

The commercialization of DoD-SBIR patents: A counterfactual analysis

Carlo Bottai^a, Gaétan de Rassenfosse^b, and Emilio Raiter^{a,1}

^aEindhoven University of Technology, School of Innovation Sciences, P.O. Box 513, 5600 MB, Eindhoven, The Netherlands; ^bÉcole polytechnique fédérale de Lausanne, College of Management of Technology, ODY 201.1, Station 5, 1015, Lausanne, Switzerland

This manuscript was compiled on July 15, 2022

The paper proposes a novel, web-based approach to innovation policy evaluation. The approach overcomes several limitations affecting established evaluation methods used in the literature. We implement it to study the impact of the U.S. DoD-SBIR program on technology commercialization. We start by identifying the universe of USPTO patents that acknowledge support by the SBIR program. We then track whether these patents are mentioned in relation to commercial products in a virtual patent marking page available on the recipient's website. We interpret the latter event as signal of commercialization. Finally, we create a group of control patents and we compare the commercialization probability of SBIR-funded and control inventions. The results support the view that the SBIR program is quite effective at stimulating the commercialization of federally-funded scientific discoveries.

Commercialization | Government-funded Research | Patents | Policy Evaluation | Web-based Evidence

Scholars have long acknowledged the importance of public procurement, notably defense procurement, for scientific and technological progress (1, 2). In a recent paper, Moretti and colleagues suggest that U.S. defense procurement represents the most important industrial policy to affect the speed and direction of innovation (3). Numerous works highlight the role of defense procurement in developing products that have become major commercial successes. Ruttan describes how the purchasing power of the U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) was instrumental for the arrival of the commercial Internet and the GPS technology (4). Mazzucato stresses that popular consumer products, such as the iPhone or the iPad, and services, such as Siri, benefited from public intervention. She also provides anecdotal evidence of a close link between the Apollo program and products widely adopted today, from the shock-absorbing sneaker soles to medical devices such as pacemakers and defibrillators (5, 6). Mazzucato gives particular praise to the U.S. Small Business Innovation Research (SBIR) program for guiding the commercialization of hundreds of new technologies from the laboratory to the market (5).

The Small Business Innovation Research (SBIR) and Small Business Technology Transfer (STTR) programs are two related public funding programs. They seek to encourage U.S. small businesses to engage in federal R&D projects with commercialization potential. The SBIR program was introduced by the Small Business Innovation Development Act of 1982, whose objectives include the increase of private sector commercialization of innovations derived from federal R&D.* The

STTR came a decade later, in 1992. The U.S. Small Business Administration (SBA) coordinates the programs, that involve eleven participating agencies. In fiscal year 2019, federal agencies obligated about \$3.8 billion of SBIR/STTR funding. The SBIR/STTR programs have two main phases. Phase I funds initial research to establish the technical merit, feasibility, and commercial potential of an R&D project. Successful Phase I participants may proceed to Phase II, in which they receive larger funding to pursue the research started in Phase I. Phase I awards generally amount to \$50-150,000 for six months or one year. Phase II awards may reach \$1 million and last for two years. The two programs, SBIR and STTR, are similar enough to be considered as a joint funding scheme for the purpose of this paper. As such, we will use term 'SBIR' to intend both.

The program is considered to be largely successful, and it is broadly emulated and extensively studied all over the world (7-10). Policymakers and scholars alike have devoted special attention to the impact of the SBIR program, in terms of bringing the fruits of federally-funded research to the final consumer. This issue is particularly relevant for defense-related R&D, which accounts for the vast majority of R&D procurement in the United States,[†] and for about half the overall budget of the SBIR/STTR program (on average in 1990-2012, computed from the balance sheets provided on the program's

[†]In FY 2017 DoD contract obligations amount to \$320 billion, equal to 63% of federal contract obligations and 8% of all federal spending. Of these contracts, 8% were for R&D contracts, in line with the average federal spending (11).

Significance Statement

Governments invest massively in research and development activities through various support programs. Assessing the 'real impact' of such programs is challenging notably due to the difficulty of tracing the commercialization of publicly-funded inventions. We propose a novel method to address this challenge that involves searching for online traces of commercialization on companies' websites. We apply the method to (patented) inventions funded by the U.S. SBIR program, which seeks to push inventions from the lab to the market. We find that SBIR-funded inventions are 17 percent more likely to be commercialized than a control group of similar, but privately-funded, inventions. Researchers can use the method to assess other such programs or commercialization outcomes.

Conceptualization (CB, GdR, ER); Data curation (CB, ER); Formal analysis (CB, GdR, ER); Funding acquisition (CB, ER); Project administration (ER); Software (CB); Supervision (GdR, ER); Visualization (CB); Writing (CB, GdR, ER).

The authors declare no competing interest.

¹ To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: e.raiter@epfl.ch

*The explicit goals of the program are to (i) stimulate technological innovation, (ii) use small business to meet federal research and development needs, (iii) foster and encourage participation in innovation and entrepreneurship by women and socially or economically disadvantaged persons, and (iv) increase private-sector commercialization of innovations derived from federal research and development funding. For further details about the program, see the Small Business Act (15 U.S.C. § 638), as well as <https://www.sbir.gov/about>.

website). A few academic studies provide evidence of a positive effect of the SBIR program at DoD on the commercialization of new technologies, as proxied by sales and patent applications [LIST STUDIES]. Since 2000, the National Academies have undertaken a quadrennial assessment of each agency's SBIR/STTR program, often using case studies and survey data. The DoD reports assert the program's positive effect on commercialization. According to these assessments, close to half of Phase II projects are associated with sales from products developed with SBIR funds (8, 12, 13).

Nevertheless, a number of studies also highlight the limitations of the program evaluations conducted so far. A Government Accountability Office report stresses that military departments mostly collect commercialization information about selected success stories and that their evaluation systems are not designed to capture detailed information about projects that did not transition to commercialization (14). A recent study by the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine highlights two fundamental issues affecting evaluations conducted thus far (10). First, program evaluation should go beyond observing program recipients improving their records over time. It requires assessing recipients' progress in light of what would have happened in the absence of the program; in short, compared to a credible counterfactual situation. Most of the academic and government-mandated assessments of the SBIR programs have largely neglected this aspect. Second, and equally important for the present paper, extant evaluations do not capture product market introductions. The DoD considers SBIR-funded projects as having a successful transition to commercialization if supported firms report any positive revenues from a product or service developed in the performance of the project. Yet, these revenues might well originate from non-SBIR contracts awarded by the DoD itself. According to (8, p.61) "nearly 60 percent of Phase II projects with sales reported sales to DoD or DoD primes." Thus, although these projects have successfully transitioned to commercialization, their broader impact on private sector innovation remains unclear.

Overcoming these issues requires the development of new methods and metrics of commercialization. We propose a novel, web-based approach to evaluate the impact of the SBIR program on commercialization. Specifically, we first link SBIR contracts to patented inventions arising from these contracts, and then connect these patents to the products and services they protect. We can then compare the commercialization rate of SBIR-related patents to a comparable set of patents that did not receive SBIR funding—that is, the counterfactual outcome. The identification of the patent-product connection builds on the work of de Rassenfosse (15). We search for the presence of specific web pages or product information brochures that clearly signal a patent-product link on the SBIR recipient's website. The next section and the Appendix illustrate our approach in detail, but one of its key features is the focus on actual patented inventions. This allows us to exploit the universe of patented inventions generated by SBIR contracts awarded by the DoD, and not exclusively to inventions owned by companies that agreed to respond to a survey or reached more advanced stages of product development.[‡]

We find that SBIR-funded patents are 17 percent more likely to be commercialized compared to control patents. This

effect is particularly pronounced for applied and development R&D contracts as well as for Phase II contracts. We also find that SBIR awards signed after the year 2000's 'Phase II Plus' policy were more likely to be commercialized, suggesting that the reform has served its purpose. Finally, an analysis focusing on green inventions does not provide conclusive evidence that public support helped—or hindered—commercialization.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The next section, and the appendix, explain the details of the approach and illustrate the key features of the database. The section following presents the results and the last section concludes.

Data and methods

Our evaluation of the SBIR program entails three steps. First, we link patented inventions generated by DoD-SBIR contracts to actual commercial products and services using a novel web-based approach. This first step produces a unique database composed of three main elements: SBIR awards data, patent data, and web pages. Second, we identify a set of suitable patented inventions that form a control group to contrast the impact of SBIR funding. We similarly search for online traces of commercialization for these patents. Third, we perform regression analyses to assess the differences in the probability of commercialization between SBIR-funded and control inventions.

Constructing the database. To construct the database, we first identify patented inventions developed with the support of DoD-SBIR contracts. We exploit the Bayh-Dole Act of 1980 and the U.S. Federal Acquisition Regulation (FAR) as in (16). Under the Bayh-Dole Act, private entities must acknowledge federal funding and rights to an invention in the written specification of the invention for all U.S. patent applications. Furthermore, the FAR requires the applicant to disclose in the patent application the specific governmental agency and the contract number connected with the invention. These requirements allow us to identify the patented inventions produced under a government contract and the related contract information. To connect patents to specific awards, we extract the contract identification number from the patent documents and link them to federal databases providing detailed contract information.[§] Contract-level information allows us to identify patents specifically associated with contracts awarded by the DoD in the context of the SBIR program.

Next, we link patents to commercialized products. To do so, we adopt a web-based approach inspired by (15) and search for the existence of virtual patent marking (VPM) pages on the websites of the owner of the SBIR-related patents. VPM pages list a company's commercial products that are patent-protected. Companies set up VPM pages to provide public notice that a product is patented, allowing them to claim higher damages in case of infringement as per the marking statute in U.S. patent law (35 U.S.C. § 287(a)). Since we are not specifically interested in VPM pages but, more broadly, in any indication of patent protection of commercial products, we look beyond VPM and search for any web page identifying a

[§]A detailed explanation of the procedure adopted to extract the contract identifiers—the Procurement Instrument Identifiers (PIID)—is reported in the appendix. Data about the *government interest statement* of a patent is from PatentsView (17). Data about the awards comes from the Defense Contract Action Data System (DCADS), for the years 1984–2001, and from USAspending.gov, for the years 2001–2018.

[‡]Explain that this is the sampling methodologies for most DoD evaluations.

168 clear link between a patent and a product as a sign of invention
169 commercialization. For instance, besides ‘traditional’ VPM
170 pages, product brochures are a valuable source of information
171 for our purpose. Even though product brochures may not
172 strictly comply with 35 U.S.C. § 287(a), these documents
173 often highlight the existence of one or more patents covering
174 the product advertised.

175 Concretely, we start by identifying the potential website(s)
176 of each patent assignee in the sample. We search for the as-
177 signee legal name on Google.com, Bloomberg.com, and the
178 SBIR program’s website and extract domain names from the
179 results of each search. We then search for the patent iden-
180 tification number of the SBIR-related patents in each of the
181 identified websites. This process leads to multiple web pages,
182 from the assignee’s website, containing a string of characters
183 that matches one of the patent numbers of interest. At this
184 stage, the string of characters may correspond, say, to a phone
185 number or a patent. If it is a patent, it may not link to a
186 product (e.g., patent numbers reported in SEC forms). To
187 ensure the goodness of the patent-product link, each page has
188 been classified as a *true* or *false positive* either by an automatic
189 classifier developed ad hoc, or via human inspection.[¶]

190 The approach described so far connects a SBIR contract to
191 a potential VPM-like page. To capture the commercialization
192 potential of a patented invention in a more comprehensive man-
193 ner, we consider two paths leading to a product, as illustrated
194 by Fig. 1. A *direct path* occurs when a patent acknowledging
195 SBIR support protects a product as identified on a VPM-like
196 page belonging to the patent assignee. The top part of Fig. 1
197 illustrates this case with an autonomous home floor mop-
198 per. The company commercializing the product lists the patents
199 protecting it on its VPM page. One of these patented inven-
200 tions was first developed in the performance of a SBIR contract
201 awarded by the Army Aviation and Missile Command.

202 An *indirect path* occurs when the SBIR-funded patent is
203 cited by a subsequent patented invention connected to a com-
204 mercialized product through a VPM-like page. Given the
205 technical function of patent citations as signals of existing
206 prior knowledge relevant for the new invention (18), we also
207 consider this second case as providing evidence of a link be-
208 tween SBIR funding and the introduction of a final product
209 on the market. The bottom part of Fig. 1 reports the example
210 of a set of noise-canceling headphones. One of the key patents
211 protecting the noise-canceling technology embedded in these
212 headphones lists as relevant prior-art a patented invention
213 realized with the support of an Army SBIR contract awarded
214 in 1993.

215 **Descriptive statistics.** Following the approach described above,
216 we first identify the universe of DoD-SBIR-funded patents
217 and then establish if they are directly or indirectly connected
218 to one or more products. The final dataset consists of 2,896
219 granted patent, assigned to 1,062 distinct companies, and with
220 priority years ranging from 1977 to 2019.^{||} We now turn to
221 presenting some descriptive statistics about patents in the
222 sample.

223 The patents acknowledge 2,092 different procurement con-
224 tracts, with 15 percent of the patents reporting the support of
225 multiple awards. About eight percent of the patents are linked
226 to a VPM-like page through a *direct path*, and 17.2 percent
227 through an *indirect path*. Considering the two paths together,
228 21.5 percent of the patents connect to a VPM-like page.

229 We augment the base data with contract level informa-
230 tion from the Federal Procurement Database System (FPDS).
231 Unsurprisingly, all SBIR contracts connected to the patent
232 in our sample are awarded to perform R&D activity. FPDS
233 data allow us to distinguish between three different stages
234 of R&D efforts, from more fundamental research to develop-
235 mental activities that are supposed to be closer to technology
236 commercialization. Among our patents, 1,036 acknowledge
237 at least one *basic research* contract; 932 an *applied research*
238 contract; and 568 a *development* contract.

239 A key characteristic of a SBIR contract is whether it is
240 awarded for a Phase I or a Phase II project. Of the patents
241 in our sample, 1,486 (51.3%) acknowledge at least one Phase
242 I contract, and 595 patents acknowledge exclusively Phase
243 I contracts. A total of 1,723 patents (59.5%) acknowledge
244 instead one or more Phase II contracts. For patents linked
245 to Phase I contracts only, we also determine if the project
246 never reached Phase II or if a Phase II contract exists but
247 the patent simply did not mention it (see the appendix for
248 further explanation). Accounting for Phase I contracts later
249 extended to a Phase II contract not acknowledged in the patent
250 document, we find that 2,374 patents (82.0%) are connected
251 to Phase II funding.

252 Fig. 2a illustrates that most patents acknowledging support
253 from the DoD SBIR program concern recent years, with the
254 median patent being applied to the USPTO in 2007. In partic-
255 ular, the chart shows a significant increase in patenting activity
256 by DoD-SBIR recipients from 1997 onwards. This pattern
257 partly reflects the growth in overall patenting activity, already
258 noted in scholarly work (19). The temporal distribution of
259 the DoD-SBIR-funded patents also reflects the fact that the
260 law was implemented in 1980, such that we can expect a lower
261 compliance rate in the earlier years of the time window.**
262 The commercialization of DoD-SBIR-funded technologies, ei-
263 ther *directly* or *indirectly*, appears particularly strong in the
264 central period of the time-window. In the years 1994–2002,
265 about 35–40 percent of funded patents are linked to a product.
266 This percentage is about 25 percent in the preceding period
267 (1986–1993) and in the subsequent one (2003–2011). This
268 temporal trend is not surprising, at least concerning earlier
269 years. Besides lower compliance rate, the Web searches will
270 miss older pages as they are being removed from the Web.
271 Hence, we should interpret these figures cautiously. However,
272 it is worth noting that the counterfactual analysis will compare
273 the commercialization of patents from the same age cohorts.

274 As Fig. 2b illustrates, the DoD-SBIR-funded patents are
275 concentrated in a few technological fields, reflecting the DoD’s
276 R&D needs. A total of 22.6 percent of the patents relate
277 to electrical and electronic technologies; 21.2 percent to the
278 domain of computers and communications; 18.3 percent to
279 chemical; and 17.8 percent to mechanical fields. The propor-
280 tion of commercialized patents is surprisingly similar across the
281 technological categories (from 17.8 percent to 24.8 percent),

¶ The classification process is described in more detail in the appendix. The automatic classifier identifies pages that unequivocally link patents and products, such as well-structured VPM pages and product brochures. We manually assess the web pages whose classification is automatically marked as uncertain.

|| The data are available at ...

** This hypothesis is strengthened by the fact that the reporting of the PIID was made mandatory only later, through the FAR.

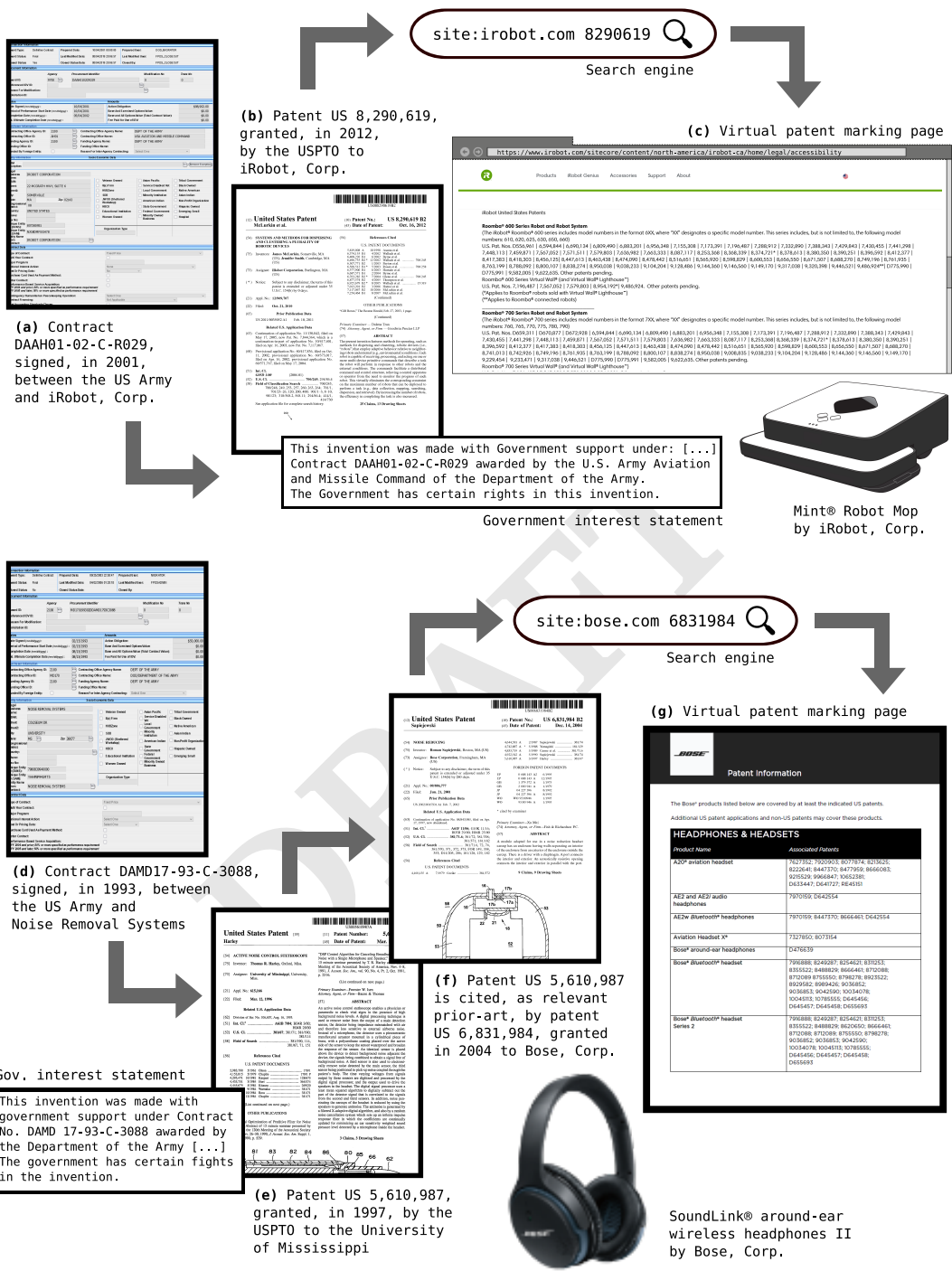


Fig. 1. Two illustrative examples of paths covered by the paper. On top, a *direct path* where, in 2001, the US Army signed the contract No. DAAH01-02-C-R029 with iRobot, Corp. (a). The company applied for a patent, granted in 2012 as US 8,290,619 (b), acknowledging the government's support for this invention. As declared by iRobot on its website (c), this same patent is protecting the company's Mint® Robot Mop, Mint Plus® Robot Mop, and Braava® Robot Mop products. The bottom figure illustrates an *indirect path*. In this case, the contract DAMD17-93-C-3088, signed between the US Army and Noise Removal Systems in 1993 (d), is acknowledged in patent US 5,610,987, granted by the USPTO in 1997 (e). This patent is cited, as relevant prior-art, by patent US 6,831,984, removed to Bose, Corp. in 2004 (f). Bose informs us, through its website (g), that this last patent is protecting products like its SoundLink® around-ear wireless headphones II and A20® aviation headset.

282 suggesting little technology-specific effects.

283 Lastly, turning to the spatial distribution, Fig. 2c illustrates
284 that SBIR-funded patents are unevenly concentrated in a few
285 metropolitan areas (MSA) around the United States. This
286 observation is consistent with the geography of innovation
287 literature (e.g., 20). Fig. 2d depicts the commercialization rate
288 of SBIR-funded patents. Looking at the two maps combined
289 suggest no correlation between the capacity of an MSA to
290 attract public funding and its ability to commercialize the
291 technology (Pearson’s correlation coefficient of -0.01).

292 **Econometric approach.** As mentioned above, the second step in
293 the evaluation of the DoD-SBIR program involves constructing
294 a control set of patents with similar characteristics to the SBIR-
295 funded patents in the sample. For each treated patent, we
296 select up to three controls from a pool of patents assigned to
297 a private company classified as small business by the USPTO
298 and applied between 1984 and 2018.^{††} Each of the selected
299 control patents shares the main USPC technological class
300 and the priority year of its respective treated patent. Our
301 final control set consists of 4,622 granted patents, assigned to
302 3,895 distinct companies. By design, they have priority years
303 distributed within the same time frame as the SBIR-funded
304 ones. Of these control patents, 6.0 percent are *directly* linked
305 to a VPM-like page, while 15.1 percent of them are linked to
306 one of these web documents only *indirectly*. All in all, 18.5
307 percent of the control patents are linked to a VPM-like page,
308 either directly or indirectly.

309 The third step involves comparing the commercialization
310 performance of the treated and control patents using standard
311 regression analyses. More specifically, we estimate the following
312 linear probability model:

$$313 \quad \Pi_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{SBIR}_i + \mathbf{X}_i \cdot \beta + \gamma_i + \delta_i + \varepsilon_i. \quad [1]$$

314 Π_i is the main outcome variable. It takes the value 1 if patent
315 i is linked to a product through a VPM-like page, and 0
316 otherwise. We construct three different versions of Π_i , based
317 on the commercialization path: direct, indirect, or any of
318 the two. The variable SBIR_i is the variable of interest. It
319 takes the value 1 if patent i acknowledges funding from the
320 DoD SBIR program, and 0 otherwise. The vector \mathbf{X}_i includes
321 patent-level control variables that might correlate with the
322 commercialization outcome. In particular, following the extant
323 patent literature, we control for (the log of): the number of
324 independent claims in the patent (`claims`); the number of
325 citations made to other patents (`bwd_cit`) and to the non-
326 patent literature (`np1_cit`); the number of citations received
327 by patent i in the first three years after its application date
328 (`fwd_cit`); and the geographical family size of patent i , i.e.,
329 the number of countries in which patent protection is sought
330 (`geo_fam`). Lastly, the model includes the year of first priority,
331 γ_i , and USPC patent class, δ_i , fixed effects, to control for time-
332 and technology-dependent factors.

333 Fig. 3c reports descriptive statistics for control variables.
334 On average, control and treated patents appear to have fairly
335 similar values.

^{††}The data providing the information about the type of entity comes from the USPTO’s Patent Examination Research Dataset (PatEx) database (21); see also <https://www.uspto.gov/ip-policy/economic-research/research-datasets/patent-examination-research-dataset-public-pair>. The assignee is classified as a small business based on the type of maintenance fee paid. Small enterprises pay a reduced fee. Patents assigned to an assignee whose name recur also between the SBIR-funded patents, or within the list of SBIR recipients, have been excluded.

336 In addition to the baseline regression described above, we ex-
337 ploit the contract-level information to analyze whether specific
338 characteristics of a SBIR contract disproportionately affect
339 the probability of commercialization of the inventions arising
340 from that contract. In particular, we focus on the stage of the
341 R&D work procured by DoD (basic, applied, or developmental
342 research stage) and on the phase of the contract (Phase I or
343 Phase II). Finally, for some robustness analysis, we also collect
344 additional information about the commercialization timing, by
345 proxying the commercialization year of a final product as the
346 earliest creation date of each VPM-like page. This information
347 will offer insights on the time-lag that it takes for an invention
348 to reach the consumer market.

349 Results

350 The top part of Fig. 3a depicts the results of the baseline
351 regression model for the three outcome variables, focusing of
352 the coefficient β_1 . As regression results (1a)–(1c) show, an
353 invention introduced with the support of a DoD-SBIR contract
354 has a higher likelihood of commercialization than a control
355 invention. The effect appears to be sizable: SBIR support
356 increases the probability of a commercial product introduction
357 by about 17 percent (any path). We find a similar effect if
358 we consider only *direct* (1b) or only *indirect paths* (1c). As
359 discussed in section [Data and methods](#), we observe an *indirect*
360 *path* when a patented invention connected to a product cites
361 one of the focal patents as relevant prior art. One might argue
362 that a positive effect of SBIR support on *indirect paths* provides
363 only weak evidence of a decisive impact of public support on
364 commercialization. However, a more careful look at the data
365 suggests a different interpretation. We find that for about 40
366 percent of the patents that are linked to a product indirectly,
367 the connecting citation is a self-citation, i.e., it comes from a
368 patent applied for by the same assignee as the focal patent.
369 Accordingly, we run the baseline model on two distinct sets of
370 focal patents: patents that did receive at least one self-citation
371 from a subsequent patent and patents that did not receive
372 any self-citation. Interestingly, the effect of SBIR support
373 on commercialization disappears—and even turns negative—
374 when we consider patents with no ensuing self-citations. By
375 contrast, the results are in line with baseline model (1c) when
376 we consider exclusively patents with self-citations, with a 3.1
377 percentage points higher probability of commercialization for
378 SBIR supported patents ([see the appendix for an in-depth](#)
379 [description of this analysis](#)). This finding suggests that the
380 long-term, indirect effect on commercialization is achieved only
381 if the company that received SBIR support is actively involved
382 with further technological developments and, hence, only if
383 the *indirect path* is closely connected to the SBIR funding.
384 This finding is consistent with an ‘input additionality’ effect
385 of the SBIR program.

386 All in all, the results so far confirm a strong and positive
387 effect of SBIR funding on commercialization outcomes. To
388 better understand the nature of this effect, we evaluate the
389 importance of specific contract characteristics. We start by
390 considering the stage of the R&D work for which a contract
391 is awarded. To do so, we split the sample of treated patents
392 in three groups, basic, applied, or developmental R&D, based
393 on the features of the contract connected to each invention.
394 We then couple each of the patents in these groups with
395 its respective control patents and run the baseline model

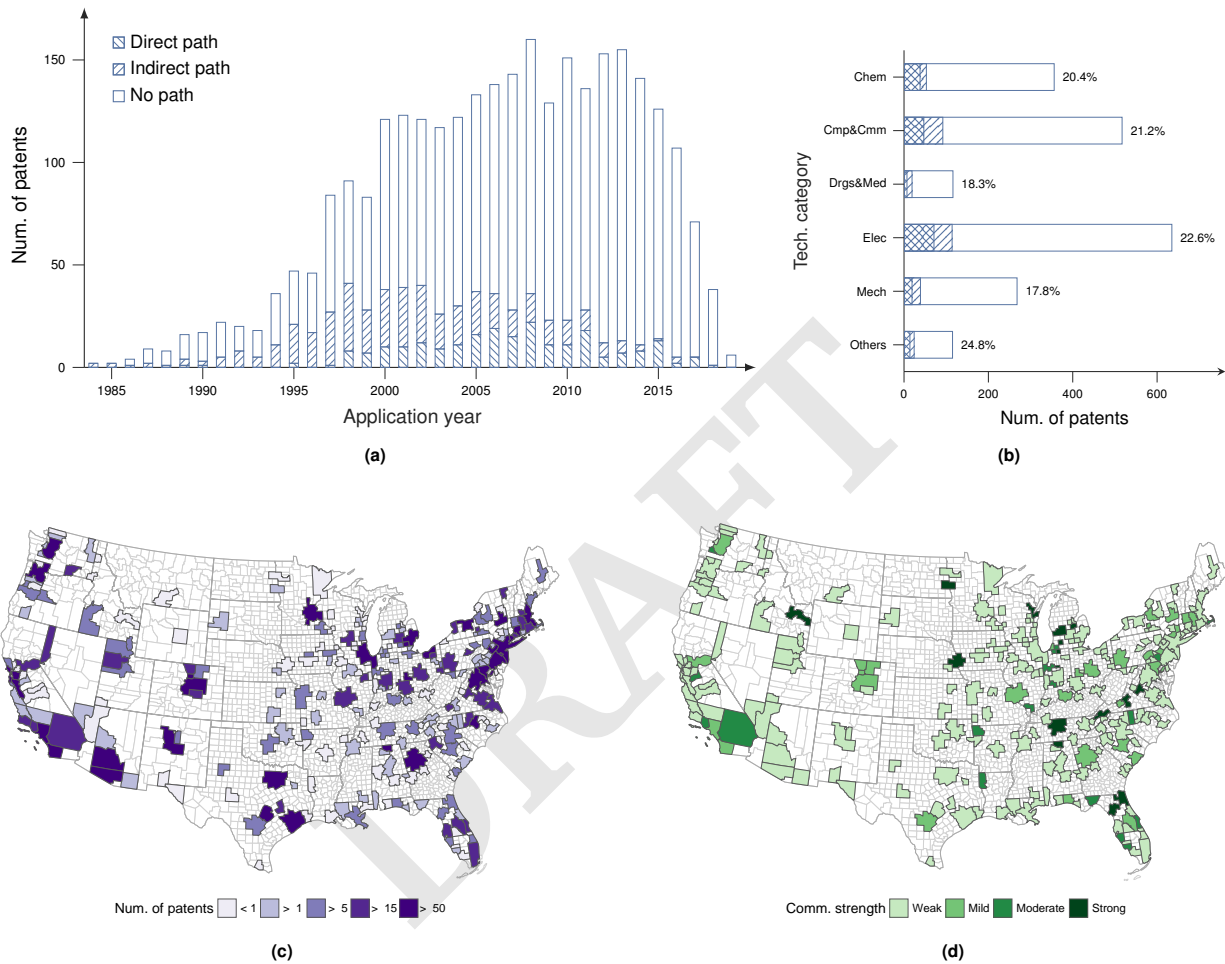


Fig. 2. Descriptive statistics (colored figure online). (a) Distribution of SBIR-funded patents by patent's application year. The figure distinguishes between patents for which we did not find any commercialization trace, those directly protecting a product, and those cited by a product-protecting patent. Notice that a patent both directly and indirectly linked to a VPM-like page is counted among the direct paths. A similar figure, for the control patents, can be found in the appendix. (b) Distribution of SBIR-funded patents by patent's NBER technological category (Chemical; Computers & Communications; Drugs & Medical; Electrical & Electronic; Mechanical; Others, respectively). The percentage reported represents the fraction of product-protecting patents over the total number of SBIR-funded patents in each technological category. (c) Spatial distribution of SBIR-funded patents by U.S. Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA). (d) Spatial distribution of the *commercialization capacity* index (CCI) by MSA. The CCI measures the ability of each metropolitan area to commercialize SBIR-funded science and is defined as $CCI = (CP_c / FP_c) / (\sum_c CP_c / \sum_c FP_c)$; where CP = number of patents linked to a product and FP = number of patents funded by the SBIR program. In the maps, only the conterminous United States is reported; non-metropolitan counties are colored white; and for each patent, a fraction of it has been assigned to a given MSA proportionally to the share of its inventors resident in such metropolitan area. Note that less than 1.5% of the patents included in our data do not belong to any MSA.

396 on each sample separately. Fig. 3a reports the summary
397 results of these regressions for the three outcome variables.
398 Focusing our attention on patents connected to *basic R&D*
399 contracts, the effect of the SBIR support on direct or indirect
400 commercialization outcomes is never significantly different
401 from zero (models (2a)–(2c)). Receiving an *applied R&D*
402 contract increases the commercialization likelihood (3a), but
403 model (3c) suggests that this effect is driven primarily by
404 *indirect paths*. SBIR-supported inventions have a 4.9 percent
405 higher likelihood to be indirectly connected to a product,
406 whereas the effect on *direct paths* only is not statistically
407 significantly different from zero, see model (3b). Looking
408 at patents connected to *development R&D* contracts, our
409 data show a strong positive effect for both *direct* and *indirect*
410 *paths* to commercial products (models (4a)–(4c)). Overall, the
411 results of this split sample analysis suggest that the impact
412 of SBIR funding increases with the R&D stages. The more
413 applied the stage of the R&D activity that led to patenting, the
414 higher the impact of public support on the commercialization
415 likelihood of a specific invention.

416 Another key characteristic of SBIR contracts is whether
417 they relate to a Phase I or a Phase II project. As discussed
418 above, only successful and promising Phase I projects have the
419 opportunity to receive Phase II funding. It allows the recipient
420 to further develop the ideas and technologies generated during
421 the initial phase. Therefore, by design, Phase II projects
422 are closer to commercialization. In addition, the bulk of the
423 funding that successful applicants receive arrives in Phase II,
424 where the award size is an order of magnitude larger than in
425 Phase I. If the SBIR program was indeed effective at spurring
426 commercialization, we should expect it to be especially true
427 for Phase II projects. The results of models (5a)–(5c) and (6a)–
428 (6c) in Fig. 3a contrast the impact of the two phases. Focusing
429 on Phase I projects that never reached Phase II, the difference
430 between the treated and the control group is never statistically
431 different from zero. By contrast, the impact is perfectly in line
432 with the baseline models once we consider only the patents
433 linked to projects that obtained Phase II funding. These
434 results seem to confirm the effectiveness of the SBIR program.
435 Phase I projects are awarded to assess both the capacity of
436 an SME to perform R&D and the quality of an innovative
437 idea; therefore, the likelihood for an invention generated by
438 a Phase I project to reach the commercialization stage is not
439 particularly higher than for a comparable but privately-funded
440 invention. However, through this preliminary stage, it seems
441 that DoD agencies acquire enough information to provide
442 adequate support to inventions with higher commercialization
443 potential than non-SBIR comparable inventions. **These results
444 are in line with others reported in the appendix.** Compare
445 patents acknowledging at least a Phase I contract with these
446 acknowledging at least a Phase II contract, the former group
447 exhibits weaker commercialization potential than the latter.

448 To shed more light on the mechanism behind the results, we
449 exploit a policy change in the design of SBIR that put greater
450 focus on commercialization. With the Small Business Reautho-
451 rization Act of 2000 (§110), the U.S. Congress demanded the
452 Small Business Administration “to provide for the requirement
453 of a succinct commercialization plan with each application for
454 a Phase II award that is moving toward commercialization”
455 (22). Specifically for the DoD, the Act also introduced the
456 Phase II Enhancement policy—also known as Phase II Plus—

457 to further encourage the transition of SBIR research into DoD
458 acquisition programs as well as the private sector (13). Under
459 this policy, a Phase II recipient can receive additional SBIR
460 funds matching private or public financing the company ob-
461 tains from non-SBIR sources. Both these changes affected
462 the implementation of Phase II, but not Phase I, projects
463 and provided additional emphasis on the commercialization
464 goals of the program. Interestingly, these adjustments had
465 limited impact on the technical merit or the scientific focus of
466 the projects selected for Phase II. We exploit the latter fact
467 to provide tentative evidence on whether the positive impact
468 of the program on commercialization outcomes stems from a
469 pure selection effect, i.e., DoD agencies simply selecting the
470 projects with the highest commercialization potential, or from
471 the support and the explicit push towards commercialization
472 offered by the program.

473 We adopt a difference-in-differences (DiD) estimator and
474 focus on SBIR-funded patents awarded in the years immedi-
475 ately before and after this policy change (1996–2005). More
476 specifically, we assess whether Phase II-related patents con-
477 nected to SBIR awards signed after the year 2000 have a higher
478 likelihood to be directly linked to a commercial product than
479 Phase II patents connected to pre-2000 contracts, using Phase
480 I-related patents as the control group. If the results were en-
481 tirely driven by selection, we should not observe any effect of
482 the policy change on the commercialization likelihood. Tab. 3b
483 reports the results of the DiD analysis. As the table shows,
484 our main variable of interest, the interaction term Phase II ×
485 Post 2000, is positive and significant. In other words, it seems
486 that the additional push towards commercialization introduced
487 in the year 2000 indeed lead to a higher commercialization
488 propensity of the average Phase II-related patent.

489 Overall, the results support the view that the SBIR pro-
490 gram is quite effective at stimulating the commercialization
491 and transfer of new inventions to the final consumers. SBIR-
492 backed patented inventions have a higher likelihood to end
493 up in commercial products than similar inventions developed
494 by the private sector without government support. So far,
495 the results are silent on the timing of commercialization. The
496 government might simply provide more *patient capital* com-
497 pared to the private sector (23). Hence, the difference in the
498 commercialization rate may come from fully privately-funded
499 projects that are abandoned early because of their lower po-
500 tential, while similar publicly-funded projects move forward with
501 government money. To explore this possibility, we exploit the
502 data on patents connected to products to look into the *time-*
503 *to-market* of each invention. As explained in more detail in the
504 appendix, we proxy the commercialization year of a product
505 with the earliest date of creation of any of the VPM-like pages
506 reporting the patent-product link. We then computed the
507 *time-to-market* of each patent as the number of years between
508 the patent filing date and the product commercialization. Even
509 though our proxy for the commercialization timing is likely to
510 be noisy, Fig. 3d offers a preliminary view of the direct and
511 indirect commercialization lag for treated and control patents.
512 The chart shows no striking differences between SBIR-funded
513 and control inventions, in terms of time-to-market. Looking
514 at *direct paths*, for the average SBIR-funded invention it takes
515 about eight years to reach the final consumers, whereas it takes
516 seven years for control inventions. However, **as reported in the
517 appendix (p. XX)**, this difference is not statistically significant.

518 The picture is very similar for the indirect paths, for which
519 the commercialization path is 14 years long, on average.

520 In a separate analysis (reported here), we have identified
521 which of the treated and control patents were ‘green,’ in the
522 sense that they relate to climate change mitigation technolo-
523 gies (Y02 CPC technological sub-class). We found 6.63 percent
524 green treated patents and 8.42 percent green control patent.
525 Overall, the probability of commercialization of green patents
526 is 3.7 to 4.6 percentage points lower than non-green patents.
527 The difficulty in commercializing green inventions is typically
528 seen as one justification for public support (24). However, a re-
529 gression model that interacts green patents with SBIR support
530 leads to inconclusive results. We do not find clear evidence
531 that public support hindered or helped commercialization of
532 green inventions.

533 Discussion

534 We have proposed a novel method for evaluating the perfor-
535 mance of the SBIR program by the DoD. The method involves
536 searching the web for traces of commercialization of SBIR-
537 funded patents. This approach is part of a broader trend in
538 the literature of using internet data for economic research (e.g.,
539 25, 26), (26).

540 The present work focuses on projects that have led to
541 patents. It does not consider the set of SBIR-funded projects
542 that did not lead to patents. Although such data are directly
543 available from the relevant agencies, performing a counter-
544 factual analysis to evaluate the success rate of SBIR-funded
545 vs. privately-funded projects is particularly challenging, for it
546 requires observing the patent outcome of private projects, for
547 which representative data are notoriously difficult to access.

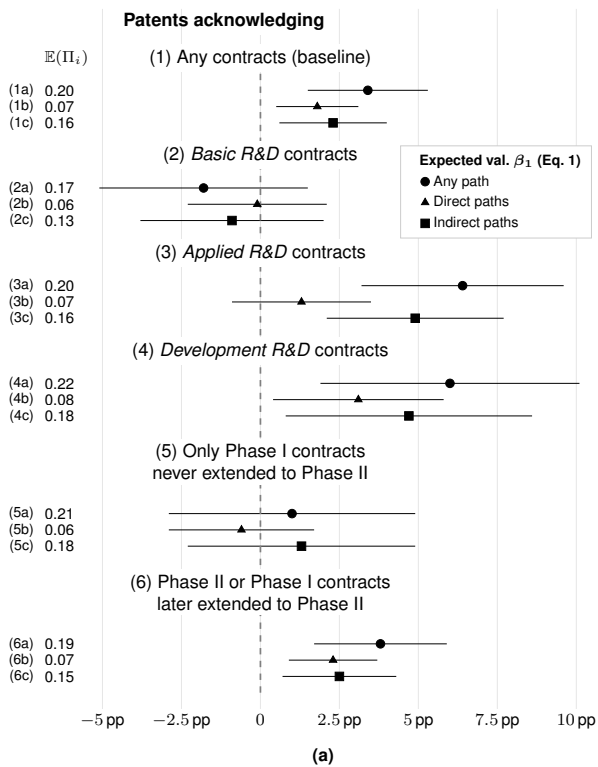
548 Having collected information posted on companies’ websites,
549 the analysis could be subject to a reporting bias. Specifically,
550 SBIR recipients could be more likely to publish information
551 online than non-SBIR recipients, for instance, to please the
552 program manager or signal the DoD funding to investors.
553 Although such bias is presumably less severe than in surveys,
554 we cannot guarantee that our estimates do not suffer from it. In
555 a robustness test, we have performed the analyses exclusively
556 using commercialization as observed from ‘proper’ VPM pages
557 (excluding product brochures and other web pages)—because
558 these web pages do not mention DoD funding. The results
559 remain qualitatively similar.

560 Finally, although we observe a significant effect of SBIR
561 funding on commercialization, the magnitude of the impact is
562 difficult to assess for a lack of comparable studies. We hope
563 future research will exploit the method to evaluate other such
564 programs or commercialization outcomes.

565 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.** We thank the EuroTech Universities
566 Alliance for sponsoring this work. C.B. was supported by the Euro-
567 pean Union’s Marie Skłodowska-Curie programme for the project
568 *Insights on the “Real Impact” of Science* (H2020 MSCA-COFUND-
569 2016 Action, Grant Agreement No 754462). The funders had no role
570 in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or
571 preparation of the manuscript.

- 572 1. PA Geroski, Procurement policy as a tool of industrial policy. *Int. Rev. Appl. Econ.* **4**, 182–198
573 (1990).
- 574 2. J Lerner, *Boulevard of Broken Dreams: Why Public Efforts to Boost Entrepreneurship and*
575 *Venture Capital Have Failed and What to Do About It.* (Princeton University Press), (2009).
- 576 3. E Moretti, C Steinwender, J Van Reenen, The intellectual spoils of war? Defense R&D,
577 productivity and international spillovers, (National Bureau of Economic Research), Working
578 Paper 26483 (2019).

4. VW Rutian, *Is War Necessary for Economic Growth? Military Procurement and Technology*
579 *Development.* (Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK), (2006). 580
5. M Mazzucato, *The Entrepreneurial State: Debunking Public vs. Private Sector Myths.* (Anthem
581 Press, London, UK), (2013). 582
6. M Mazzucato, *Mission Economy: A Moonshot Guide to Changing Capitalism.* (Allen Lane,
583 London, UK), (2021). 584
7. DB Audretsch, Standing on the shoulders of midgets: The U.S. Small Business Innovation
585 Research program (SBIR). *Small Bus. Econ.* **20**, 129–135 (2003). 586
8. National Research Council, *SBIR at the Department of Defense.* (The National Academies
587 Press, Washington, DC), (2014). 588
9. ST Howell, Financing innovation: Evidence from R&D grants. *Am. Econ. Rev.* **107**, 1136–1164
589 (2017). 590
10. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, *Review of the SBIR and STTR*
591 *Programs at the Department of Energy.* (The National Academies Press, Washington, DC),
592 (2020). 593
11. M Schwartz, JF Sargent, Jr., CT Mann, Defense acquisitions: How and where DOD spends its
594 contracting dollars, Congressional Research Service R44010 (2018). 595
12. National Research Council, *An Assessment of the SBIR Program at the Department of*
596 *Defense.* (The National Academies Press, Washington, DC), (2009). 597
13. National Research Council, *Revisiting the Department of Defense SBIR Fast Track Initiative.*
598 (The National Academies Press, Washington, DC), (2009). 599
14. United States Government Accountability Office, Small business innovation research: DOD’s
600 program has developed some technologies that support military users, but lacks compre-
601 hensive data on transition outcomes, Testimony Before the House Committee on Small Business
602 GAO-14-748T (2014). 603
15. G de Rassenfosse, Notice failure revisited: Evidence on the use of virtual patent marking,
604 (National Bureau of Economic Research), Working Paper 24288 (2018). 605
16. G de Rassenfosse, A Jaffe, E Raiteri, The procurement of innovation by the U.S. government.
606 *PLOS ONE* **14**, e0218927 (2019). 607
17. C Jones, S Madhavan, Patentsview: Government interest extraction and processing – version
608 2.0, (American Institutes for Research), Mimeo (2020). 609
18. AB Jaffe, G de Rassenfosse, Patent citation data in social science research: Overview and
610 best practices. *J. Assoc. for Inf. Sci. Technol.* **68**, 1360–1374 (2017). 611
19. C Fink, M Khan, H Zhou, Exploring the worldwide patent surge. *Econ. Innov. New Technol.*
612 **25**, 114–142 (2016). 613
20. MP Feldman, DF Kogler, Stylized facts in the geography of innovation in *Handbook of The Eco-*
614 *nomics of Innovation*, Handbook of the Economics of Innovation, eds. BH Hall, N Rosenberg.
615 (North-Holland) Vol. 1, pp. 381–410 (2010). 616
21. SJH Graham, AC Marco, R Miller, The USPTO patent examination research dataset: A window
617 on the process of patent examination, USPTO Economic Working Paper 2015-4 (2015). 618
22. U.S. Congress, Small business reauthorization act of 2000 (2000) HR 5667. Pub. L. 106-554,
619 Appendix I. 620
23. M Mazzucato, Innovation, the State and patient capital. *The Polit. Q.* **86**, 98–118 (2015). 621
24. R Owen, G Brennan, F Lyon, Enabling investment for the transition to a low carbon economy:
622 Government policy to finance early stage green innovation. *Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain.* **31**,
623 137–145 (2018). 624
25. B Edelman, Using internet data for economic research. *J. Econ. Perspectives* **26**, 189–206
625 (2012). 626
26. SK Arora, S Kelley, S Madhavan, Building a sample frame of SMEs using patent, search
627 engine, and website data. *J. Off. Stat.* **37**, 1–30 (2021). 628



Dep. var.:	OLS		Probit	
	Direct path		(3)	(4)
Phase II	0.015 (0.021)	-0.034 (0.031)	0.032 (0.035)	-0.053 (0.050)
Post 2000	0.050* (0.029)	-0.023 (0.047)	0.060 (0.037)	-0.058 (0.072)
Phase II × Post 2000		0.083* (0.046)		0.131* (0.071)
log(claims)	0.002 (0.013)	0.002 (0.013)	-0.005 (0.019)	-0.004 (0.019)
log(bwd_cit)	0.005 (0.009)	0.006 (0.009)	0.006 (0.013)	0.007 (0.013)
log(npl_cit)	0.012 (0.008)	0.012 (0.008)	0.016 (0.010)	0.017 (0.010)
log(geo_fam)	0.002 (0.016)	0.003 (0.016)	0.004 (0.020)	0.006 (0.020)
log(fwd_cit)	0.022* (0.011)	0.021* (0.011)	0.030** (0.015)	0.028* (0.014)
Constant	-0.030 (0.113)	0.010 (0.113)		
Observations	1422	1422	801	801
R^2	0.239	0.241		
Pseudo R^2			0.147	0.151

Standard errors in parentheses.
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.010$
 $\mathbb{E}(\Pi_i) = 0.10$.
 $\mathbb{E}(\Pi_i | \text{Award pre 2000}) = 0.09$.

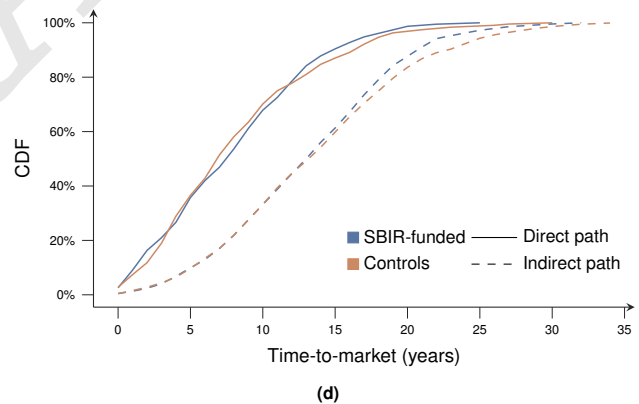
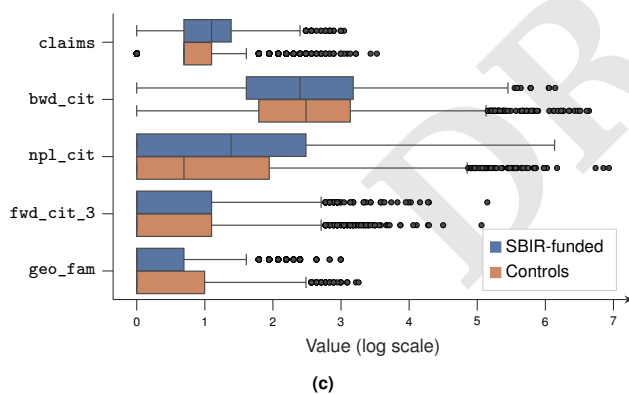


Fig. 3. Results of the empirical analysis (colored figure online). (a) Effect of the SBIR/STTR program on the commercialization likelihood of a patent. The following models are reported: (1) Any patent; (2) Patents acknowledging at least a *basic R&D* contract; (3) Patents acknowledging at least an *applied R&D* contract; (4) Patents acknowledging at least a *development R&D* contract; (5) Patents acknowledging only Phase I contracts never extended to Phase II; (6) Patents acknowledging at least a Phase II contract or a Phase I later extended to Phase II. For each model, (i) the dot point considers any path; (ii) the triangle point only *direct paths*; (iii) the square point only *indirect paths*. Points represent the betas of the treatment variable estimated through a Linear Probability model (β_1), while bars report the corresponding 95% Confidence Intervals. The gray grid is set to 2.5 percent points distance. On the left, the average value of the dependent variable of each model is reported. In the appendix, it is possible to find the corresponding regression tables, in full detail, as well as the results for Probit models, corresponding to each model here discussed. Notice that some patents have been zero-weighted in any of the models except for (1a)–(1c) since they can be linked, solely, to contracts with characteristics other than the one considered by the specific model. Moreover, since a patent can acknowledge more contracts at the same time, the classification in the three R&D kinds or in the two SBIR Phases is not exclusive. (b) Table with the results of the policy-change regression. Only SBIR-funded patents, funded by contracts signed in 1996–2005, included. Phase II contracts include also Phase I ones later extended to the second phase of the SBIR/STTR program. For these last contracts, we considered the extending contract date. In note, the average value of the dependent variable is reported, both considering all the patents included in the regression and only these patents acknowledging a procurement contract signed not later than the year 2000. (c) Distribution of patents' quality indicators used as *control variables* in the regression exercises below. For each variable, the box-plot on top relates to the SBIR-funded patents, while the other to the control ones. (d) Time-to-market. We have been able to date 193 SBIR-funded patents and 216 controls directly linked to a VPM-like page. While for patents indirectly linked to a VPM-like page, we attributed a date to 455 SBIR-funded ones and 641 controls.

629 **Guide to using this template on Overleaf**

630 Please note that whilst this template provides a preview of the
631 typeset manuscript for submission, to help in this preparation, it
632 will not necessarily be the final publication layout. For more detailed
633 information please see the [PNAS Information for Authors](#).

634 **Author Affiliations.** Individual authors must link their ORCID ac-
635 count to their PNAS account at www.pnascentral.org. For proper
636 authentication, authors must provide their ORCID at submission
637 and are not permitted to add ORCIDs on proofs.

638 **Submitting Manuscripts.** All authors must submit their articles at
639 [PNAScentral](#). If you are using Overleaf to write your article, you
640 can use the “Submit to PNAS” option in the top bar of the editor
641 window.

642 **Manuscript Length.** A standard 6-page article is approximately 4,000
643 words, 50 references, and 4 medium-size graphical elements (i.e.,
644 figures and tables). The preferred length of articles remains at 6
645 pages, but PNAS will allow articles up to a maximum of 12 pages.

646 **Data Archival.** PNAS must be able to archive the data essential to a
647 published article. Where such archiving is not possible, deposition of
648 data in public databases, such as GenBank, ArrayExpress, Protein
649 Data Bank, Unidata, and others outlined in the [Information for](#)
650 [Authors](#), is acceptable.

651 **Language-Editing Services.** Prior to submission, authors who be-
652 lieve their manuscripts would benefit from professional editing
653 are encouraged to use a language-editing service (see list at
654 www.pnas.org/page/authors/language-editing). PNAS does not
655 take responsibility for or endorse these services, and their use has
656 no bearing on acceptance of a manuscript for publication.

657 **Digital Figures.** EPS, high-resolution PDF, and PowerPoint are pre-
658 ferred formats for figures that will be used in the main manuscript.
659 Color images must be in RGB (red, green, blue) mode. Include the
660 font files for any text.

661 Images must be provided at final size, preferably 1 column width
662 (8.7cm). Figures wider than 1 column should be sized to 11.4cm or
663 17.8cm wide. Numbers, letters, and symbols should be no smaller
664 than 6 points (2mm) and no larger than 12 points (6mm) after
665 reduction and must be consistent.

DRAFT