

# The influence of key enabling technologies on technological innovation

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### **Abstract**

Key enabling technologies (KETs) have gained attention in science and policy due to their multidisciplinary nature and their ability to link distant knowledge fields, endowing them with a central role in recombinant innovation processes. However, it remains underresearched whether KETs generally have a higher influence on innovation processes than non-KETs. This study addresses the question by using propensity score matching and regression analysis. First, a balanced dataset is created through matching KET patents to non-KET patents that stem from a comparable context. Subsequently, it is analyzed whether KET patents are associated with higher forward citation frequencies than non-KETs. The results show that KETs receive more citations on average, but it appears that this effect is driven by a few very impactful patents. The results further show that not all KETs exert a measurable impact on forward citations and highlight the heterogeneities between the individual KETs. These findings call for a more critical assessment of the KET concept and for nuanced approaches in research and policy.

### **Keywords**

Key enabling technologies, general purpose technologies, recombinant novelty, technological impact, patent citations, propensity score matching

**JEL Classifications** 

O30; O31; O33; C21

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### **1. Introduction**

More than a decade ago, the European Commission (EC) grouped six broad technology fields under the label of Key Enabling Technologies (KETs), with the aim of strengthening the European Union's (EU) policy focus on strategic technologies. The main reasoning was to promote the EU's industrial competitiveness and reindustrialization, and to tackle the grand societal challenges (GSCs) (European Commission 2009b, 2009a, 2012). While KETs lack a clear conceptualization, their popularity is rooted in the features accompanying their general breadth and multidisciplinarity: KETs are enabling technologies and play an important role in recombinant innovation processes. This is because they can enable innovation both vertically, in downstream sectors/technology fields, and horizontally, across sectors/technology fields (Corradini and de Propris 2017; Teece 2018).

As previous studies in the young branch of literature on KETs have shown, the presence of KETs can positively affect innovation processes by extending knowledge recombination opportunities through their enabling nature (Antonietti and Montresor 2021; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). Despite their strong potential to impact various processes related to the generation of technological innovation, such as regional diversification or the generation of radical innovation (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Antonietti and Montresor 2021; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023), the question whether KETs are generally more impactful than non-KETs is under-researched. The current study is a first endeavor to approach this gap, as insights on the impact of KETs on innovation processes will help to address KETs more precisely in future studies. Considering KETs' origin at the policy level, better understanding KETs' will also have important policy implications.

It is hypothesized that the special properties of KETs render them more impactful than other technologies. The term 'impact' here refers to the contribution and relevance of KETs to subsequent technological innovation. Particularly the wide applicability, the capability to combine distant knowledge elements with another (bridging function), and their potential for complementary innovation, should enable them to easily influence innovation activities and to become central building blocks of innovations. Furthermore, KETs are differentiated into science- and engineering-based fields, as suggested by Wanzenböck, Neuländtner and Scherngell (2020), and it is hypothesized that the impact on innovation differs between these two groups.

The present study proxies knowledge by patents and measures their technological impact by citations in subsequent patents (forward citations), as common in the literature (e.g., Jaffe, Trajtenberg and Henderson 1993; Trajtenberg, Henderson and Jaffe 1997; Castaldi, Frenken and Los 2015). Germany serves as the focal country because it is strong in KETs (Butter et al. 2014). The study draws on a rich dataset combined from six different data sources. To ameliorate the comparison between the groups of KETs and non-KETs, a propensity score matching (PSM) is conducted, matching patents from both



groups that originated in comparable contexts (e.g., firm size, industry class, regional economic strength). Finally, regression models are calculated to test the hypotheses.

The findings indicate that a smaller proportion of KET patents receives citations within seven years of publication in comparison to non-KETs. However, the cited KETs have the potential to receive more forward citations than the cited non-KETs, indicating a higher possible impact. At the disaggregate KET level (i.e., the level of the individual KETs) this result is only observed for photonics and industrial biotechnology, while the results are heterogeneous across the individual KETs. By delivering initial insights on the question whether KETs have a greater impact on technological innovation than non-KETs, this study particularly contributes to the discussion on the relevance of KETs and provides important implications for further research on KETs' effects and for innovation policy involving KETs. In particular, the results call for granular, KET-specific approaches.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides the theoretical background and the hypotheses, before Section 3 presents the methodological approach and introduces the variables of interest. In Section 4 the results are reported, before they are discussed in Section 5. Section 6 concludes.

### **2. Theoretical Background**

It is commonly acknowledged that (technological) innovation is a main driver of economic growth (e.g., Rosenberg 2004). During the cumulative innovation process, different bits of knowledge are recombined in new ways, reconfiguring already existing knowledge relationships, eventually resulting in new ideas that possibly may become innovations (Schumpeter 1947; Weitzmann 1998; Fleming 2001; Arthur 2007). Certain technologies, namely General Purpose Technologies<sup>[1](#page-2-0)</sup> (GPTs), possess the potential to boost economic growth through their special innovation-spawning role: they are dynamic, broadly applicable and pervasive across the economy, offer scope for their own improvement over time, and promote the emergence of innovational complementarities<sup>[2](#page-2-1)</sup> (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995). These features can facilitate the combination of different knowledge elements and, in particular, the improvement loops between GPTs and complementary technologies can drive recombinant innovation (Bresnahan and

<span id="page-2-0"></span><sup>1</sup> Famous examples of GPTs are the steam engine, and electricity (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995; Lipsey, Bekar and Carlaw 1998). More recently, also semi-conductors (e.g., Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995), biotechnology (e.g., Lipsey, Bekar and Carlaw 1998), and artificial intelligence (e.g., Cockburn, Henderson and Stern 2019) have been considered as (young) GPTs in the literature.

<span id="page-2-1"></span><sup>2</sup> Innovational complementarities can be seen as a form of technological complementarities. As Teece (2018) highlights: Technological complementarity is given when the full potential of a technology can only be exploited with the help of a complementary counterpart. Complementarities can further be distinguished to be linked to a) technologies around a GPT, directly defining and supporting the GPT, and b) technologies enabled along the downstream path that are, however, not part of the GPT they are enabled by (Bekar, Carlaw and Lipsey 2018). Example for a): Computers are used to produce chips, these chips enable a variety of products - among those are computers themselves. Example for b): Electricity enables computers, computers enable for instance the internet (Bekar, Carlaw and Lipsey 2018).



Trajtenberg 1995). As a result, GPTs spread widely across the whole economy, unfolding their effects in various industries (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995; Helpman and Trajtenberg 1996; Helpman 1998).

Over the past decade, a potential subset of GPTs has gained prominence in the academic literature and at the policy-level, summarized under the umbrella term of 'Key Enabling Technologies' (KETs). The following Sub-section 2.1 addresses the concept of KETs and the subsequent sub-section outlines the research gap and derives the hypotheses.

### **2.1. Conceptualizing KETs**

The KET concept was first introduced in the policy sphere by the European Commission (EC) in 2009, from where it spread to academia. It encompasses the broad technology fields of advanced materials, advanced manufacturing technologies (AMTs), industrial biotechnology, micro- and nanoelectronics (including semi-conductors), nanotechnology, and photonics (European Commission 2009a, 2009b). In particular, the EC intended to increase the policy focus on KETs, to emphasize the foreseen role of KETs in tackling societal challenges (e.g., climate change, ageing, and other grand societal challenges), and to promote their development and application for the reindustrialization of Europe to secure its global competitiveness (European Commission 2009a, 2009b, 2012).

In parallel with the growing policy attention towards KETs, scholars began to study KETs at the academic level, and literature has been evolving since (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017, 2019; Wanzenböck et al. 2020; Antonietti, Cattani, Gambarotto and Pedrini 202[3](#page-3-0)). Unfortunately, no clear theoretical conceptualization<sup>3</sup> was provided in the initial documents by the EC (European Commission 2009a, 2009b), which created – still existing – conceptual challenges in the academic literature. However, KETs can be better understood through concepts as General Purpose Technologies (GPTs) and enabling technologies (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Teece 2018). Enabling technologies are not clearly defined in the literature either, but they are widely applicable and characterized by potential innovational complementarities – thus meeting two of the three GPT core features (Teece 2018). Unlike GPTs, of which usually only a handful exists at the same time, many enabling technologies can exist simultaneously<sup>[4](#page-3-1)</sup> (Teece 2018). Some of them might eventually become a GPT in the course of time (Teece 2018;

<span id="page-3-0"></span> $^3$  Also previous studies emphasized the lack of a profound framework (e.g. Wanzenböck, Neuländtner and Scherngell 2020).

<span id="page-3-1"></span><sup>4</sup> No uniform definition of GPTs exists in the literature, but they are usually associated with the core features described above (Cantner and Vannuccini 2012). As highlighted by Cantner and Vannuccini (2012), there are two generations of GPT models: The first generation considers only one GPT at a time (e.g., Aghion 2008) while the second one allows for the co-existence of several GPTs (e.g., Carlaw and Lipsey 2006). In the present study I follow the broader approach of co-exiting GPTs. Nevertheless, it is important to be aware that GPTs are rare technologies, in contrast to enabling technologies (see Teece 2018).



Martinelli, Mina and Moggi 2021). The literature remains generally ambiguous whether KETs are GPTs or just share most core characteristics. Therefore, there are reasons to believe that they can be conceptualized as something between enabling technologies and GPTs.

In the present study, I follow the suggestion of Teece (2018) to view KETs at least as 'junior GPTs' and I further acknowledge that (at least some) KETs can partially be considered GPTs. Considering that semi-conductors are treated as a GPT (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995), for example, at least parts of micro- and nanoelectronics (MNE) fall into the GPT category. Biotechnology, the parent field of industrial biotechnology (Aschhoff et al. 2010), is another recognized potential GPT (Lipsey, Bekar and Carlaw 1998). Also lasers, a subfield of photonics, are treated as a potential GPT in the literature (Lipsey et al. 1998). Furthermore, Lipsey et al. (1998) and Shea, Grinde and Elmslie (2011) propose that nanotechnology is also a GPT<sup>[5](#page-4-0)</sup>. Given these heterogeneities concerning their GPT status, this article argues that it is important to analyze the six KETs individually. Thereby their conceptualization can be advanced through differentiating their impact and potential, while such an approach also facilitates the development of a precise theoretical framework of the KET concept.

Furthermore, both GPTs and KETs are not final products but function as core building blocks of innovations (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995; Montresor and Quatraro 2017). KETs are very generic and horizontal in nature, as they "*are multidisciplinary, cutting across many technology areas with a trend towards convergence and integration*" (European Commission 2009b, p. 1). Therefore, they are mainly defined by i) their very wide applicability across various fields, which again raises ii) their potential to induce complementary innovation (horizontally across sectors and technology fields, or vertically in downstream sectors and technology fields) (Teece 2018). Thus, besides the horizontal dimension (and like GPTs; see Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995), innovational complementarities in particular give KETs an additional vertical dimension (Corradini and de Propris 2017).

### **2.2. KETs' impact on innovation**

Overall, their special properties endow KETs with a powerful role in driving potential recombinant innovation, as previous studies also have also shown (Wessendorf, Kopka and Fornahl 2021; Montresor, Orsatti and Quatraro 2022; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023; Wessendorf, Kopka and Fornahl 2024). From the technological perspective, KETs act as bridging platforms (Corradini and de Propris 2017): due to their wide applicability, KET knowledge can be combined with knowledge from various technology domains. In this sense, KETs can be considered as 'platforms'

<span id="page-4-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Since the diffusion and adoption of GPTs across the economy takes time, it can be difficult to identify young GPTs. (e.g., Jovanovic & Rousseau 2008; Teece 2018). From this an ambiguous view on KETs results: As indicated with the examples above, some scholars consider single KETs as GPTs. Further scholars see KETs as *young* GPTs (e.g., Antonietti et al. 2022; Montresor & Quatraro 2017; Aschhoff et al. 2010). Others take a more reserved view by treating KETs as *potential* GPTs (e.g., Martinelli et al. 2021; Antonietti & Montresor 2021).



that provide knowledge interfaces to which different knowledge can easily connect (Corradini and de Propris 2017).

Thus, KETs can function as a broker between knowledge fields that are otherwise very distant from each other. This opens up more opportunities for the recombination of knowledge elements, generally facilitating the recombinant process and ultimately enabling innovation (Antonietti and Montresor 2021; Montresor et al. 2022; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023; Wessendorf et al. 2024). While there are still many white spots in the literature, some (regional) economic effects of KETs have recently been investigated. Studies on the innovation-spawning role of KETs refer to their local impact, for instance by pointing out that their embeddedness in the regional knowledge base affects the regional innovation output (Wessendorf et al. 2024). However, to the best of my knowledge, one fundamental aspect of KETs has not explicitly been addressed yet, namely whether knowledge in KETs generally has a greater impact on subsequent innovation processes than knowledge in technologies that are not classified as KETs.

The existing literature indicates that KET knowledge should indeed have a positive impact on innovation because it facilitates recombinant innovation processes (Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). Thus, KET knowledge influences innovation processes, which is a prerequisite for the effects measured at the regional or organizational level in previous studies. It is likely that KETs diffuse and unfold their impact also via self-reinforcing loops. The diffusion of KETs should enlarge the scope of their impact and, as Bresnahan (2010) and Martinelli et al. (2021) highlight, technological diffusion can be driven by complementary innovations<sup>[6](#page-5-0)</sup>. KETs might trigger complementary innovation that leads to their own diffusion, which again triggers complementary innovation and thereby also strengthens the impact of KETs. This potential relation gives reason to assume a strong impact of KETs. However, while previous studies investigated the impact of KETs in different (regional) context, the effects of KETs have not yet been contrasted to the effects of non-KETs. This step is important, as it fosters a better understanding which role the particular technological nature of KETs plays, in addition to the already identified geographical and organizational aspects which facilitate the influence of KETs on innovation-related processes.

To gain fundamental insights on the group of KETs and in order to address them more accurately in future analyses and concepts, this study raises the exploratory question whether the designated KETs' impact on innovation differs from technologies not classified as KETs. The question is mainly rooted in two aspects: first, innovational complementarities are at the core of KETs (Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Teece 2018; John, Wesseling, Worrell and Hekkert 2022) and potentially contribute to KETs' impact via involving them in innovation processes. Second, as described in Section 2.1, KETs are at least potential GPTs and the latter diffuse widely across the economy, bearing great potential for innovation, economic development, and an economy-wide impact. KETs are not necessarily as widespread as GPTs (Teece 2018), but should have the

<span id="page-5-0"></span><sup>6</sup> Especially by *"changing the potential application of known techniques"* (Martinelli, Mina and Moggi 2021, p. 184)



potential for a wide scope of their influence on innovation processes. Thus, I assume that KETs, compared to other technologies, are more prone to exert an impact on knowledge generation processes than non-KETs. A common way to measure the impact of technologies are patent citations (e.g., Jaffe et al. 1993; Trajtenberg et al. 1997; Castaldi et al. 2015), and as a proxy for the relevance of patents forward citations<sup>[7](#page-6-0)</sup> are a suitable measure. Accordingly, I propose the following hypothesis.

### **H1: KET patents are associated with a higher citation frequency than non-KET patents.**

In general, KETs are technologies at the intersection of science and industry: they are – to varying degrees – science-based and industry-oriented, highly R&D driven, and provide important application interfaces (European Commission 2009b; Aschhoff et al. 2010; Wanzenböck et al. 2020; Antonietti and Montresor 2021). While there exists no clear categorization of KETs in the literature yet, industrial biotechnology and nanotechnology can roughly be grouped as more science-driven technologies, while AMTs, advanced materials, and photonics are more application- and engineering-based KETs (e.g., Aschhoff et al. 2010; Wanzenböck et al. 2020). Regarding the sixth KET, micro- and nanoelectronics (MNE), also including semi-conductors, the literature is rather equivocal. Whereas some studies highlight the science-based nature of semiconductors (Pavitt 1984; Ponds, van Oort and Frenken 2010), Wanzenböck et al. (2020) view MNE to be rather engineering-based. Previous studies that consider the six single KETs find differences between their individual effects (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Wanzenböck et al. 2020; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). Particularly the engineering-based KETs advanced materials and AMTs are described to exhibit the most pronounced KET properties (e.g., Aschhoff et al. 2010; Montresor and Quatraro 2017). Consequently, they may diffuse and unfold an impact more rapidly. Additionally, science-based KETs build more on codified knowledge, while engineering-based KETs build more on tacit knowledge (European Commission 2015; Wanzenböck et al. 2020). While codified knowledge is easier to transmit across geographic distances, tacit knowledge is more geographically 'sticky' (von Hippel 1994) and its transfer works mainly through personal interaction and face-to-face encounters (Polanyi 1966; Nelson and Winter 1982; Maskell and Malmberg 1999; Gertler 2003). Thus, relevant tacit knowledge can be harder to access and replicate through other actors or organizations external to those applying the knowledge. At the same time, the application-driven nature of engineering-based KETs may mean more practical problem-solving approaches and a more direct industrial applicability of new solutions, leading to a faster adoption. This may not only support their diffusion but also accelerate innovation cycles. Furthermore, tacit knowledge is an important prerequisite for the emergence of radical innovation (Mascitelli 2000). Even though radical innovation occurs seldomly (Verhoeven, Bakker and Veugelers 2016; Grashof, Hesse and Fornahl 2019), it is highly impactful (Knuepling, Wessendorf and Basilico 2022), in the sense of being destructive but also creating new

<span id="page-6-0"></span> $7$  Forward citations represent a patent's frequency of being cited by subsequent patents.



markets and business models. Moreover, it has been shown that engineering-based KETs can drive the emergence of radical innovation, due to their ability to combine distant knowledge (Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). All in all, given the aspects explained above, engineering-based KETs might show a greater measurable impact, compared to science-based KETs. Accordingly, I suggest the following hypothesis:

### **H2: The difference in forward citations between patents in engineeringbased KETs and non-KETs is greater than the difference in forward citations between science-based KETs and non-KETs.**

In the following section, the methodological strategy to analyze the hypotheses is introduced.

### **3. Data and Methods**

### **3.1. Data**

To assess the assumptions on the diffusion of KETs, the present study uses patent data, matched with organization-level and regional-level data. I consider patent applications to the European Patent Office (EPO) from applicants located in Germany (German applicant address). The dataset is constructed with data from six major data sources and contains information on the patent applications including information on the applicant and the region where the applicant is located. First, I retrieve regionalized patent data from the OECD Regpat database as well as patent data from the OECD Patent Quality Indicators database (both August 2023 version). Then I enrich the dataset with data on the applicant organizations retrieved from two databases of Bureau van Dijk (BvD), namely Orbis IP and Orbis<sup>[8](#page-7-0)</sup>. As it is common to consider the patent family level instead of single patent applications (e.g., Kopka and Fornahl 2024), I additionally join the patent family IDs (*docdb\_family\_id*) on the dataset. The family IDs were obtained from PATSTAT (2020 version), the patent database by the EPO, using the patents' *application ID*. Finally, I query regional data from the German *Regionaldatenbank[9](#page-7-1)* for the regions where patent applicants are located and merge them on the dataset (via the applicant's region ID). After omitting all observations with missing values, the final dataset comprises 4,244 applicants from Germany and 36,886 patent families, among these 3,331 (9%) assigned to KETs. Table 1 presents information about the patent families considered, whereas the variables of interest are introduced in the following section.

<span id="page-7-0"></span><sup>8</sup> I use the *application ID* to retrieve the applicants' *BvD ID*, with which I then query data on the organizational level in Orbis and Orbis IP.

<span id="page-7-1"></span> $9$  The regional database by the German federal and state statistical offices (www.regionalstatistik.de)





#### *Table 1: KET-specific counts and shares of patent families in the dataset.*

### **3.2. Variables**

To analyze the research question, I first perform a propensity score matching (as described in the following Section 3.3 and Appendix 2) in which KET patents are paired with non-KET patents that originated in comparable contexts. This procedure ensures the comparability between KET patents and non-KET patents in the analysis of forward citations. In the next step, I compare the influence of patents of these two groups on subsequent innovation and calculate negative binomial regression models with clustered standard errors. In the following subsection the variables for the matching and for the analysis of the diffusion of KETs are retrieved from the dataset described above, or created based on it.

#### *3.2.1 Patent level variables*

As patent citations are commonly used in the literature to proxy technological impact (e.g., Jaffe et al. 1993; Trajtenberg et al. 1997; Castaldi et al. 2015), I use forward citations to capture the impact of KETs and non-KETs. I investigate whether KET patents receive more citations than non-KET patents within seven years of publication<sup>[10](#page-8-0)</sup>. The citation count of each patent application (based applications to the EPO) is the focal variable and is directly retrieved from the OECD Patent Quality Indicators database<sup>[11](#page-8-1)</sup>. For the analysis the patent citations are aggregated at the patent family level (*agg\_cits7*) and the variable is log-transformed *(log\_agg\_cits7)*. Prior to the transformation, a constant of 1 is added to the citation count, in order to handle patents with 0 citations. As the PATSTAT 2020 version is used to query the patent family IDs and because the data quality tends to drop towards the end of the period covered by the PATSTAT database, I select patents with priority application years 2009 and 2010. Due to the

<span id="page-8-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> The publication usually takes place 18 months after the application (Squicciarini, Dernis and Criscuolo 2013).

<span id="page-8-1"></span><sup>11</sup> Including self-citations, because they can be even more valuable than citations by others (Hall, Jaffe and Trajtenberg 2005; Squicciarini, Dernis and Criscuolo 2013).



seven-year time lag between publication and forward citation count, this approach ensures a more reliable citation count compared to counting citations of patents filed later.

### *3.2.2. Technology level variables and identifying KET patents*

Following previous studies (e.g., Wessendorf et al. 2024), KET patents are identified via codes<sup>[12](#page-9-0)</sup> of the international patent classification (IPC) assigned to the patents, as provided by van de Velde et al. (2012). Due to their broad and horizontal nature, the individual KETs share some 'natural overlaps' (Larsen et al. 2011; van de Velde et al. 2012; Butter et al. 2014). To account for this, KET patents are identified at a very fine-grained level by using full-digit IPC codes (e.g., Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). If a patent lists one IPC code assigned to a KET, this patent is considered a KET patent (one patent can be assigned to multiple KETs). Binary variables are constructed that indicate whether a patent is a KET-patent (1) or not (0): once at the aggregate level (*isKET*) and also for every individual KET (*is[abbrev. KET name]*) [13](#page-9-1). Non-KET patents are patents that cannot be assigned to any of the six KETs. Furthermore, each patent is assigned to one broader technology field classified by Schmoch (2008).

### *3.2.3. Organizational level variables*

To proxy collaborations and knowledge exchange, I consider the average applicant share of the patents in each patent family<sup>[14](#page-9-2)</sup> (*av app share*). Since an organization's age can affect its innovation behavior (Huergo and Jaumandreu 2004), I calculate the age of each applicant organization's at the time of priority application (*org\_age*), based on the organization-level data from Orbis. Also an organization's size can affect R&D investments, R&D success, and thus an organization's innovation and patenting behavior (e.g., Acs and Audretsch 1990; Arant et al. 2019). To include the applicant organizations' sizes in the analysis, I consider the size class of the organization as provided by Orbis, based on the number of employees, operating revenue and assets (*size\_class*). This variable is ordinal scaled with four ranks ('small', 'medium', 'large', 'very large')<sup>[15](#page-9-3)</sup>. Furthermore, I use the number of publications of the applicant organization<sup>[16](#page-9-4)</sup> as a proxy for the organizations' innovativeness and their experience in

<span id="page-9-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> The full list of codes is provided in Appendix 8.

<span id="page-9-1"></span><sup>13</sup> *isKET* = KET (aggregate level), *isAMT* = Advanced Manufacturing Technologies (AMT), *isAM* = (Advanced Materials), *isIB* = (Industrial Biotechnology), *isMNE* = (Micro- and Nanoelectronics, including semi-conductors), *isNT* = (Nanotechnology), *isPT* = (Photonics)

<span id="page-9-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> *av\_app\_share* is computed as the sum of the applicant shares of all applications within one patent family, divided by the number of applications in the patent family.

<span id="page-9-3"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Size classification in Orbis, according to the user guide (organizations need to meet at least one of the following criteria):

*Very large:* Operating revenue >= 100 mil. EUR, employees >= 1000, total assets: 200 mil. EUR / *Large:* Operating revenue >= 10 mil. EUR, employees >= 150, total assets: 20 mil. EUR, not very large / *Medium:* Operating revenue >= 1 mil. EUR, employees >= 15, total assets: 2 mil. EUR, not (very) large / *Small companies:* not included in any of the above categories

<span id="page-9-4"></span> $16$  As Orbis only provides the count of an organization's publications from 2015 on, I create a proxy by using the organizations' mean publication number of the five-year period 2015-2019.



applying for patents (*pubs org*). In addition, I include 4-digit NACE<sup>[17](#page-10-0)</sup> codes<sup>[18](#page-10-1)</sup> to assign the patents' applicant organizations to economics sectors (*NACE*).

Additionally, since external knowledge can play an important role in recombinant innovation processes (e.g., Miguelez and Moreno 2018; Hesse and Fornahl 2020), I consider whether an organization's ownership structure displays direct international ties in the patent application year. A binary variable<sup>[19](#page-10-2)</sup> (*struct\_mn*) indicates whether this is the case (1) or whether it is unclear (0). Even though the variable does not contain comprehensive information on multinational enterprises, it is a is good proxy to include at least a parts of them as such.

### *3.2.4. Regional variables*

Based on the applicants' addresses, all patents are regionalized at the level of 141 German labor market regions (LMR), as defined by Kosfeld and Werner (2012). LMRs are functionally defined and larger than NUTS3- but smaller than NUTS2-regions. They consider commuter traffic and thus account for the fact that human capital, in which knowledge is embedded, often is attracted to the location of work from a wider geographic area that exceeds the administrative boundaries of the municipality where the occupation is located (Kosfeld and Werner 2012). At the LMR level I compute the average annual population density (*popdens*) for the time period [20](#page-10-3)08-2011<sup>20</sup> to proxy agglomeration economies and knowledge spillovers. To consider the regional absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal 1990) and regional human capital in general that may have affected the generation of the patents in the dataset, I use the number of employees with an academic degree and calculate the logged average for each LMR in the time period 2008-2011 (*log\_acad\_empl*).

### *3.2.5. Variables' summary statistics*

Prior to the next step, all observations with missing values in any of the variables are removed. The descriptive statistics of the relevant variables, including a brief description, are reported in Appendix 1. In summary, the dataset is very heterogeneous.

<span id="page-10-0"></span> $17$  NACE = Nomenclature générale des activités économiques dans les Communautés Européennes" (Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community) <sup>18</sup> NACE rev. 2

<span id="page-10-2"></span><span id="page-10-1"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> It would have been desirable to instead include a dummy variable in the analysis that indicates whether an organization is a multinational enterprise or not. Unfortunately, the Orbis database contains only the most up-to-date ownership information (from 2024) and regarding ownership information, only shareholder data is available for 2009 and 2010. Thus, I simply assess direct shareholders and subsidiaries (as far as possible) and complement the available information by data on the global ultimate owners (GUOs) of the patent applicants. In the first step, I analyze which applicant organizations had shareholders that were located in foreign countries in 2009 or 2010. In the second step, I retrieve a list of subsidiaries (as of 2024) for the applicants and identify all foreign subsidiaries, of which an applicant of my dataset was a shareholder in 2009 or 2010. This way, at least a part of companies with multinational activities can be identified. Finally, I retrieve a list of the applicants' GUOs from Orbis (as of 2024). With the help of data on mergers and acquisitions (M&A) I filter for those applicants that have a foreign GUO that has not been subject to any M&A transaction since the focal time period of 2009/2010.

<span id="page-10-3"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> By choosing the time period 2008-2011, I consider one year before and one year after the focal period to reduce the risk of data distortion by outlier values in the focal period.



The patents in the dataset tend to be from regions with academics, while for example the population density and the organization's age vary on a broad range.

### **3.3. Methodological strategy**

Before assessing whether there is a difference in the citation frequency between KET patents and non-KET patents, I conduct a propensity score matching (PSM), which is a common method to estimate treatment effects by enabling causal inference without requiring too many underlying assumptions (Ho, Imai, King and Stuart 2007; Abadie and Imbens 2016; Leusin 2022; Cantner, Grashof, Grebel and Zhang 2023). I consider KET patents to be 'treated' patents and non-KET patents as the control group, thus matching KET patents to non-KET patents that emerged in a comparable context. While this procedure leads – disadvantageously – to information losses<sup>[21](#page-11-0)</sup>, it – very advantageously – creates a balanced dataset for the further analysis (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983; Leusin 2022; Cantner et al. 2023). In the PSM, I consider the binary KET variables for the assignment to the treatment and control groups and the following covariates, introduced in Section 3.2: *av\_app\_share, org\_age, size\_class, pubs\_org, NACE, struct mn, pop dens, log acad empl and schmoch. Depending on the individual* variable, I either choose a direct match or a match via the nearest neighbor algorithm. Further details and background information on the PSM is provided in Appendix 2.

As the control group is much larger than the treatment group, I set the matching ratio to 1:2 for KETs at the aggregate level, meaning that one KET patent is matched to up to two control patents<sup>[22](#page-11-1)</sup>. In the second step of the analysis, I split the treatment group of KETs into six subgroups of the individual KETs. Only subgroups that account for at least 1% of the number of control patents are included in the analysis (arbitrary threshold). As the number of patents in nanotechnology and in MNE is below this threshold<sup>[23](#page-11-2)</sup>, both are excluded from the analysis. Since the four remaining KET subgroups are much smaller than the aggregate KET treatment group, the matching ratio<sup>[24](#page-11-3)</sup> here is set to 1:5. Appendix 3 shows the sample sizes and Appendix 4 reports the statistics of the treatment groups and the control group before and after the matching for both parts of the analysis (aggregate and individual KET level), indicating a strong balance improvement.

To further assess the quality of the matching and to control whether statistically significant differences exist between the samples after the matching, I compare the variances through running an F-test on the pre-matching and post-matching samples,

<span id="page-11-0"></span> $21$  Information (patents, in the present case) too distant from their counterfactuals are not considered (e.g., Leusin 2022).

<span id="page-11-1"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> A robustness check is performed with matching ratios 1:1 and 1:5, the results show consistency in the balance after the matching.

<span id="page-11-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Micro- and Nanoelectronics (MNE):73 observations, Nanotechnology: 100 observations

<span id="page-11-3"></span><sup>24</sup> A robustness check is performed with matching ratios 1:1 and 1:10 for individual KETs and 1:1 and 1:5 for aggregate KETs. The results show consistency in the balance after the matching.



for each variable that is matched via nearest neighbor matching. The F-tests indicate a strong balance improvement and are reported in detail in Appendix 5.

To gain a more detailed view of citation patterns of the KET group and the non-KET group, for each group the patents are allocated in deciles that are created based on the group-specific citation counts. For this, the datasets resulting from the PSM are used. Since KETs can be matched to multiple non-KETs, the mean of the logged citation counts is computed for the non-KET patents in each matched group. The non-KET deciles then are created based on the mean values of non-KETs, which also serve as the basis for a further comparison between KETs and non-KETs. Two indicators are employed for the analysis: For each decile, a) the average logged citation count per group is computed and b) the maximum logged citation counts per group is considered.

Finally, a series of negative binomial regression models with clustered standard errors is calculated. The negative binomial approach is chosen because the dependent variable exhibits overdispersion. The standard errors are clustered at the patent family level (*docdb\_family\_id*), since a single patent can occur multiple times in the dataset, for instance when it has more than one applicant and the applicants are located in different regions or belong to a different size class. As it is common that many patents do not receive citations (Squicciarini, Dernis and Criscuolo 2013), only patents that are cited are considered in the regression analysis. The number of citations (*agg\_cits7*) serves as the dependent variable while in each model one of the KET dummies is employed as explanatory variable (*isKET\_dum, isAMT\_dum, etc.*). Additionally, the models control for the following variables introduced above (mostly logged): *log\_popdens, log\_acad\_empl, log\_org\_age[25](#page-12-0), size\_class, log\_pubs\_org, log\_av\_app\_share,* and *struct\_mn*. The results are presented and discussed in the following section. For each model the variance inflation factor (VIF) is computed and the results raise no concern for multicollinearity issues. The descriptive statistics for each regression dataset are provided in Appendix 7.

### **4. Results**

### **4.1. Descriptive statistics**

Propensity score matching facilitated the comparison of citation counts between KET and non-KET patents by matching on the basis of criteria relevant to the generation of (KET) patents and by balancing the dataset (see Appendix 4). The descriptive statistics on the number of patent citations<sup>[26](#page-12-1)</sup> provide an overview on the citation frequencies of KETs and non-KETs (see Table 2). Both groups display highly rightskewed distributions, as many patents receive few or no citations (the median of the

<span id="page-12-0"></span> $25$  To manage outliers, organizations older than 150 years (arbitrary threshold) are assigned an age of 151 years.

<span id="page-12-1"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Note that the logged number of forward citations is considered.



logged citation count is 0 for KET patents and non-KETs). The skewness is higher for KET patents (1.61) than for non-KETs (1.47), as also indicated by the higher mean (KETs: 0.54 non-KETs: 0.47) and the higher maximum (KETs: 4.94, non-KETs: 4.09). The variation is larger for KETs. The identical third quartile for KETs and non-KETs (0.69) indicates that the higher average citation count of KETs is due to fewer patents with higher counts. Furthermore, the mean values show that KETs receive more citations on average than non-KETs.

<b>KET</b>	<b>Group</b>	Min.	$1$ st	Med.	<b>Mean</b>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Max.	<b>SD</b>	Skew-
			Qu.			Qu.			<b>ness</b>
<b>KETs</b>	treatment	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	$\mathbf 0$	0.54	0.69	4.94	0.71	1.61
(agg. Level)	control	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	$\mathbf 0$	0.47	0.69	4.09	0.65	1.47
<b>AMTs</b>	treatment	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	0.48	0.69	3.13	0.64	1.32
	control	$\overline{0}$	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	0.46	0.69	4.45	0.65	1.59
<b>Advanced</b>	treatment	$\Omega$	$\overline{0}$	0.69	0.61	1.1	3.43	0.66	1.06
<b>Materials</b>	control	$\Omega$	0.23	0.5	0.59	0.86	2.56	0.67	0.97
<b>Industrial</b>	treatment	$\Omega$	0	0	0.55	0.69	4.94	0.85	2.15
<b>Biotech</b>	control	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	$\mathbf 0$	0.52	0.80	4.03	0.71	1.44
<b>Photonics</b>	treatment	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	0	0.59	1.1	4.09	0.75	1.52
	control	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0.42	0.69	2.89	0.58	1.24

*Table 2: Summary statistics of logged forward citation count per KET.* 

Also at the individual KET level, the summary statistics reveal very right-skewed distributions and a high variability that even exceeds the mean in most cases. No citations occur in the first half of observations, with the exception of advanced materials, where the control group counts a few citations at the first quartile and both groups have a median greater than 0 (higher for advanced materials). While the descriptives differ between the four analyzed KETs, they all have higher mean values than their control groups, likely due to their higher maximum forward citation counts. Surprisingly, AMTs differ from the remaining KETs as their control group has a higher citation maximum (although the mean citation count is slightly higher for AMTs than for the control group).

### **4.2. Decile-based analysis**

In order to obtain more detailed observations than is possible at the quartile level, the analysis is further carried out at the level of citation-based deciles (to which the patents are assigned as described in Section  $3.3^{27}$  $3.3^{27}$  $3.3^{27}$ ). Figures 1a-1c show the comparison of the mean citation count and the maximum citation count within each decile. Extending the insights from the previous sub-section (4.1), no citations are observed in the lowest deciles for any group and only non-KET patents are cited in the lower deciles (non-KETs receive citations 2-3 deciles earlier than KETs). In the upper deciles, KETs show higher citation counts than non-KETs, in most cases.

<span id="page-13-0"></span> $27$  Appendix 6 provides an additional way of decile creation, based on the citations of KETs in matched groups.



At the individual KET-level, the clearest difference between KETs and the non-KETs control group exists in the case of photonics. While patents in this KET receive no forward citations in the lower five deciles, the upper five deciles suggest that photonics patents are cited more frequently than non-KETs. Advanced materials display differences to non-KETs and the pattern is related to the pattern in photonics but the differences between advanced materials and the control group is less pronounced. Industrial biotechnology is characterized by rather small differences to non-KETs in the upper deciles, both regarding the maximum citation count and the mean citation count. As already indicated in the previous sub-section, AMTs are a special case: while their mean citation count is higher than for non-KETs in the top four deciles, the non-KET group accounts for the highest citation number in the tenth decile. Regarding other deciles in the upper half, AMTs are only (slightly) more impactful in deciles 6, 8, and 9.

The findings generally reveal that fewer KET patents receive citations than non-KET patents, while those that are cited tend to be cited more frequently. Thus, the next step of the analysis in the following subsection focuses on the question whether among the cited patents a KET-status influences the citation frequency.

The influence of key enabling technologies on technological innovation



*Figure 1a: Mean logged citation count and maximum logged citation count across deciles for KETs at the aggregate level, compared to non-KETs.* 



#### **Mean logged citation count Maximum logged citation count**



 $\overline{1}$ 

 $\overline{4}$ 

 $\sqrt{5}$ 

 $\,$  6

Decile

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 $1$ 

 $\overline{4}$ 

Decile



The influence of key enabling technologies on technological innovation









### **4.3. Regression analysis**

In the next step, a series of negative binomial regression models with clustered standard errors is computed. The results show that, at the aggregate level, being a KET is associated with a statistically significant positive influence on the forward citation count. This aligns with the findings from the earlier descriptive analysis. Moreover, this effect seems to be particularly driven by photonics, where the KET status has a highly significant positive influence on forward citations. Additionally, also industrial biotechnology exhibits a statistically significant positive effect. In contrast, the KET status of advanced materials patents shows no influence on the citation frequency. While the descriptive overview (Section 4.1), surprisingly, suggested that AMTs are a special case (given their control group's maximum citation frequency is higher), the analysis now provides additional evidence regarding the particularity of this group. Here, AMTs are found to be associated with a statistically significant negative impact on forward citations, meaning that AMTs lead to fewer forward citations than their control group of non-KETs.

The control variables included in the regression do not have a consistent statistically significant impact across the different KETs. In many cases, their observed effects are outside the significance thresholds, but including them in the models increases the model fit (McFadden's-R²). The variation in the effects of the control variables may stem from differences in sample sizes variations in the characteristics of the individual KETs.





*Table 5: Results of negative binomial regression models (clustered standard errors in parentheses).* 



### **5. Discussion**

In the following, the results presented in Section 4 are discussed. While the expectations towards KETs are high, the results draw a mixed picture of their influence on subsequent innovation. In summary, the influence rather concentrates on fewer but more impactful patents. Moreover, the actual impact substantially varies across the individual KETs.

### **5.1. Aggregate KET level**

At the aggregate level, KETs exhibit a higher mean citation count than the non-KETs control group, suggesting they play a more influential role in innovation processes than non-KETs. This finding is complementary to previous studies that focus on the innovation-spawning role of KETs (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023; Wessendorf et al. 2024), supporting H1 to a certain extent. However, a closer look reveals that in both groups of KETs and non-KETs normally not all patents generate a measurable impact, as proven by the number of patents with zero citations. While it is common for many patents to remain uncited (Squicciarini et al. 2013), interestingly even fewer KET patents are cited than non-KETs – indicating that fewer KET-based innovations are highly relevant in subsequent innovation processes. On the other hand, *if* KET-based innovations make an impact, it can be greater than the influence of non-KET innovations. When excluding patents with zero citations from the analysis, i.e. when only considering patents that influence innovation processes, the empirical results from the regression analysis suggest that KETs, at the aggregate level, are more influential than non-KETs. Given the results from the different steps of the analysis, in summary partial support for H1 is found and the findings highlight that KETs can play a special role in innovation processes.

KETs' multi-disciplinarity and cross-cutting nature (European Commission 2009a; Aschhoff et al. 2010) enable them to establish links between different technological fields, making KETs central elements in recombinant innovation processes. This bridging function (Corradini and de Propris 2017), combined with the broad applicability of KETs (European Commission 2009b, 2009a; Larsen et al. 2011), may explain the stronger influence of KET knowledge in the observed cases: as a 'bridge' or knowledge interface, and in line with its GPT-like nature, KET knowledge becomes a central element in innovation processes as a 'knowledge connector'. As such, it has the potential to appear in innovations more often than other (and less broadly defined) technologies, which is measured by the forward citations evaluated in the present analysis. Furthermore, KETs' innovational complementarities trigger downstream innovation (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995; Teece 2018) that potentially cite the upstream KET patent. However, the results raise the questions why not the majority of KET patents has a higher impact than non-KET patents and whether the bridging function of KETs might not be so



pronounced for all KETs and their subfields<sup>[1](#page-21-0)</sup>. While the special properties of KETs can explain their positive effects on recombinant innovation (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2017; Montresor et al. 2022; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023), and likely are foundational elements of KETs' impact, they might also pose challenges. As outlined in Section 2, the innovation-spawning effect of KETs is partially rooted in their innovational complementarities. Consequently, the impact that KETs can unfold also depends on advancements in complementary technologies and the emergence of complementary innovation (Aschhoff et al. 2010). Thus, the fact that many KET patents remain uncited might not always be related to KETs themselves, but can be due to developments in other technology fields and application sectors instead. Advancements in KETs may not be able to be fully utilized and exploited when complementary technologies lack the necessary progress. Regarding KETs' bridging function, it is generally comparatively rare that very distant knowledge is getting linked during innovation processes (Verhoeven et al. 2016; Grashof et al. 2019). While KETs can support linking distant knowledge elements (Wessendorf and Grashof 2023), at the same time the opportunity to act as bridging technology may not be given that frequently. Another important obstacle is the so-called 'valley of death': as outlined by the EC, Europe is strong in KET knowledge but has difficulties with its commercialization (e.g. Aschhoff et al. 2010; Butter et al. 2015), which limits their impact as they cannot fully unfold their market potential (potentially hampering KETs diffusion and application, negatively impacting citations). Moreover, KETs are rather complex technologies and also products and value chains based on KETs are more complex (e.g., European Commission 2009a; van de Velde et al. 2012; Butter et al. 2014). In contradiction to KETs' wide applicability, this might make it more difficult for KET knowledge to become incorporated in innovation processes in some cases, thus weakening the advantage of a wide applicability and leading to fewer citations. It also needs to be noted that not receiving a citation does not exclude the presence of an impact. When KETs are the basis for downstream innovation but are not part of the innovation themselves (see complementarities described in Section 2), or when certain knowledge elements in KETs are widely spread and become 'common knowledge' (as in the case of some GPTs), they exert an impact but may not be referred to in patents. Moreover, as Bresnahan (2010) outlines, particularly for young GPTs the diffusion may be slow in the beginning. This might also apply to (some) KETs, given that they are young technologies at different life cycle stages, and could impede their impact. Whereas, undoubtfully, further research is necessary to test these assumptions, the aspects above may explain the findings of fewer KET patents receiving forward citations.

<span id="page-21-0"></span><sup>1</sup> Examples for subfields of KETs: Laser technologies are subfields of photonics, synthetic biotechnology is a subfield of biotechnology (within this subfield, for instance CRISPR-Cas9 is a component/tool), lightweight alloys are a subfield of advanced materials.



### **5.2. KETs at the individual level**

At the level of the individual  $KETs<sup>2</sup>$ [,](#page-22-0) it applies to all analyzed  $KETs$  that fewer patents exert an impact than non-KET patents. The greater impact of KETs, observed in the regression analysis at the aggregate level, only holds for photonics and industrial biotechnology (at higher significance levels), which are both more impactful than their non-KET control groups. This makes them the main drivers of the overall KET effect and science- and more application-oriented KETs cannot be distinguished based on the results, contrary to the initial presumption. Moreover, the results do not even permit to clearly group photonics with the other application-driven KETs (advanced materials or AMTs). Since AMTs even are negatively associated with citation frequency and no statistically significant effect of advanced materials is found, the underlying assumption of H2 that KETs consistently outperform other technologies does not hold. Given these recognitions, H2 clearly must be rejected.

In comparison to AMTs and advanced materials, industrial biotechnology and photonics are more specialized, which could enhance their visibility when they have been adopted in industries and regions, resulting in higher citation frequencies. Additionally, given that both industrial biotechnology and photonics are related to fields identified as GPTs in the literature (Lipsey et al. 1998; Aschhoff et al. 2010), as described in Section 2.1, they could be at higher maturity level than AMTs and advanced materials, influencing innovation processes as more established technologies. Furthermore, industrial biotechnology, which is science-based and builds more on codified knowledge (Wanzenböck et al. 2020) may 'naturally' be more outstanding in terms of forward citations, since codified knowledge is easier to refer to and patent activities may be more common in the field. Considerung AMTs, their special role contradicts the initial overall assumptions of a strong innovation-driving effect. However, their highly heterogeneous nature (e.g., Aschhoff et al. 2010; van de Velde et al. 2012) may cause the mixed results. On the one hand, their mean citation count in the four upper deciles exceeds the mean of the non-KET control groups, while on the other hand, the maximum citation count in the  $10<sup>th</sup>$  decile is observed for non-KETs and the regression analysis reveals a negative effect. While, undoubtfully, further investigations on the role of AMTs and potential barriers are necessary here, several aspects may be relevant. First, knowledge in application-oriented technologies often is exchanged more informally (Wanzenböck et al. 2020). Hence, depending on the subfield, patent activities may be less common. Second, firms may choose to not patent innovations, for instance in order to not disclose strategically relevant knowledge to competitors, or because the available resources make filing a patent application seem inefficient. Third, while the decile analysis shows that some AMTs patents are more impactful than non-KET patents, other patents might rather represent incremental innovation, relating to improvements in specific manufacturing contexts, thus attracting less general attention. The absence of a

<span id="page-22-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Four of the six KETs are included in the analysis, since nanotechnology and MNE are excluded due to a very low number of observations (see Section 3).



statistically significant effect in advanced materials could be due to similar aspects that are just not as pronounced as in the case of AMTs.

### **5.3. KETs as heterogeneous technology fields**

Although the findings of the present study do not fully align with the proposed hypotheses, they are consistent with other studies in observing heterogeneous effects across the individual KETs (e.g., Montresor and Quatraro 2019; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023). Similar to previous research, the expected effects are found at the aggregate level but do not hold for all KETs when considering them separately. Antonietti et al. (2023) find, for instance, that KETs at the aggregate level increase the regional complexity of skills, tasks and occupations. At the disaggregate level, they only find effects of advanced materials and industrial biotechnology on the complexity of occupations though, and of AMTs and advanced materials on task and skill complexity. Wessendorf and Grashof (2023) observe, amongst others, a positive effect of KETs on radical innovation generation in firms, but at the disaggregate level this only holds for advanced materials, photonics, and (to a lesser extent) AMTs. Antonietti and Montresor (2021) show that, from the aggregate perspective, KETs can drive regional diversification. Regarding the individual KETs, only AMTs and advanced materials exhibit this effect. While the specific context and focus of these studies needs to be considered, it is important to note that they all derive their core assumptions from the horizontal and vertical enabling nature of KETs. Additionally, taking the results from previous studies into account, it is very context-specific for which of the KETs the expected enabling function under investigation is observed. Considering AMTs for example, the observed positive effect on regional diversification by Antonietti and Montresor (2021) may stem from cross-industry spillovers of this very broad KET. However, not all spillovers may lead to patent citations. Furthermore, process innovation in AMTs presumably is more difficult to patent/cite due to its tacit nature. While these findings and potential explanations highlight the importance for future research to consider the context in which KET patents are cited, it particularly reinforces the need for a granular approach to KETs. As emphasized in previous literature (Montresor and Quatraro 2017), KETs are at different stages of their life cycle, and the different subfields of individual KETs are probably at different technology readiness levels (TRLs), which potentially is another piece that contributes to the puzzle of observed differences in forward citations. Some KET-subfields might rather be in the emerging phase, being adopted slowly and not receiving many citations, while others are in the growth phase, rapidly diffusing and drawing attention towards them. While the results could also be owed to the broad and diverse nature of KETs, they raise the question whether it could be more effective to address sub-KETs instead of the complete individual KET-fields (for instance 'enzymes' or 'biochemicals' in the case of industrial biotechnology). In summary, the results of this study provide limited support for the idea of a high impact of KETs in general (European Commission 2009b, 2009a, 2012) and strongly call for a more granular investigation of KETs' impact.



### **5.4. Future research directions**

While the heterogeneities in the results may be based on multifaceted underlying reasons, they highlight the need for further research with a more nuanced approach on the specific KETs, as previously advocated by other studies that also found differing effects of the individual KETs (e.g., Antonietti et al. 2023; Wessendorf et al. 2024). Why KETs are not always more impactful than non-KETs is beyond the scope of this study and raises several questions with opportunities for future research. While the link between the impact of KETs and their innovation-spawning role still needs to be explored in detail, it should particularly be investigated whether the special impact of KETs can emerge across the board of KETs or whether only certain subfields of the individual KETs drive the effects that are commonly associated with KETs. The latter may be one explanation for the heterogeneity in KETs' effects – not only in the context of this study, but also for heterogeneities outlined by other studies (e.g., Antonietti and Montresor 2021; Wessendorf and Grashof 2023; Wessendorf et al. 2024). Another interesting question for future research is whether a greater impact of certain KET patents rather is exerted horizontally, unfolding their bridging function (Corradini and de Propris 2017), or vertically, via innovational complementarities (Teece 2018). It also is essential to explore the influence of regional and firm-level characteristics on the relationship between KET status and forward citations, to find out whether factors at these level contribute to the diverse effects observed in this study.

As a comparison of the life cycle stages of different KETs still is a blind spot in the literature and an own study for itself, further research on the impact and diffusion of KETs would benefit from including life cycle aspects. While the differences between the individual aspects may partially be explained by life-cycle-related aspects, the question is whether this also applies to the subgroup of KETs, or whether the intra-KET differences (few impactful patents, many patents without citations) are rather explained by other factors. Additionally, to provide general insights on the influence of KETs, this study's approach is rather broad. Future research, however, should not only consider the origin of KET patents, but for in-depth insights the context in which KET patents are cited should be considered at the levels of organizations, industries, and regions.



### **6. Summary and Concluding Remarks**

### **6.1. Summary**

Despite the strong potential of KETs to influence a variety of innovation-related processes, it is under-researched whether KETs generally have a greater influence on innovation processes than non-KETs. In a first step towards closing this gap, the present study analyses whether KET patents have a greater influence on innovation processes than non-KET patents. Based on the special properties of the former, I assume that KETs are more impactful, while KET-specific differences are expected. Forward citations of patents are chosen as a proxy of the impact of patents and at the aggregate level, the results reveal indeed that KETs, on average, are more impactful than non-KETs. A closer look, however, shows that the impact is limited as actually fewer KET patents receive forward citations than non-KETs. Thus, the regression models employed in the analysis focus on the patents that receive citations, and show that patents comprising KET knowledge are associated with a higher forward citation frequency than non-KET patents. In other words, the impact of KETs is concentrated on a few but impactful patents: KETs do not always have a measurable or a strong impact compared to non-KETs, but if they exert any impact, they have the potential to be more influential than non-KETs. However, even though potentially greater, the influence of KETs on innovation appears to be more limited and specific than it is the case for non-KETs. While I follow Wanzenböck et al. (2020) to roughly categorize KETs in science-driven and engineering-based technologies, the results of the present study do not permit any indications for this categorization based on KETs' influence on innovation, contrary to my second hypothesis.

Overall, the difference in citation frequency between KETs and non-KETs, when examined at the aggregate level, suggests that KETs can indeed be more important in recombinant innovation processes than non-KETs, even though this does not apply to the majority of KET patents. Furthermore, the findings indicate the complexity of the group of KETs, as the results are heterogeneous and partly deviate from the literaturebased assumptions. It appears that the innovation-driving function of KETs might not only depend on their GPT-features, but on context-specific aspects in combination with their special nature. Life-cycle related aspects, the availability of complementarities to utilize advances in KETs, knowledge characteristics and commercialization barriers could play a role and should be addressed in future studies.

### **6.2. Limitations and further opportunities for future research**

Besides the aspects already indicated previously, further limitations of this study must be acknowledged that also offer opportunities for further research. First of all, the current approach does not allow to conclude on causal relationships. Second, the analysis is based on forward citations of patents. The use of patent data has its wellknown limitations, as for instance not all innovations are patented, and not all patents



are commercially utilized (Griliches 1990). Consequently, the effects of KETs might be underestimated, especially in fields where patenting is not common. Future research could be enriched by including alternative innovation indicators, and also alternative indicators to measure the impact of KET knowledge (e.g., by constructing knowledge spaces and employing indicators of social network analysis). Third, the matching approach limited the analysis of KETs to those KET patents that are, in selected aspects, comparable to non-KET patents. Many KET patents did not receive any match from the group of non-KET patents, which limits the generalizabilty of the findings. Thus, future research should also consider the origin of KET patents more closely and take into account that the special nature of KETs could potentially mean that KET patents originate in contexts that are not always comparable to non-KETs (making matching harder). Fourth, the generalizability is also limited by this study's focus on the single country of Germany. While Germany is strong in KETs (Butter et al. 2014), each country might have different priorities and knowledge in KETs. At least an EU-wide focus should be implemented in future studies. Fifth, due to data limitations, only patents that were applied within a two-year period were considered. Subsequent research should consider longer time periods, if possible. Sixth, further studies could benefit from identifying other enabling technologies as well as GPTs among the group of non-KETs, to reduce the risk of comparing KETs to KET-like technologies.

### **6.3. Contributions, implications and final remarks**

Despite these limitations, this study extends the literature on KETs' effects by addressing their direct influence on innovation. First, while KETs are broad technology fields sharing similar core characteristics, the results particularly highlight their heterogeneity by showing that KETs' impacts are not uniform and concentrate on a few highly impactful innovations within the individual KET fields. Second, further questions are raised that are central to gain a preciser understanding of KETs and the mechanisms underlying their effects. Third, the results particularly highlight the need for a critical assessment in which contexts KETs unfold an impact. To address them precisely in future research and policy-making, it must be analyzed in which settings KETs are generally impactful or whether only a handful of innovations and specific subfields of the individual KETs drive the effects commonly attributed to them.

The findings also offer important policy implications. Policies and policy measures targeting KETs in the context of innovation, for instance in the form of investments in R&D, skills and infrastructure, must adopt a granular approach. While the results need further investigation to identify potential barriers for KETs' influence in different settings, it is advisable to address KETs at least at the specific KET-level, if not even at the level of KET-subfields, and in the specific context in which KETs are supposed to unfold an impact. Once the KET subfields that extert a particularly strong impact on innovation activities are identified, innovation policies should promote their further development. Also for firms, the results suggest the need to prioritize subfields of the individual KETs that demonstrate a stronger impact on innovation. To enhance their innovation potential,



firms should assess which of these subfields align with their capabilities and markets to make targeted investments.

Given the diverse results on KETs from other studies and the present insights, one should not only focus on the core commonalities between KETs but equally consider their breadth and distinguishing aspects. Nevertheless, this study also highlights the potential impact KETs can have - even though their influence is not as striking as expected.



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### **Appendix**

Appendix 1: Descriptive statistics of the relevant variables

Tables A1a through A1d report the descriptive statistics of the relevant variables. As is shown in the tables, the average population density (*popdens*) varies across a very wide range while the statistics suggest a few extreme outliers. Regarding the number of academic employees in the LMR where the patents in the dataset originated, the distribution has a slightly longer left tail, meaning there are some patents from regions with a comparatively low regional number of employees holding an academic degree, while the statistics show that the variation is generally moderate and most patents are rather from regions with more academics. As for the applicant share, it can be derived that some patent families on average have multiple applicants per patent. However, in at least 75% of the patent families in the dataset there is on average one applicant per patent (there can be different applicants within the family though). The mean number of publications *pubs\_org* varies on a very wide range and is very right-skewed, with many organizations having few publications and few organizations achieving extreme values. The organization's age at the time of patent application also varies on a wide range (from 0 to 622 years), while one quarter of the organizations is at maximum 20 years old and half of the organizations 61 years or younger. The high maximum and the average that is slightly higher than the median suggest that a few outliers exist, which also increases the standard deviation. As the statistics for *struct\_mn*, a binary variable, reveal, 30% of the organizations could be identified to have multinational ties in the application years 2009 and 2010. The citation counts *agg*\_*cits7* and *log\_agg\_cits7* are very right-skewed with excess zeros, meaning many patents receive no citations at all, while some patents receive many citations. This is in line with the general pattern that usually many patents are not cited (Squicciarini et al. 2013). The log-transformation of *agg\_cits7* leads to an improvement of the data quality for the analysis. The frequencies for the categorial variable *schmoch* are shown in Table A1b. All 35 technology fields by Schmoch (2008) are represented to varying extents. The observation frequency of the different expressions of *size\_class* can be seen in Table A1c. Almost three quarters (74%) of the patents are applied for by very large organizations, followed by large organizations (13%). Medium sized-companies are only represented in 5% of the cases and small ones in 8%. Also the majority of NACE codes is represented. In summary, the dataset is very heterogeneous.











### *Table A1c: Observations of variable* size\_class*.*





#### *Table A1d: Frequencies of 4-digit NACE codes in the main dataset.*

 $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$ 

 $0.04$ 

 $0.00$ 

 $0.01$ 

 $0.25$ 

 $0.02$ 

 $0.05$ 

 $0.23$ 

0.67  $0.03$ 

 $1.11$  $0.00$ 

1.13

 $0.01$ 

 $4.15$ 

 $0.25$ 

 $1.19$  $0.78$ 

 $0.02$ 

0.32

 $0.19$ 

 $0.00$ 

 $0.27$ 

15 0.04

2320

25

2573

288 0.74

2890

24





*(table continued on next page)* 

23

 $11$  0.03



### *(continued from previous page)*



*(table continued on next page)* 



### *(continued from previous page)*





Appendix 2: Brief summary on the propensity score matching (PSM)

In the first step of a PSM, a treatment group (comprising units that received a certain treatment) and a control group (units that did not receive the treatment) are defined. Then a propensity score is computed for all observations. It indicates the probability of receiving the treatment, based on certain covariates that are considered in the analysis<sup>[3](#page-41-0)</sup> (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983). Even though the values between covariates may differ, they might have similar propensity scores, which facilitates their comparison (Abadie and Imbens 2016). Subsequently, treated units are matched to untreated units, while the aim is to match statistical twins (i.e., those units with a similar propensity score). As described in Section 3.3, I consider KET patents to be 'treated' patents and non-KET patents as the control group, thus matching KET patents to non-KET patents that emerged in a comparable context. On the one hand, this procedure leads to information losses. On the other hand, it balances the dataset for the subsequent steps (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983; Leusin 2022; Cantner et al. 2023). Hence, a PSM comprises a tradeoff between the amount of excluded observations and a sufficiently small distance between the treated and untreated units, in order to reduce bias in the subsequent analyses (Caliendo and Kopeinig 2008; Leusin 2022).

To perform the matching, I use the software R's MatchIt library (Ho, Imai, King and Stuart 2011). The binary KET variables are used for the assignment to the treatment group and the following variables, introduced in Section 3.2, are considered: *av\_app\_share, org\_age, size\_class, pubs\_org, NACE, struct\_mn, pop\_dens, log\_acad\_empl* and *schmoch*. The propensity score is estimated with a glm model. While direct matches are assigned for *schmoch, nace, class\_size, av\_app\_share,* and *struct* mn, the nearest neighbor matching algorithm is applied for the remaining four covariates (e.g., Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983; Caliendo and Kopeinig 2008; Ho et al. 2011; Abadie and Imbens 2016), meaning that for these variables the matching is conducted based on the smallest distance on the propensity scores between treated and untreated units (Ho et al. 2011). The distance basically represents the difference between the matched units (e.g.,Leusin 2022). To ensure a certain degree of similarity and to obtain a good matching quality, I prevent the matching of too distant pairs by defining a caliper of 0.1. The caliper limits the number of standard deviations of the distance between the units in the matched pairs (Caliendo and Kopeinig 2008). Appendix 3 reports the sample sizes after the PSM and Appendix 4 provides the balance comparison before and after the matching for the four individual KETs under investigation and for KETs at the aggregate level.

<span id="page-41-0"></span><sup>3</sup> *"The propensity score is the conditional probability of assignment to a particular treatment given a vector of observed covariates"* (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983, p. 41)



### Appendix 3: Sample sizes after propensity score matching (PSM)





### Appendix 4: Balance overview before and after propensity score matching (PSM)

#### *Tab. A4a: Matching results for KETs at the aggregate level, including balance improvements.*



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### *Tab. A4b: Matching results for photonics, including balance improvements.*





### *Tab. A4c: Matching results for advanced materials, including balance improvements.*



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### *Tab. A4d: Matching results for AMTs, including balance improvements.*





### *Tab. A4e: Matching results for industrial biotechnology, including balance improvements.*





### Appendix 5: F-test results before and after matching

At the aggregate KET level, the results of the F-Tests show statistically significant differences for two covariates before the matching, while the differences between the covariates are no longer statistically significant after the matching in most cases. As desired, this indicates that the matching process has successfully balanced the treatment and control groups. Also, at the level of the individual KETs, the F-tests indicate strong balance improvement, as hardly any significant results occur after the matching, while statistically significant differences existed in many cases before the matching. The only exception is industrial biotechnology, where the result of the F-test *org\_age* is statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level (p-value 0.014).



#### *Tab. A5: F-test results for variables matched via nearest neighbor matching*



Appendix 6: Decile-based analysis with alternative deciles

Here, KET patents are assigned to deciles based on their citation count and their matched control-patents are assigned to the same decile. Consequently, the mean citation count and the maximum citation count of KETs increases with each decile, as can be seen in Figures A5.1a through 5.2b.

In all cases, the analysis reveals a different behavior of KET patents and non-KETs patents. At the aggregate KET level (Figure A5.1a), the mean citation count of the non-KET control group stays relatively similar, except for the last decile. At the individual KET level, the variation stays within a rather small range for advanced materials and industrial biotech, while it is closer to the overall pattern for photonics and AMTs. With the exception of industrial biotechnology, in the last decile(s) the mean forward citation count slightly increases for non-KETs, but in no case does it even reach close to the mean citation count of KETs. On the other hand, KET patents from the lower deciles receive no citations, while their control groups receive citations throughout all deciles. Generally, these insights support this study's previous finding that *if* KETs have an impact, they have the potential to be more impactful than non-KETs. Furthermore, also these alternative results suggest that rather a handful of KET patents exerts a great impact on innovation. Moreover, the maximum forward citation count (Figures A5.2a and A5.2b) highlights that patents from the control groups tend to be cited more frequently when considering them in deciles based on KETs' forward citation frequencies. Only in the tenth decile KETs are more impactful in comparison. In summary, the alternative decile-based analysis suggests that KETs can have a stronger impact than non-KETs, but are not always more impactful. The results highlight that only being a KET is not sufficient to drive innovation in many cases. Further studies should explore the interactions of the KET status with regional and firm-level characteristics and their effect on the forward citation frequency of patents.



*Figure A6.1a: Mean logged forward citation count across KET-based deciles* 

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 $\,$  6  $\,$ 

Decile of KET citations

 $\overline{7}$ 

 $\,$  8

 $\overline{9}$ 

 $\sqrt{5}$ 

 $\overline{2}$ 

 $\overline{1}$ 

 $\mathbf{3}$ 

 $\overline{4}$ 

 $10$ 



 $\sqrt{5}$ 

Decile of KET citations

 $\,$  6  $\,$ 

 $\overline{3}$ 

 $\overline{4}$ 

 $\overline{2}$ 

 $\mathbf{1}$ 

 $\,$  8  $\,$ 

 $\overline{7}$ 

 $10$ 

 $\hbox{9}$ 



*Figure A6.1b: Mean logged forward citation count across KET-based deciles (individual KETs)* 

The influence of key enabling technologies on technological innovation





#### *Figure A6.2a: Maximum logged forward citation count across KET-based deciles (individual KETs)*



*Figure A6.2b: Maximum logged forward citation count across KET-based deciles for KETs (aggregate level)* 





Appendix 7: Descriptive statistics of datasets used in the negative binomial regressions

### **KETs (aggregate level)**

*Table A7.1a: Descriptive statistics of KETs (aggregate level) regression dataset, count variables* 



*Table A7.1b: Count of observations of factor levels, regression dataset for KETs (aggregate level).* 



*Table A7.1c: Frequency of observations in 2-digit NACE classes, KETs (aggregate level) regression dataset.* 





### **Advanced materials**

*Table A7.2a: Descriptive statistics of advanced materials regression dataset, count variables.* 

	obs.	mean	sd	median	min.	max
agg_cits7	871	1.452	3.006	1.000	0.000	48,000
log_popdens	871	8.507	0.846	8.808	4.617	9.312
log_acad_lmr_avg	871	11.125	0.860	10.912	8.226	12.413
log_av_app_share	871	$-0.021$	0.118	0.000	$-0.693$	0.000
log org age	871	4.215	1.034	4.905	1.099	5.024
log pubs org	871	3.458	2.084	2.451	0.000	6.582

*Table A7.2b: Count of observations of factor levels, regression dataset for advanced materials.* 



*Table A7.2c: Frequency of observations in 2-digit NACE classes, advanced materials regression dataset.* 





### **Advanced manufacturing technologies (AMTs)**

#### *Table A7.3a: Descriptive statistics of AMTs regression dataset, count variables.*



#### *Table A7.3b: Count of observations of factor levels, regression dataset for AMTs*



*.*

#### *Table A7.3c: Frequency of observations in 2-digit NACE classes, AMTs regression dataset.*





### **Industrial biotechnology**

*Table A7.4a: Descriptive statistics of industrial biotechnology regression dataset, count variables.* 



*Table A7.4b: Count of observations of factor levels, regression dataset for industrial biotechnology.* 



*Table A7.4c: Frequency of observations in 2-digit NACE classes, industrial biotechnology regression dataset.* 





#### **Photonics**

*Table A7.5a: Descriptive statistics of photonics regression dataset, count variables.* 

	obs.	mean	sd	median	min	max
agg cits7	2319	1.116	3.039	0.000	0.000	59,000
<b>log_popdens</b>	2319	8.136	0.860	8.500	3.970	9.312
log_acad_lmr_avg	2319	11.358	1.051	11.853	8.564	12.413
log_av_app_share	2319	$-0.073$	0.213	0.000	$-0.693$	0.000
log org age	2319	4.039	0.974	4.382	0.000	5.024
log_pubs_org	2319	2.851	2.157	2.451	0.000	6.709

*Table A7.5b: Count of observations of factor levels, regression dataset for photonics.*



*Table A7.5c: Frequency of observations in 2-digit NACE classes, photonics regression dataset.* 





Appendix 8: Technology codes of the International Patent Classification (IPC) which were assigned to the European Key Enabling Technologies (KETs).



#### *Tab A8: Full-digit IPC codes of KETs. (Source: van de Velde et al. 2012)*

(table continues on next page)







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