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Abstract

The origin of ideas is an important topic to be addressed by eminent disciplinary scholars, and then debated, and then debated, and then debated yet again. Even addressing the narrower topic of the origin of entrepreneurial or innovative ideas is a bold if not presumptuous undertaking. In this paper, which forms the basis of my keynote address, I set the stage with a brief summary statement about how two historical scholars viewed the source of ideas and then I move to a brief discussion about what academic researchers in the field of entrepreneurship and innovation know about sources that influence innovative behavior. In the final section, I present some inaugural findings from my own research in this area, or more accurately, the research on which I have just begun to embark. I conclude with a question: Why do scholars of entrepreneurship, innovation, and enterprise dynamics need to know about the sources of ideas that lead to new technology and innovation, and I offer a suggestive answer.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, innovation, ideation, technology

JEL Codes: L 26, O31, O32,
Ideation, Entrepreneurship, and Innovation

I think it inevitably follows, that as new species in the course of time are formed through natural selection, others will become rarer and rarer, and finally extinct. The forms which stand in closest competition with those undergoing modification and improvement will naturally suffer most.

— Charles Darwin, *The Origin of Species*

The origin of ideas is an important topic to be addressed by eminent disciplinary scholars, and then debated, and then debated, and then debated yet again. Even addressing the narrower topic of the origin of entrepreneurial or innovative ideas is a bold if not presumptuous undertaking. For this endeavor, I set the stage with a brief summary statement about how two historical scholars viewed the source of ideas, and then I move to a brief discussion about what academic researchers in the field of entrepreneurship and innovation know about sources that influence innovative behavior. In the final segment of this academic overview I present some inaugural findings from my own research in this area, or more accurately, the research on which I have just begun to embark. I conclude at the point at which I perhaps should have begun. I ask: Why do scholars of entrepreneurship, innovation, and enterprise dynamics, like those assembled here, need to know about the sources of ideas that lead to new technology and innovation.

Let me begin with some observations by the English philosopher and so-called Father of Classical Liberalism, John Locke (1623 – 1704). He wrote in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* in 1690, one’s experiences—good experiences as well as bad experiences—form the genesis for one’s ideas.

All ideas come from sensation or reflection. Let us then suppose the mind to be, as we say, white paper, void of all characters, without any ideas: How comes it to be furnished? Whence comes it by that vast store which the busy and boundless fancy of man has painted on it with an almost endless variety? Whence has it all the materials of reason and knowledge? To this I answer, in one word, from EXPERIENCE. In that all our knowledge is founded; and from that it ultimately derives itself. Our observation employed either, about external sensible objects, or about the internal operations of our
minds perceived and reflected on by ourselves, is that which supplies our understandings with all the materials of thinking. These two are the fountains of knowledge, from whence all the ideas we have, or can naturally have, do spring. (Locke, 1979, p. 59)

Given my audacity to distill Locke’s insight into the signal phrase that *experiences form the genesis of one’s ideas*, and assuming that my distillation is just, I am not sure that many at this conference would disagree that experiences do influence one’s mindset and thus possibly the focus of one’s ideas.¹

David Hume (1711 – 1776), the Scottish philosopher and economist, refined Locke’s ideas about the experiential genesis of ideas. In 1748 in *An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding*, Hume referred to experiences in terms of impressions, feelings, and sensations.

So we can divide the mind’s perceptions into two classes, on the basis of their different degrees of force and liveliness. The less forcible and lively are commonly called ‘thoughts’ or ‘ideas’. The others have no name in our language or in most others, presumably because we don’t need a general label for them except when we are doing philosophy. Let us, then, take the liberty of calling them ‘impressions’, using that word in a slightly unusual sense. By the term ‘impression’, then, I mean all our more lively perceptions when we hear or see or feel or love or hate or desire or will. These are to be distinguished from ideas, which are the fainter perceptions of which we are conscious when we reflect on our impressions. … Put in philosophical terminology: all our ideas or more feeble perceptions are copies of our impressions or more lively ones. Here are two arguments that I hope will suffice to prove this. When we analyse our thoughts or ideas—however complex or elevated they are—we always find them to be made up of simple ideas that were copied from earlier feelings or sensations. Even ideas that at first glance seem to be the furthest removed from that origin are found on closer examination to be derived from it. (Hume, 1993, pp. 7-8)

¹ The Scottish minister and philosopher Alexander Gerard (1728 – 1795) similarly wrote in 1756 in his *Essay on Genius* that: “Genius is often led to its inventions by a train of ideas suggested to it by a similar train [i.e., experience] which memory retains, and it is only the remembrance of the latter that enables judgment to determine the justness of the former” (p. 106).
Moving from these classical philosophers to, in my opinion, two of the bolder thinkers in our field, let me capsulize a few of the relevant points of Nobel Laureate T.W. Schultz and of Fritz Machlup.

Schultz (1975) bridged the connection between ideas and entrepreneurship in terms of the connection between knowledge and education.

Our knowledge of a person’s abilities consists of inferences drawn from his performance. An ability is thus perceived as the competence and efficiency with which particular acts are performed. … There are various classes of abilities; they include the ability: (1) to learn, (2) to do useful work, (3) to play, (4) to create something, and (5) specifically for the purpose at hand, to deal with economic disequilibria. Since what is done can be observed, it is convenient to assume that the observed performance is related to a specific ability. Although these various classes undoubtedly overlap and interact, it is useful to proceed with qualifications as if each class has a special set of attributes. (Schultz, 1975, p. 828)

There is enough evidence to give validity to the hypothesis that the ability to deal successfully with economic disequilibria is enhanced by education and that this ability is one of the major benefits of education accruing to people privately in a modernizing economy. (Schultz, 1975, p. 843)

The connection between Schultz and my thoughts in this paper are that “to create something” reflects an idea and “to deal with economic disequilibria” reflects an entrepreneurial response to an opportunity, perhaps even an opportunity created by the idea. And, as Schultz makes clear, “the ability to deal … with disequilibria is enhanced by education.”

But, Schultz was well aware that these connections are neither linear nor smooth; addressing them is merely “the first step on what appears to be a long new road” (1975, p. 843). This new road is sure to contain many potholes and even some dead ends.

However, Machlup (1980), among others, filled in some of the potholes and turned the dead ends into detours and purposeful redirections. He argued that formal education is only one source of
knowledge; knowledge is also gained experientially and at different rates by different individuals. Individuals can accrue knowledge from their day-to-day experiences which “will normally induce reflection, interpretations, discoveries, and generalizations …” (Machlup, 1980, p. 179). Moreover, the cost of acquiring knowledge is related to differential abilities:

Some alert and quick-minded persons, by keeping their eyes and ears open for new facts and theories, discoveries and opportunities, perceive what normal people of lesser alertness and perceptiveness, would fail to notice. Hence new knowledge is available at little or no cost to those who are on the lookout, full of curiosity, and bright enough not to miss their chances. (Machlup, 1980, p. 179)

Moving from the so-called antecedents of entrepreneurship—experiences that influence one’s ability to perceptive an opportunity—to one of the consequences of entrepreneurship—one’s ability to act on that perception and thus to be innovative—scholars have taken a pragmatic perspective.

For example, Mansfield and Wagner (1975) looked at factors associated with successful industrial R&D projects. They suggested that an understanding of the genesis of the R&D idea might be relevant for understanding the success of the R&D project. Namely, they wrote, one might expect the probability of technical completion of an R&D project, the probability of commercialization of the resulting technology, and the economic success of the innovation in the market to be influenced by “the extent to which the firm’s R&D portfolio is based on ideas coming from the R&D department, as distinct from the marketing department and other parts of the firm” (Mansfield and Wagner, 1975, p. 184).

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2 More recently, Fernald and Jones (2014, p. 4) unintentionally built on this idea: “New ideas come from an idea production function that depends on the number of people looking for new ideas as well as on the existing stock of ideas.”

3 I am using the term technology to refer to the application of new knowledge, learned through science or even R&D, to some practical problem; and, I am using the term innovation to refer to a technology put into use or commercialized.
Nearly two decades later, Cohen, Nelson, and Walsh (2002) studied the contribution of university and government laboratories (sources of public research) on industrial (i.e., manufacturing) innovation. Framing their study were the findings from the 1994 Carnegie Mellon Survey on Industrial R&D. Focusing on information sources (i.e., ideas), they found that the relatively more important information sources to learn about public research findings that were important to the conduct of industrial R&D were: publications and reports (41.2% of those in industrial R&D said this source was moderately or very important), informal interactions (35.6% so reported), and meetings and conferences (35.1% so reported).

I want to now briefly describe a new project that I have undertaken, namely the origin of ideas that lead firms to the formation of a research collaboration with other firms. The goal of such an entrepreneurial endeavor—called a research joint venture (RJV)—is the development of a new or improved technology or even an innovation.

My research interest in RJVs was first spurred by the legislative discussions that eventually led to the passage of the National Cooperative Research Act (NCRA) of 1984 (Public Law 98-462). Like others, I was interested in the passage of the act in terms of how it might affect both the level of private-sector R&D expenditures as well as the effectiveness of those investments. Noteworthy is that the passage of the NCRA was one of several technology and innovation policies promulgated by the U.S. Congress in response to the productivity slowdown that began in the early- and then late-1970s. Soon thereafter, the U.S. National Science Foundation (NSF) graciously funded me to study RJVs in detail, or at least to study the specific RJVs that had been

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4 The act defined a “joint research and development venture” as: “The term “joint research and development venture” means any group of activities, including attempting to make, making, or performing a contract, by two or more persons for the purpose of—(A) theoretical analysis, experimentation, or systematic study of phenomena or observable facts, (B) the development or testing of basic engineering techniques, (C) the extension of investigative findings or theory of a scientific or technical nature into practical application for experimental and demonstration purposes, including the experimental production and testing of models, prototypes, equipment, materials, and processes, (D) the collection, exchange, and analysis of research information, or (E) any combination of the purposes specified in subparagraphs (A), (B), (C), and (D), and may include the establishment and operation of facilities for the conducting of research, the conducting of such venture on a protected and proprietary basis, and the prosecuting of applications for patents and the granting of licenses for the results of such venture …”

5 See Bozeman and Link (2014) and Leyden and Link (2015) for a detailed discussion of these policies.
formed to date. Much of that initial work was later published as *Cooperative Research in U.S. Manufacturing: Assessing Policy Initiatives and Corporate Strategies* (Link and Bauer, 1989).

Beginning in 1993 and continuing through 2007, NSF supported my development and maintenance of what became known as the COoperative REsearch (CORE) database.6

As part of the NCRA, an RJV benefits by registering their joint venture intentions with the U.S. Department of Justice (DoJ); the DoJ then published those filings in the *Federal Register*.7 The filings in the *Federal Register* became the population of U.S. RJVs for inclusion in the CORE database; that is the unit of observation in the CORE database is the RJV itself. As well, the CORE database became what might be viewed as the national database for tracking collaborative firm-with-firm research activities.8 Figure 1 shows the number of RJVs formed since the passage of the NCRA and its subsequent amendments by year of publication in the *Federal Register*.9

Insert Figure 1 about here

While the focus of this paper is not the number of RJVs in the United States or the up-then-down trend in their formation, one cannot help but wonder about the trend shown in Figure 1. Perhaps the noted expansion that lasted until the late-1990s was influenced by the cyclical upturn in the business cycle in the United States that began in 1991; perhaps waning RJV activity that began

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6 See Hagedoorn et al. (2000) for a discussion of other databases on RJVs supported by NSF.

7 The act stated: “In any action under the antitrust laws … the conduct of any person in making or performing a contract to carry out a joint research and development venture [i.e, an RJV] shall not be deemed illegal per se; such conduct shall be judged on the basis of its reasonableness, taking into account all relevant factors affecting competition, including, but not limited to, effects on competition in properly defined, relevant research and development markets.” And, should a rule of reason test fail, damages would be actual and not treble.

8 The National Science Board (2002, Chapter 4) drew explicitly on the CORE database in its discussion of U.S. research alliances.

9 The 1984 act was amended by the National Cooperative Research and Production Act (NCRPA) of 1993 (Public Law 103-42) and by the Standards Development Organization Advancement Act (SDOAA) of 2004 (Public Law 108-237). *Federal Register* filings under SDOAA are not included in Figure 1.
in the mid-2000s reflects an overall industrial trend toward open innovation. These trends are indeed a topic for future discussion.

Over time—especially during and shortly after the completion of a given RJV project—I have been able to interact with a number of individuals in the firms that formed the RJVs published in the Federal Register. This identification/contact/discussion process began in the late-1980s with the help of the leadership of the Program Office and the Advanced Technology Program (ATP) within the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST); these efforts were undertaken outside of NSF’s support. My motivation for nurturing these contacts was to obtain data about the formation of each RJV and to track its progress over time in an effort to understand better its life cycle and related dimensions of its success and/or failure.

Of the 1,331 Federal Register filings through 2012, I have collected longitudinal project information on 117 RJVs. This decade-long data collection process was not designed to be random. Rather, I made an effort to identify the founder for all RJVs, but contact information was not always available and even once an individual was identified in the founding firm, his/her willingness to participate in the data collection process often diminished over time. Still, and simply by chance, the resulting sample of 117 RJVs, which I call the National Research Joint Venture Database (NRJVD), is balanced across years and by RJV membership size.

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10 NIST is administratively located in the U.S. Department of Commerce.

11 I am grateful to my long-time friend and frequent mentor, Edwin Mansfield, for discussions about how to identify key individuals in an RJV and the type of information that might reasonably be collected over time. See, Link and Scherer (2005). Clearly, the NRJVD (discussed below) was constituted in a Mansfield-like manner.

12 As an example of the difficulties one might encounter while trying to identify contact individuals in a RJV on the basis of only Federal Register information, see Link and Vonortas (2000).

13 I am using the word National because the only systematic information on RJVs in the United States comes from Federal Register filings. OECD showed through omission in OECD Science, Technology and Industry Scoreboard 2013 (p. 125-126) that the United States is the only major OECD country for which there are no official data on firms collaborating on innovation—a proxy for RJV-like activity.
Relevant to the theme of this paper are the data in Table 1. The research focus of an RJV is toward the research end of the R&D spectrum (Leyden and Link, 2015). As a result, it should not be surprising to see that just over 50% of the 117 RJVs that are represented in the NRJVD were formed to pursue an idea that came from the in-house R&D of the founding firm (and less than 10% came from non-research-based sources such as competitors and customers). Second among the sources for the idea to be pursued in the RJV are ideas based on research information reported/discussed at scientific conferences. These finding may seem contradictory because the activities and findings from in-house R&D are confidential, yet findings presented at scientific conferences are immediately in the public domain; yet it should be emphasized that both are based more on tacit knowledge than on codified knowledge (e.g., scientific publications).

More to the point of this conference, in particular, and to technology-based entrepreneurship and innovation, in general, is the question: Why is in-house R&D the primary source for the idea for the research project being pursued by the RJV? Before I offer an answer to this question please keep in mind the stylized directional correlations in Table 2. The probability that in-house R&D is the most important source for the idea for the R&D project of the RJV is positively correlated with number of members in the RJV, if the RJV has a non-U.S. firm as a member, and if a licensable output resulted from the research conducted collaboratively.

Why is in-house R&D the primary source for the idea for the research project being pursued by the RJV? Cohen and Levinthal (1989, p. 569) have argued theoretically and demonstrated analytically that a firm’s ability “to identify, assimilate, and exploit knowledge from the environment” depends on its own R&D effort. Thus, perhaps the answer to this question is that

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14 OECD also showed through omission in OECD Science, Technology and Industry Scoreboard 2013 (p. 124) that the United States is the only major OECD country for which there are no official data on firms’ sources of knowledge for innovation.

15 See also Cohen and Levinthal (1990).
a firm is more likely to form an RJV if it is in a position to capture or absorb the knowledge generated from the research interactions of the RJV members. And, a founding firm might be in such a position if it has a comparative advantage in the research being done, that is if the primary source of information about the RJV project is based on the firm’s in-house R&D.

Here is the take-away point from my discussion so far. Simply because the genesis of the idea for the research project undertaken by the RJV—or for that matter, any R&D project—is generated internally within the firm, for that idea to reach internal fruition it still must be noticed and acted on, otherwise that knowledge might spillover from the firm and result elsewhere as a new venture creation (Acs et al., 2009). To make reference to Kirzner (1985, pp. 63-64), viewing entrepreneurship as a dynamic process:

entrepreneurial alertness must include the entrepreneur’s perception of the way in which creative and imaginative action may vitally shape the kind of transactions that will be entered into in future market periods.

And, as Schultz and Machlup (and Locke and Hume as well) might well contend, such perception of the idea that should be pursued is based on the experiences of an individual or the firm.

Any one of those attending this conference might reasonably ask themself: Why do I, as a scholar of entrepreneurship, innovation, and enterprise dynamics, need to know about the sources of ideas that lead to a new technology or innovation? Well, perhaps you don’t unless you are interested in identifying covariates with successful R&D-based activities.

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16 I thank my colleague Dennis Leyden for pointing out that my argument does not contradict that of Schumpeter’s that entrepreneurship is about an act of will. In that sense, no matter where the knowledge comes from, that knowledge lies dormant until the entrepreneur gives that knowledge focus or purpose. Generating that focus is the creative act, and that act comes from both past experiences (Locke) and internal processing—both conscious, rational thought as well as non-conscious, affective or emotional thought (Hume).

17 To liberally interpret selected literature in organizational theory, and such perceptiveness might be part of the culture of the firm (Stinchcombe, 1965; Baron et al., 1999).
As my review of selected research and my initial peak at the NRJVD data suggest, the source of the idea, or more broadly the source of the initial knowledge that motivated a particular R&D-based undertaking is directionally correlated with a measure of success of that endeavor. While Table 2 is an inaugural look at the NRJVD—and certainly a more in-depth look will occupy my research agenda for some time to come—it does suggest that one output from an RJV is a licensable product or process and that has, at least among U.S. RJVs, occurred more often than not when the motivating idea for the RJV’s project came from the in-house R&D of the firm that formed the RJV.

From an operational perspective, consider a simple single-equation model of the performance of an R&D-based organization:

\( \text{Performance} = F(\$R&D, \mathbf{X}) \)

where Performance is either an index of R&D output over time or across firms that quantifies such behavior (e.g., the development of a new technology, bringing that technology to market, patenting the innovation, licensing the innovation, and so forth); \( \$R&D \) measures the R&D expenditures by the organization(s); and \( \mathbf{X} \), in a cross-sectional model, is a vector of firm or project characteristics. It would likely not surprise anyone here to learn that the extant literature reports that the regression coefficient on \( \$R&D \) in this illustrative model is positive. But, and this is my punch line, such an econometric finding is not the whole story. Perhaps what one should be thinking about in addition to the correlation between the level of R&D expenditures and related performance is the genesis of the idea for the R&D project itself.

If I may, let me proffer that if one controlled for the source of the idea for the R&D project in an extension of a cross-sectional version of the model in equation (1), one would find, holding the level of R&D expenditures constant, that those R&D organizations for which the idea for the R&D project came from internal sources would outperform those R&D organizations for which the idea came from other sources. And, of course, those organizations for which the idea for the R&D project emanated internally might be precisely those whose experience base is the richest
and for which there is someone—an internal entrepreneur perhaps—inside who recognized the potential of the idea.
Figure 1
Number of Research Joint Venture Filings in the Federal Register, by Year (n=1331)
### Table 1
Most Important Information Source for the Formation of a U.S. Research Joint Venture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Source</th>
<th>Most Important Source*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New idea that resulted from our in-house R&amp;D</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that resulted from research reported at scientific conferences</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that came from a firm member of the RJV</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that resulted from knowing what our competitors were doing</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that resulted from research reported in scientific publications</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previously in-house idea that was pursued but did not succeed</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that resulted from customer feedback</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea that came from a university member of the RJV</td>
<td>&lt;1.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Sum does not add to 100% due to rounding.
Source: National Research Joint Venture Database.
### Table 2
Directional Correlations from the National Research Joint Venture Database

The probability that the most important source for the research idea that led to the formation of a U.S. research joint venture is the in-house R&D of the founding firm is positively correlated with:

- the membership size of the RJV (count of members)
- the presence of non-U.S. members in the RJV (0/1)
- a licensable output from the RJV (0/1)
References


