that smaller innovative firms are
 532 more likely to co-operate than larger ones. In other
 533 words, the most relevant variable would not be the
 534 size of the firm but the research orientation of firms.¹⁵
 535 Furthermore, the existence of a permanent R&D struc-
 536 ture within firms positively influences their propen-
 537 sity to co-operate (Kleinknecht and Reijnen, 1992;
 538 Veugelers, 1997; Colombo and Garone, 1998; Bayona
 539 et al., 2001).

540 Having no data on the amount of R&D spend-
 541 ing, we include both the size of firms (log of the
 542 number of employees) and an indicator of their ab-
 543 sorption capacity (dummy variable for internal R&D)
 544 as independent variables. They should both have a
 545 positive influence on the propensity to co-operate
 546 (Hypotheses 1 and 3). “Science”, is introduced to
 547 test Hypothesis 2; its value varies between 0 and 9
 548 as the firm draws more heavily on external sources
 549 close to scientific research, including patents, uni-
 550 versities and research institutes. Science should pos-
 551 itively influence the probability to co-operate on
 552 R&D.

553 The market share of each firm is also included in
 554 log form as it influences incentives to innovate and
 555 may thus increase the propensity to co-operate.¹⁶ Fi-
 556 nally, since descriptive statistics in Table 1 under-
 557 score the extent of intra-group R&D co-operation,
 558 we incorporate group as a control variable. It is a
 559 dummy that is equal to 1 when the firm belongs to a
 560 group. Group should influence positively the propen-
 561 sity to co-operate. Besides other reasons, both the size
 562 of the firm and its integration into a group may have
 563 a positive influence on co-operation as they indicate
 564 access to a substantial pool of resources which are
 565 complementary to R&D.¹⁷

¹⁵ Interestingly in this perspective, Arora and Gambardella (1990) found no statistically significant influence of the size of biotechnology firms on their propensity to co-operate with firms or universities. On the contrary, the number of patents had a positive influence on the number of partnerships.

¹⁶ The role of R&D co-operation in oligopolistic sectors has been emphasised (Delapierre and Mytelka, 1998; Sakakibara, 2001a,b).

¹⁷ Lowe and Taylor (1998) suggest that the positive influence of size on the inward licensing could be due to the fact that it is a proxy for complementary assets that are necessary to benefit from licensing.

3.2.2.3. *Obstacles to innovation.* R&D co-operation 567
 is motivated by not only the need to draw on comple- 568
 mentary external resources but also by the risks and 569
 costs of innovation. It may help in overcoming a num- 570
 ber of specific obstacles to innovation. Co-operative 571
 behaviour may thus be positively related to a number 572
 of obstacles to innovation. The following ones are in- 573
 cluded with dummy variables: cost of innovation, high 574
 risks, and lack of market information. Variables are 575
 constructed with firms’ answers in the CIS survey on 576
 questions about obstacles to innovation. 577

3.2.2.4. *Public funding.* Public funding tends to 579
 have a positive influence on firms’ R&D spend- 580
 ing. Veugelers (1997) considers that public funding 581
 thus has an indirect influence on the propensity to 582
 co-operate in R&D. The European innovation poli- 583
 cy as well as national schemes sponsor co-operative 584
 R&D projects, which may constitute a further in- 585
 centive to co-operate. The survey questionnaire does 586
 not allow distinguishing this specific source of R&D 587
 funding. As a consequence, equations include a pub- 588
 lic funding dummy, which is equal to 1 when the firm 589
 benefits from R&D subsidies. 590

3.3. Results 591

The equations have a good explanatory power and 592
 strongly support the set of hypotheses which build our 593
 integrated framework of interpretation of co-operative 594
 R&D. 595

3.3.1. Propensity to co-operate on R&D 596

Table 3 presents the results of the first test on the de- 597
 terminants of R&D co-operation, which may be con- 598
 sidered as a reference points for the other tests on 599
 co-operation with specific partners. 600

The hypotheses founded on the resource-based the- 601
 ory of the firm and the need to access complemen- 602
 tary R&D resources are strongly supported. Firms 603
 from high-tech, but also from mid-high-tech sectors 604
 tend to co-operate more than firms in less R&D in- 605
 tensive sectors (Hypothesis 1). Moreover, firms which 606
 conduct R&D close to the technological frontier also 607
 exhibit a higher propensity to co-operate on R&D 608
 (Hypothesis 2). The positive interactions between in- 609
 ternal R&D capabilities and co-operation with external 610
 partners are also confirmed (Hypothesis 3): The exis- 611

Table 3
Determinants of R&D co-operation

Variable name	Coefficient	$P > \chi^2$
Constant	-6.8836	0.0001
Size	0.8103	0.0001
Group	0.5461	0.0001
Public Funding	0.4059	0.0001
Permanent R&D	0.2921	0.0061
High-tech	0.2739	0.0390
Mid-high-tech	0.1551	0.0761
Science	0.1526	0.0001
Market share	0.1069	0.0174
Lack of technological information	0.1315	0.1428
High cost	0.0340	0.7071
High risk	-0.0449	0.6146
Lack of market information	-0.0389	0.6424
McFadden R^2	27.73	-
log Likelihood	-2424.88	-
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	-

Sample: 2378 firms (weighted: 9832).

612 tence of an internal laboratory in a firm substantially
613 increases its probability to co-operate on R&D. Over-
614 all, the set of variables indicating a strong research ori-
615 entation of firms substantially increase their propensity
616 to co-operate. Interestingly, variables related to the var-
617 ious obstacles to innovate, including costs and risks,
618 do not influence the propensity to co-operate.

619 The test also confirms results from previous empir-
620 ical work discussed above, such as the positive influ-
621 ence of size and public funding. A high market share
622 also stimulates co-operation on top of the size effect.
623 So does belonging to a group, as suggested by Table 1.

624 3.3.2. Choice of partners

625 In order to examine the more specific determinants
626 of co-operation with each type of partner, the sam-
627 ple is now restricted to firms that co-operate. Table 4
628 clearly shows that co-operation with different types of
629 partners is driven by quite different factors.

630 Co-operation with rivals, which is relatively
631 rare (Hypothesis 4a), is substantially more likely
632 in high-tech sectors and, to a lesser extent, in
633 mid-high-tech sectors (Hypothesis 4b). Conversely,
634 vertical co-operation is relatively more frequent in
635 low-tech sectors.¹⁸ Vertical co-operation involves

¹⁸ The coefficient of mid-high-tech is negative and that of high-tech is non significant, which means that the sectors where vertical co-operation is relatively more frequent are low- and mid-low-tech.

636 firms which consider that the lack of market infor-
637 mation constitutes an obstacle to innovation and they
638 might resort to co-operation with clients in particu-
639 lar to alleviate these problems. Firms that co-operate
640 with rivals do not face similar obstacles. Rather,
641 they cite R&D costs as an obstacle to innovation.
642 This tends to confirm that rivals team up in order
643 to exploit economies of scale and reduce individual
644 costs of innovation in high-tech sectors, as argued
645 above.

646 According to Table 4, permanent R&D does not
647 significantly influence the relative propensity to
648 co-operate with private partners. On the contrary, it
649 strongly influences the propensity to co-operate with
650 public institutions. Firms which co-operate with pub-
651 lic institutions are not concentrated in R&D intensive
652 sectors. They tend, however, to draw on close to
653 science resources to innovate (Hypothesis 5). Con-
654 sequently, they exhibit different features from firms
655 that co-operate with rivals, which are concentrated
656 in high-tech sectors but do not focus specifically on
657 frontier R&D in their respective sectors. This may
658 be related to another contrasting feature between
659 the determinants of the two types of partnerships:
660 firms co-operating with public institutions do not
661 encounter cost obstacles to innovation (the cost vari-
662 able has a significantly negative impact), while it is
663 the case with firms which partner with rivals. On
664 the contrary, firms that co-operate with public insti-
665 tutions consider that insufficient market information
666 constitutes an obstacle to innovation. This may be
667 because their R&D activities aim at more radical in-
668 novation for which markets are still uncertain. These
669 firms may not devote much resources to marketing
670 either.

671 Overall, these empirical tests strongly support our
672 framework. In particular, they show that more *re-*
673 *search oriented* firms are more likely to co-operate
674 on R&D. Our results further suggest that conducting
675 research close to science and exhibiting high R&D
676 intensity are two different ways to be research ori-
677 ented: each requires specific types of resources, which
678 explains co-operation patterns. Using the above dis-
679 tinction (Section 2.2.1), we may say that co-operation
680 with rivals aims at pooling *similar* resources to face
681 high R&D costs, while co-operation with universities
682 targets *complementary* resources to work at the tech-
683 nological frontier.

Table 4
Determinants of R&D co-operation according to type of partner

Variable name	Coefficient ($P > \chi^2$)		
	Vertical co-operation	Co-operation with public institutions	Co-operation with rivals
Constant	-5.529 (0.000)	-6.907 (0.000)	-7.635 (0.000)
Size	0.898 (0.000)	0.748 (0.000)	0.727 (0.000)
Group	-0.358 (0.007)	-0.296 (0.100)	0.299 (0.344)
Public funding	0.158 (0.140)	0.585 (0.000)	0.583 (0.001)
Permanent R&D	-0.034 (0.810)	0.528 (0.034)	-0.037 (0.903)
High-tech	-0.135 (0.401)	-0.394 (0.039)	0.585 (0.012)
Mid-high-tech	-0.216 (0.050)	0.090 (0.410)	0.131 (0.498)
Science	0.008 (0.734)	0.342 (0.000)	0.005 (0.901)
Market share	0.068 (0.220)	0.094 (0.161)	0.060 (0.548)
Lack of technological information	0.032 (0.767)	0.049 (0.704)	0.108 (0.561)
High cost	0.048 (0.656)	-0.221 (0.091)	0.496 (0.008)
High risk	0.150 (0.164)	-0.075 (0.563)	0.065 (0.729)
Lack of market information	0.191 (0.059)	0.228 (0.066)	-0.042 (0.812)
McFadden R^2 (%)	20.80	29.95	21.39
log Likelihood	-1408.76	-975.64	-549.43
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	0.000	0.000

Sample: 1060 firms (weighted: 3300).

3.3.3. International R&D co-operation

Table 2 clearly showed that French firms co-operate first and foremost with French partners. It also suggested that the more distant the partner, the less likely the co-operation. All firms exhibit these patterns, but the largest ones and firms from high-tech sectors co-operate relatively more with distant foreign partners from the US and Japan. Table 5 further shows that firms which co-operate with geographically distant partners also co-operate with French and European partners.

This observation may be related to the above discussion to say that domestic and European partnerships are easier to strike and that partnerships with American or Japanese firms are entered into only when the stakes are high enough. There would thus be a hierarchy of R&D co-operation. The following re-

sults about Hypotheses 6a–6c tend to confirm this prediction.

Table 6 gives the results of the equations on the determinants of R&D co-operation with US partners on the one hand and EU partners on the other hand. As explained above, the sample is reduced to French firms that co-operate with EU and/or US partners.¹⁹

Results strongly support Hypothesis 6a as the technological and comparative advantage variables have a sizeable positive impact on the propensity to co-operate with American partners. Firms co-operating with American allies are concentrated in high- and mid-high-tech sectors. Moreover, they belong to sectors in which the US exhibits a comparative advantage. Hypothesis 6b is also strongly supported. Actually, “science” has not been included as an independent variable because nearly all firms that co-operate with the US use external sources of innovation close to science. Accordingly, firms that co-operate with the US may be considered as working closer to the technological frontier than other firms, including those that co-operate with European partners. On the contrary, firms co-operating with

Table 5
Geographical hierarchy in R&D partnerships

Firms that co-operate with	Firms that also co-operate with			No. of firms
	France	UE	US	
UE	88%	–	–	330
US	89%	69%	–	171
Japan	90%	71%	65%	71

¹⁹ Tests have not been conducted for partnerships with Japanese firms because very few cases are left once subsidiaries of Japanese groups in France are eliminated.

Table 6
Determinants of R&D co-operation with US vs. EU partners

Variable name	Coefficient ($P > \chi^2$)	
	Co-operation with US partners	Co-operation with EU partners
Constant	-9.268 (0.000)	-5.938 (0.000)
Size	0.759 (0.000)	0.666 (0.000)
Group	1.496 (0.050)	0.565 (0.040)
Public funding	0.741 (0.012)	0.496 (0.008)
High-tech	1.225 (0.003)	0.050 (0.867)
Mid-high-tech	1.064 (0.002)	0.400 (0.063)
US comparative advantage	0.303 (0.057)	0.012 (0.929)
Lack of technological information	0.761 (0.013)	-0.124 (0.544)
High cost	-0.441 (0.179)	0.435 (0.032)
High risk	-0.354 (0.276)	0.081 (0.692)
Lack of market information	0.464 (0.136)	0.105 (0.596)
Market share	0.282 (0.084)	0.319 (0.001)
McFadden R^2 (%)	36.71	27.88
log Likelihood	-174.458	-403.648
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	0.000

Sample: 422 firms (weighted: 1565).

724 US or EU partners all tend to have an internal R&D
725 capability.

726 The French firms, which choose to co-operate with
727 American partners, tend to consider that lack of tech-
728 nological information constitutes an obstacle to inno-
729 vation. This observation, along with the other techno-
730 logical variables, strongly suggests that they are seek-
731 ing access to crucial complementary R&D resources
732 through their transatlantic partnerships. On the con-
733 trary, they do not consider that they face cost obstacles
734 to innovate. This is in stark contrast to the French
735 firms that concentrate on intra-European co-operation
736 since the latter mention cost rather than technologi-
737 cal obstacles. This supports Hypothesis 6c, according
738 to which French firms resort to intra-European part-
739 nerships in order to share costs rather than access
740 specific R&D resources. This conclusion is rein-
741 forced by the fact that intra-European co-operations
742 are not concentrated in high-tech sectors but rather
743 in mid-high-tech industries, in which a number of
744 European countries hold traditional comparative
745 advantages.

746 Since large firms co-operate relatively more with
747 American partners, a similar test has been run on the
748 sample of French firms with more than 500 employ-
749 ees that co-operate with European and/or US partners
750 (not reproduced here). The equation not as significant

as the one in Table 6,²⁰ but the results on the determi-
nants of co-operation with US partners are similar. In
particular, the lack of technological information has
a significant positive impact, as well as US compar-
ative advantage. One difference for the large firms is
that belonging to mid-high-tech sectors increases the
probability to co-operate with US partners, while the
high-tech variable is positive but not significant.

In conclusion, French firms co-operate relatively lit-
tle with American firms, but do so to access high qual-
ity complementary R&D resources close to the tech-
nological frontier in high- and mid-high-tech sectors.
These resources should thus be particularly efficient
to enhance the innovative capabilities of French firms.

4. Efficiency of R&D co-operation with different partners

As a complement to the analysis of the determi-
nants of co-operation with different partners, we now
explore the relative efficiency of co-operation with
different partners. The dependent variables are two

²⁰ Group and permanent R&D variables have not been included because nearly all large firms belong to groups and have permanent R&D.

Table 7
Determinants of patenting and product innovation

Variable name	Coefficient ($P > \chi^2$)	
	Patenting	Share of innovative products in turnover
Constant	-7.538 (0.000)	-6.837 (0.000)
Size	0.914 (0.000)	0.987 (0.000)
Group	-0.062 (0.572)	-0.080 (0.433)
Public funding	0.449 (0.000)	0.010 (0.917)
Permanent R&D	1.279 (0.000)	0.497 (0.000)
Science	0.484 (0.000)	-0.075 (0.592)
High-tech	-0.190 (0.189)	0.274 (0.038)
Mid-high-tech	0.016 (0.858)	0.061 (0.482)
Co-operation	0.213 (0.012)	0.191 (0.018)
Market share	0.201 (0.000)	0.231 (0.000)
McFadden R^2 (%)	30.13	30.12
log Likelihood	-2275.98	-2528.68
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	0.000

Sample: 2378 firms (weighted: 9832).

771 different indicators of innovation, patenting and the
 772 share of innovative products in turnover.²¹ These two
 773 types of results are quite different and require differ-
 774 ent resources, which may have an impact on the role
 775 assigned to co-operation in the innovation process.
 776 Patenting requires substantial R&D efforts close to
 777 the technological frontier, while introducing success-
 778 ful new products rather requires efficient interactions
 779 between R&D and other functions, such as production
 780 and marketing.

781 This analysis builds on the general framework and
 782 independent variables are the same as in the equations
 783 above, except for the indicators of obstacles to inno-
 784 vation. New independent variables are introduced to
 785 take co-operation into consideration. They are dummy
 786 variables that take the value of 1 if the firm co-operates
 787 in order to innovate, or if it co-operates with a specific
 788 type of partner. The distinctions between partners are
 789 the same as above: clients or suppliers, rivals, public
 790 institutions, American and European firms.

791 *4.1. R&D co-operation is efficient*

792 Following the same research design as for the deter-
 793 minants of co-operation, we first estimate the impact
 794 of R&D co-operation on innovation, whatever the type

²¹ Both are taken from the CIS survey.

of partner. The estimates in Table 7 will thus serve as
 a sort of baseline, as did those in Table 3 in the case
 of the determinants of co-operation.

Equations have very good overall explanatory power and variables have the expected impact on innovation. Size, market share, permanent R&D and public funding all tend to increase the probability to patent. Although public funding does not influence the share of innovative products in turnover, belonging to a high-tech sector does. Sectoral variables do not influence the propensity to patent, which may be due to the fact that the dependent variable is the probability to patent, rather than the number of patents. Interestingly though, the proximity to science has a positive impact on patenting, while it does not influence the share of innovative products in turnover.

In both equations, R&D co-operation exhibits a significant positive impact on the propensity to innovate. R&D co-operation thus appears to be efficient in terms of innovation. In order to follow on the distinction between partners, the issue is now to examine whether co-operation with different types of partners influences the propensity to innovate, or the types of innovative results.

4.2. Different partners contribute different resources to the partnership

The exploration of the choice of partners above shows that it corresponds to the specific profile of firms and to their specific needs. According to our framework of analysis, co-operation with different partners should thus yield different results in terms of innovation. In particular, vertical co-operation may be rather efficient in terms of new products, while it may not be helpful for conducting research at the technological frontier and for generating patents. Co-operation with public institutions should on the contrary give access to close to science research capabilities and should thus increase the ability of a firm to come up with patents.

Hypothesis 7a. Vertical co-operation positively influences the propensity of firms to introduce new products.

Hypothesis 7b. Co-operation with public institutions increases the capability of firms to con-

duct research at the technological frontier and to patent.

Our results above suggest that co-operation with rivals is rare and mostly motivated by the need to share costs. It should thus stimulate costly research. The latter may generate both new products and patents and it seems difficult to distinguish them a priori, so no hypothesis is made on the specific impact of co-operation with rivals.

The results in Table 8 are similar to those of Table 7, and we focus our comments on the distinctive influence of co-operation with different partners. The equations clearly support both Hypotheses 7a and 7b. Patenting is positively influenced by co-operation with public institutions, but not by other types of co-operation. Conversely, the share of innovative products in turnover is only increased by vertical co-operation.

Co-operation with rivals shows no significant influence on innovation. The correlation table²² nevertheless indicates a slight correlation (12%) between co-operation with rivals and both indicators of innovation. This correlation is smaller than between innovation and other types of co-operation; besides, there is a slight correlation between co-operation with rivals and with public institutions. Co-operation with rivals may thus play an important role, but it is difficult to disentangle its specific contribution, especially as it is relatively rare. Results from this paper as well as what we know from case studies suggest that co-operation with rivals focuses on pre-competitive projects, which often also involve public funding and co-operation with public research institutions. This is the case in particular with the EU-sponsored research consortia, to which French firms actively participate (Mustar and Larédo, 2002).

4.3. Transatlantic co-operation is more efficient

Our results on the determinants of co-operation suggests that French firms resort to transatlantic R&D alliances in order to access complementary resources in high-tech sectors where American firms tend to have strong competitive advantages. They further indicate that French firms seek transatlantic rather than European partners whenever they conduct research

at the technological frontier. As a consequence, our framework predicts that transatlantic co-operation will particularly influence the ability of firms to patent, which should not be the case with intra-European co-operation.

Hypothesis 8. Transatlantic R&D co-operation positively influences the propensity of firms to patent.

In order to test this hypothesis, new independent variables are introduced. Three types of alliances are distinguished with dummy variables: co-operation with French partners only, co-operation with European partners, and co-operation with American partners—which, tends to come on top of European co-operation (Table 5).

Results clearly support Hypothesis 8 as only transatlantic R&D co-operation has a significantly positive impact on the propensity to patent. Both transatlantic and intra-European co-operation have a positive influence on the share of innovating products in turnover. On the contrary, co-operation with French firms only does not significantly influence innovation, whatever the indicator.

Combining the results of the different tests on the determinants of co-operation and on its influence on innovation indicates that there does exist a hierarchy of co-operation, as suggested in the discussion of Table 5 above. Co-operation with American firms, which is relatively rare, is motivated by the need to access specific R&D resources, and indeed serves knowledge transfer, including close to the technological frontier. In contradistinction, co-operation with European firms is motivated by cost economising and only promotes product innovation, albeit not as much as transatlantic co-operation.

This conclusion is quite complementary to that of Giarratana and Torrisi (2002), who have conducted an analysis of the influence of co-operative agreements on patenting by 15 European electronic firms over the period 1984–1997. They do not measure any significant impact of EU-sponsored co-operative agreements, or of private only intra-EU agreements on the share of these firms in world patents.²³ On the con-

²² Not reproduced here.

²³ Patents filed by the 15 firms are classified into 14 categories and the performance measure is the yearly increase in the world share of each firm's patents in each category.

Table 8
Distinctive influence of different types of co-operation on innovation

Variable name	Coefficient ($P > \chi^2$)	
	Patenting	Share of innovative products in turnover
Constant	−7.455 (0.000)	−6.785 (0.000)
Size	0.903 (0.000)	0.978 (0.000)
Group	−0.038 (0.723)	−0.066 (0.511)
Public funding	0.429 (0.000)	0.023 (0.813)
Permanent R&D	1.261 (0.000)	0.484 (0.000)
High-tech	−0.1658 (0.248)	0.263 (0.046)
Mid-high-tech	−0.001 (0.076)	0.067 (0.446)
Co-operation with public institutions	0.389 (0.000)	0.042 (0.689)
Vertical co-operation	0.094 (0.311)	0.200 (0.024)
Co-operation with rivals	0.119 (0.433)	0.163 (0.282)
Market share	0.198 (0.000)	0.232 (0.000)
McFadden R^2 (%)	30.59	30.17
log Likelihood	−2275.945	−2526.997
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	0.000

Sample: 1060 firms (weighted: 3300).

927 trary, R&D co-operation with extra-EU entities, which
 928 means mostly US partners, positively influences the
 929 patenting performance of the European electronics
 930 companies. Their interpretation is that this stark differ-
 931 ence is due to the complementarity of the resources of
 932 extra-EU partners with those of European firms. This
 933 interpretation is very much in line with the argument
 934 developed in Section 2 above and with our results,
 935 which underscore the cost-economising rationale for

intra-EU co-operations. They further note that EU 936
 co-operation tends to focus on incremental innovation 937
 along firms' trajectories, especially when they are 938
 sponsored by EU research funds. Such co-operation 939
 makes it possible to share costs and introduce new 940
 products rather than explore new trajectories, which 941
 also dovetails with our own results related to the 942
 distinction between the different types of innovation 943
 performance. Table 9 shows that co-operation with 944

Table 9
The specific influence of transatlantic R&D co-operation

Variable name	Coefficient ($P > \chi^2$)	
	Patenting	Share of innovative products in turnover
Constant	−7.017 (0.000)	−6.130 (0.000)
Size	0.857 (0.000)	0.835 (0.000)
Group	−0.082 (0.503)	−0.005 (0.966)
Public funding	0.597 (0.000)	0.006 (0.963)
Permanent R&D	1.130 (0.000)	0.527 (0.000)
High-tech	−0.167 (0.356)	0.227 (0.163)
Mid-high-tech	0.042 (0.719)	0.062 (0.585)
Co-operation with French partners only	0.065 (0.618)	−0.163 (0.210)
Co-operation with European partners	0.230 (0.132)	0.280 (0.059)
Co-operation with American partners	0.362 (0.041)	0.366 (0.035)
Market share	0.250 (0.000)	0.246 (0.000)
McFadden R^2 (%)	29.23	25.82
log Likelihood	−1577.64	−1770.99
Probability (LR stat)	0.000	0.000

Sample: 1645 (weighted: 7721).

945 American partners is relatively more efficient in terms
946 of innovation, especially for more radical innovation.

947 5. Conclusion

948 The empirical results above strongly support the
949 *why–who framework*, which relates the objectives
950 firms assign to R&D co-operation, the profile of part-
951 ners they choose to team up with and the benefits in
952 terms of innovation. In other words, the very reasons
953 that explain why firms co-operate, simultaneously
954 determine with whom they co-operate. In conclu-
955 sion, we compare these results with those of previous
956 studies before discussing their theoretical and policy
957 implications.

958 5.1. *Technology seeking and choice of partners*

959 The empirical test of our framework has consisted
960 in a thorough examination of the interactions between
961 the reasons for co-operation and the profile of R&D
962 partners. It has focused on the technological profile of
963 firms, with a detailed treatment of the R&D indicators
964 at both the sectoral and firm levels.

965 Overall, technology seeking emerges as a major mo-
966 tivation for R&D co-operation. Bayona et al. (2001),
967 who have studied the case of Spanish firms based on a
968 similar large survey, have also underscored the impor-
969 tance of technology access, rather than market access
970 as a determinant of R&D co-operation. This result may
971 seem quite logical since such co-operation focuses on
972 research capabilities. It is very much in line with the
973 literature on technological co-operation and in partic-
974 ular with a number of case studies and sectoral analy-
975 ses. It has nevertheless been somewhat blurred in more
976 general studies of co-operation. Indeed, another major
977 rationale for co-operation is market access, especially
978 in foreign countries. In such cases, co-operation typi-
979 cally does not focus on R&D, even if it may involve
980 technology transfer or product development, such as
981 in numerous international joint ventures.

982 Our framework nevertheless suggests that tech-
983 nology seeking is not the main objective of all
984 R&D co-operations. In vertical R&D co-operation
985 with suppliers or clients, the objective is to pool
986 complementary resources and access more market
987 information, presumably to better target innovation

efforts. This confirms the perception that vertical 988
R&D co-operation has become an important aspect 989
of the incremental, day-to-day innovative process. 990
Consequently, vertical co-operation is not more fre- 991
quent in high-tech sectors and does not involve firms 992
working at the technological frontier. Conversely, 993
co-operation with public institutions involves firms 994
that draw heavily on close to science external R&D 995
sources. Moreover, such R&D co-operation has a posi- 996
tive impact on patenting, while vertical co-operation 997
only impacts the introduction of new products to the 998
market. Co-operation with rivals, which is quite rare, 999
seems to be mostly used to share R&D costs in high- 1000
tech sectors—and not to work at the technological 1001
frontier. 1002

Similarly, technology seeking only partly ex- 1003
plains the geographical pattern of R&D co-operation. 1004
French firms in high- and mid-high-tech sectors that 1005
need complementary technological resources tend to 1006
team up with American partners, especially in sec- 1007
tors where the US enjoys a comparative advantage. 1008
The French firms that choose European partners ex- 1009
hibit quite a different profile. They tend to belong 1010
to mid-high-tech and not to sectors where the US 1011
has a comparative advantage. Moreover, they con- 1012
sider that costs, rather than technological information, 1013
constitute an obstacle to innovation. These results 1014
combined suggest that firms which co-operate with 1015
EU partners tend to belong to mid-high-tech sectors, 1016
where a number of European countries traditionally 1017
enjoy a comparative advantage, such as chemicals or 1018
automobiles,²⁴ and where they can pool similar R&D 1019
resources. Intra-EU co-operation is also active in some 1020
high-tech sectors where European firms are quite 1021
competitive, such as telecommunications, but even in 1022
these sectors, transatlantic co-operation has been very 1023
dynamic.²⁵ 1024

5.2. *A resource-based perspective* 1025

Results support the *why–who framework*, which 1026
is founded on a resource-based perspective. Firms 1027

²⁴ As also suggested by other studies on alliances, including technological partnerships, such as Sachwald (1994) or Veugelers (1995).

²⁵ These sectoral details have been tested but results are not reproduced. They match earlier studies such as Duysters and Hagedoorn (1996) or EU (1997).

engage in R&D co-operation in order to complement their internal resources and accordingly team up with partners who control the relevant complementary resources—which are not necessarily frontier technologies. This resource-based perspective has been extended to interpret the geographical pattern of R&D co-operation. Firms tend to draw on their home country-specific resources in order to build up their competitive advantages. As a result, firms may view R&D co-operation with foreign partners as a way to access indigenous resources from the latter's home country. We indeed found that the comparative advantage in high-tech sectors embedded in American firms is an important determinant of transatlantic R&D co-operation. When viewed from this perspective, cross-border R&D co-operative agreements constitute one important aspect of the internationalization of R&D, which is increasingly driven by technology seeking.

The resource-based perspective also accounts for the matching condition in partnerships. Firms that engage the most in R&D co-operation, including with rivals or distant partners, are *high-profile innovators*. These firms invest heavily in R&D and resort to various types of transactions in order to access and use the relevant R&D resources. In particular, they have permanent internal R&D facilities and use close to science sources of information in their innovative process. Our results on this point corroborate previous studies, which found positive interactions between internal R&D, technology acquisition and co-operation (Arora and Gambardella, 1990; Veugelers, 1997; Bayona et al., 2001; Fritsch and Lukas, 2001). These results also match other studies, which emphasize the need for firms to possess technological resources in order to acquire high-quality complementary resources. Studies on patenting strategies have emphasised in particular the need to build up a strong patent portfolio in order to be able to engage in extensive cross-licensing in some high-tech sectors such as semiconductors (Grindley and Teece, 1997; Hall and Ham, 1999). More generally, “firms must have resources to get resources” (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1996). High-profile innovators are thus logically the most active R&D partners: they possess a wide array of high-quality R&D resources, which both makes them attractive partners and enables them to draw and absorb the most from co-operation.

5.3. Policy implications

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Our results on the determinants and results of international co-operation suggest that these firms' characteristics are more important than public incentives which aim at promoting a specific pattern of co-operation. This has clearly surfaced in the above discussion of the choice of American partners by French firms. According to this discussion and our results, transatlantic co-operation is more efficient in terms of innovation than intra-European co-operation. This should be considered as part of the assessment EU programs, which have promoted co-operative research among European firms in sectors where catching up with American or Japanese competitors was considered as an important objective. In the 1980s and early 1990s, it has been the case in particular in information technologies, and more particularly in microelectronics. The above results suggest that these co-operations may have mainly served at sharing fixed R&D costs and avoiding duplication by pooling resources. From this perspective, they would be similar to the Japanese R&D consortia of the 1970s, when government policy emphasised large-scale projects (Sakakibara, 2001a,b). When firms rather need to access specific complementary resources to innovate in new technological areas, our results show that they tend to team with extra-European partners.

Uncited references

1103

Arora and Gambardella (1994), Arora et al. (2001), Grandstrand et al. (1997), Lundvall (1992), Miotti and Sachwald (2001), Narula and Hagedoorn (1999), Narula (1999), Shan and Hamilton (1991) and Teece (1986).

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1109

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