

Lecture # 14 – Evaluating Public R&D/Technology Transfer

I. Example: Prospective Analysis of Energy R&D

- The previous studies evaluate programs that already exist (retrospective analysis)
 - However, we also want to know about might happen in the future
 - That is, should we make an investment? What are the likely outcomes if we do?
 - This is prospective analysis.
 - The DOE framework provides an example.
- Background on Department of Energy (DOE) study
 - In 2000, Congress requested that the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) evaluate the benefits and costs of DOE's R&D programs for fossil fuel and energy efficiency
 - In 2001, NAS reported that, in the aggregate, benefits exceeded costs
 - However, the DOE portfolio included both successes and failures
 - Noted methodology used by DOE to assess programs varied
 - As a result, Congress gave funds to develop prospective benefits of DOE programs
 - Phase one, which is this report, began in 2003
 - Tasks were to review existing methodologies and propose a conceptual framework for prospective evaluation
 - Teams would use the framework to study the effectiveness of three technology programs:
 - Advanced lighting
 - Fuel cells
 - Carbon sequestration
 - Evaluation would lead to recommendations for Phase Two
- Note the consideration of resources and the needs of stakeholders
 - Committee was guided by three criteria:
 - Simplicity and flexibility
 - Methods needed to be rigorous, but practical so that they could be applied to a wide variety of programs
 - Transparency
 - Decision makers must be able to understand
 - Consistency
 - To facilitate comparisons across programs, definitions and assumptions should be the same
- Paper begins by reviewing methods for retrospective analysis
 - There, NAS created a benefits matrix, where there were three types of benefits:
 - Economic, environmental, and energy security

- Three possible realizations:
 - Options benefits and costs represent benefits that may be realized in the future if circumstances change (e.g. higher energy prices)
 - Knowledge benefits represent spillovers
- While this isn't a logic model, note that it is similar.
- To adapt to prospective analysis, must consider the role of uncertainty.
 - What is uncertain?
 - Technological outcome
 - Project could be complete, partially, or not at all successful
 - Market acceptance
 - Note that behavior matters
 - Consumers must be willing to use a new technology
 - The article raises the possibility that competing products may also improve
 - It misses that there is more here: consumers may not care about the targeted need
 - Resistance by special interests
 - Will those adversely affected lobby against the technology?
 - Will they be successful?
 - Future states of the world
 - Future energy prices or policies
 - Complementary and prerequisite technology
 - Is adoption dependent on other technologies also being available?
 - If so, are these technologies also being developed?
 - Should benefits be attributed to the DOE program, or will they come from other sources
 - Private investment or support from other governments and/or programs
 - Leads to a revised matrix
 - Columns changed because results not yet realized
 - Columns instead focus on three possible market scenarios
 - Reference case: based on EIA projections
 - Assumes a world oil price of \$24 in 2020, \$27 in 2025!
 - High oil and gas price
 - \$33.41 in 2012!
 - Carbon constrained prices
 - Assumes a 18% reduction in greenhouse gas intensity
 - These are presented as representative outcomes, but there is no attempt to assign probabilities to each
 - Knowledge benefits (e.g. spillover) not considered because they are not an intended goal of DOE programs
 - Note how benefits used relate to program goals

- Not meant to be comprehensive (p. 16)
 - Note that the revised matrix provides room for descriptive summaries, but numerical calculations will be done using the decision tree.
 - Also note that benefits may not occur in all scenarios
 - For example, carbon sequestration only useful if carbon emissions are regulated
- Decision tree analysis
 - Used to address multiple sources of uncertainty
 - Examples of uncertainty
 - Policy environment
 - Future prices
 - Success of research outcomes
 - Figure above includes three uncertainties
 - Does the government fund the technology?
 - Is the research successful?
 - Note that there could be success even without government funding
 - Is the product accepted in the market?
 - Each path represents a possible outcome
 - Need to establish a probability for each point of the path
 - No probability needed for the first node: does government fund, as that yes/no choice is what we are evaluating
 - Funding can change the probability of a successful outcome, however, as shown in figure 3-3.
 - Product of probabilities along each path is the probability that path occurs
 - Tables 3.2 & 3.3 provide an example of expected benefits
 - Expected value here is \$25,000
 - Note that very unlikely outcomes have little impact unless they are large. The table below adds a spectacular success:
 - Expected value here is \$25,500
 - Now, change spectacular outcome to \$2,000,000
 - Expected value now \$44,000
 - How to determine the probabilities
 - Only consider important features – can't include everything
 - NAS used expert panels to determine what was important and develop probabilities
 - NAS provided experts with guidelines for assessing probabilities
 - Each panel member asked to specify probabilities for key uncertainties in a questionnaire
 - Gives the respondent time to think
 - Can decline to answer if not sure
 - E.g. may a scientist might only address questions related to his or her discipline

- Thus, committee should include a range of disciplines
 - Follow up with a second meeting where the panel reviews individual assessments and discusses rationales for them
 - Allows for debate about differences
 - After discussion, committee is given opportunity to revise chosen probabilities
 - Must consider a range of goals
 - If only consider the DOE's highest goal, will underestimate benefits by ignoring intermediate outcomes
- For now, we'll take benefits as a given and demonstrate calculation of expected benefits.
 - We will then discuss estimating benefits in greater detail.
- This hypothetical example looks at advanced lighting technology.
 - There are three possible outcomes of lighting efficacy
 - 150 lumens per watt (lpw)
 - 100 lpw
 - No change
 - Note that DOE investment increases the likelihood of success by 10% for the best outcome, and increases the medium outcome by 20 percentage points
 - Thus, DOE investment doesn't guarantee success, but makes it more likely
 - Also, some success is possible even without DOE involvement
 - The example also considers whether other nations will come up with the technology
 - 150 lpw
 - Assume 0 probability of other nations coming up with 150 lpw without DOE investment
 - Increases to 5% if DOE invests
 - 100 lpw
 - 50% probability other nations will do with or without DOE investment
 - The products show the probability of the US and other nations developing a specific level of efficiency
 - E.g. with DOE investment: 0.005 probability that both come up with 150 lpw ($= 0.1 * 0.05$)
 - 0.05 probability US gets 150 lpw and other countries achieve 100 lpw ($= 0.1 * 0.5$)
 - Dollar values are assigned to the potential benefit of each outcome
 - The expected benefit is the probability times the benefit of that outcome
 - Difference between expected value with and without DOE investment is the net benefit of the R&D funding

- Calculating the benefits
 - Estimated benefits are needed for each path
 - Background
 - The NEMS modeled mentioned is a large computer model that simulates the US energy market
 - Benefits of energy efficiency
 - Reduces costs
 - May change energy usage
 - To calculate benefits, calculate reduction in quantity of input needed to produce same energy service and value at marginal cost
 - These inputs are now free to be used elsewhere
 - What if MC and price are not the same?
 - For example, if average cost pricing used for electricity?
 - Retail prices cannot be used to estimate MC
 - In that case, need data on costs of production
 - Total cost savings is now total cost of supplying electricity, not cost paid by consumer, as show in figure 3.5.
 - Top lines represent original and reduced MC as seen by user (e.g. the price they pay)
 - Lower solid and dashed lines are actual costs of energy service
 - The key here is that the MC to the consumer is greater than the MC of producing and distributing energy
 - Area B is larger because add both additional CS and PS from using more electricity and producer surplus
 - Compare to figure 3.4, where there is only additional CS, because $P = MC$
- Benefits of new energy resources
 - Increase the amount available at a given cost
 - Calculate value by valuing additional supply as difference between marginal benefit and marginal cost
 - Figure assumes there is a resource constraint, so that initial output is not where $MB = MC$
 - Remainder is imported. For example:
 - MC of production in US = \$25
 - Price of imports = \$40
 - Increasing production by 100,000 barrels per day leads to 36.5 million barrels per year, with a value of \$15 each, for a total benefit of \$547 billion
 - Assuming no change in world price
 - If prices change, need a general equilibrium model
- Note that there may also be benefits that are not monetized, such as environmental benefits or energy security benefits
 - Security benefits difficult to calculate and likely low (p. 16)

II. Technology Transfer: Theory

- Types of technology transfer:
 - Cooperative research and development
 - Licensing or sale of intellectual property
 - Either across firms or to a startup spin-off firm
 - Technical assistance
 - Public exchange of information
 - E.g. conferences, publications, networking
- What is technology transfer?
 - Bozeman notes that there is no standard definition
 - He offers the following: "the movement of know-how, technical knowledge, or technology from one organizational setting to another."
 - Note that technology transfer is more than just the diffusion of a final product.
 - It is about flows of knowledge and ideas as well.
 - The technology itself may be clearly defined, or it may evolve over time
- Three competing paradigms for government support
 - Market failure
 - The government intervenes to correct market failures.
 - Examples used by Bozeman include externalities, high transactions costs, and imperfect information.
 - However, as we discussed in class, transactions costs need not be a market failure. Transactions costs are legitimate costs paid by individuals.
 - However, the government can still take advantage of opportunities to lower transactions costs.
 - Evolution of universities as the source of basic research after WWII follows from this.
 - Examples of policies:
 - Intellectual property rights
 - R&D subsidies
 - R&D tax credits
 - Mission technology paradigm
 - Government should perform R&D in service of well-specified missions for the national interest that aren't well-served by private R&D.
 - Has been used to justify agricultural research for a long time.
 - More prominent after WWII, in areas such as defense, energy, and health.
 - In some ways, this is related to market failure, as that may be why private R&D doesn't serve the need.
 - Other times, private R&D won't serve the need because there is no market -- it is the government who is purchasing the good.
 - Cooperative technology paradigm
 - Government plays an active role in technology transfer

- Has received more attention recently.
- Evaluating government labs: how do we identify successful technology transfer?
 - Note that different actors may have different goals.
 - “Out the door”: has another organization received the technology provided by the first.
 - Commonly used in practice, although not a very useful evaluation measure.
 - Easy to quantify.
 - Evaluation criteria are under laboratories control.
 - Assumes that the role of the lab or university is to create technology, but that it is industry’s job to make it work.
 - Also, doesn't ask whether the technology transferred was beneficial.
 - Market Impact/Economic Development
 - Has the product had an impact on the firm and/or on the economy?
 - Little direct evidence of successes here.
 - May be difficult to identify, as we want to know the *marginal* effect of government involvement:
 - If a project is successful, we need to ask if it would have been successful *without* government involvement.
 - Similarly, if a project fails, is it because of bad technology transfer, or because the project was a bad idea?
 - Example: patent citations from government labs
 - Jaffe, Banks, and Fogerty (1998) look at patent citations received by NASA patents.
 - NASA patents are more general (that is, cited by patents in more patent classes) and more important (that is, cited more often) than other patents.
 - Other federal labs are also general, but are cited less often than non-government patents.
 - They also did case work at one lab to find out how knowledge flows from NASA labs.
 - Of patents examined only 4 of 26 (15%) involved known contact, but over half appear to be legitimate spillovers.
 - Thus, most spillovers appear to come from indirect means, such as reading papers or patent documents.
 - Political reward
 - Labs often view technology transfer as a way to win political support.
 - Can ask if agency benefited politically.
 - Bozeman notes this may be realistic, but doesn't provide systematic evaluation.
 - Opportunity cost
 - What are the other impacts of the mission of the transfer agent?

- Taking on new missions reduces capabilities to work on old projects.
 - Example: universities' concerns over more private funding.
- Scientific and Technical Human Capital
 - Does technology transfer lead to enhanced skills at the recipient company?