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Abstract:

In the EU, most large firms use e-business applications, such as enterprise resource planning and online procurement. Based on e-business watch data for EU-4 (Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom) we find that the actual use of enterprise resource planning and online procurement is positively correlated with labour productivity growth. Furthermore, we find that certain e-business applications, such as Knowledge Management Solution (KMS) systems and CRM systems are significantly positively correlated to either sectoral skill intensity or information technology intensity. The results from the empirical analysis based on Community Innovation survey (CIS 3) data confirm the hypothesis that the introduction of business practices and new organisational practices are highly correlated. Furthermore, there is a significantly positive relationship between labour productivity growth and the percentage of enterprises with new or significantly changed organisational structures based on industry data for some EU countries.

JEL: M20, L86, O31, O32

Keywords: organisational change, new business practices, Economics of Information Technology

1. Introduction¹

In recent years, many European companies have introduced new or improved organisational structures, new human resource practices, new management techniques or business practices. These new forms of work organisation and business practices have been made possible by the use of new information and communication technologies (ICT). Companies also continue to invest heavily in ICT, particularly in e-business applications, such as Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP), Supply Chain Management (SCM) and Customer Relationship Management (CRM). These e-business applications have enabled new electronic business processes (e-business).

e-business can be defined as "the use of electronically enabled communication networks that allow business enterprises to transmit and receive information" (Fellenstein and Wood, 2000). E-Business is a broader term that encompasses electronic business processes as well as e-Commerce (buying and selling). Simple examples of typical business processes that may be carried out in electronic form include customer support and education, marketing, advertising and public relations, recruitment of new employees, information resource sharing among employees, strategic and tactical planning, distributed inventory control functions, payroll and benefits management. Note that none of these business processes involve the direct buying and/or selling of materials but mainly address the quality, flexibility and availability of the product or service. The Internet plays a key role as the supporting medium for various e-business practices such as supply chain management and online procurement. e-business processes are often referred to as "ICT-enabled organisational change" (Kling and Tillquist, 2000), "ICT-enabled business transformation" (Venkatraman, 1994) and "ICT-enabled Business Process Reengineering (BPR)" (Davenport, 1993).

ICT enabled business practices such as ERP systems also have important implications for the organisational structure of the firm. They imply changes to the hierarchical structure, to the decision-making strategies, to responsibilities and to the organisation's culture (Davenport, 1998). The implementation of ICT enabled business practices can be a

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difficult, time-consuming and expensive project for a company (Mabert, Soni and Venkataramanan, 2001). Therefore, it is important to understand the cost and potential benefits of e-business implementation. ICT enabled business practices can significantly increase efficiency and productivity through improved customer service, reduced cost (i.e. lower procurement and inventory cost), and streamlined business processes. Empirical studies find that the greatest benefits from ICT are realised when ICT investment is combined with organisational changes, such as new business strategies and practices and new organisational structures (see Brynjolfsson and Hitt 2000, 2002; and Brynjolfsson, Hitt and Yang, 2003 for a review of the literature).

The paper is divided as follows. After the introduction, we provide a review of the literature on the productivity effects of ICT enabled organisational change. Section three looks at the incidence of reorganisation, particularly e-business practices and the relationship between labour productivity and e-business practices at the industry level. Here we will draw extensively on the *e-business w@tch* data and on the e-Business Sector Impact Studies. In section four, we use the Community Innovation Survey (CIS) III data to analyse the productivity effects of two types of reorganisation (i.e. management techniques and organisational change in general). Finally, section five concludes.

2. Review of the literature

Definitions of organisational change

Organisational change can be defined as changes in the strategies, structures and practices of organisations. This can involve a number of elements including (Betcherman and McMullen, 1998, Murphy 2002):

- *Changes in organisational structure* of the firm including hierarchy, functional lines, and organisational boundaries
- *Changes in the work process* or new forms of work organisation including the use of different production inputs, the flow of work, job design, work allocation, and the use of suppliers and subcontractors
- *Innovative Human resource practices* including compensation, information sharing, employee involvement in decision-making, and scheduling

- *Industrial relations practices* involving the strategies and institutional structures affecting the labour-management relationship; and
- *New business practices and new management techniques* (Total Quality Management (TQM), Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems, Supply Chain Management (SCM) systems, Customer Relationship Management (CRM), lean production).

New business practices often affect the external coordination of the firm, including changes in the interaction with suppliers (Just-In-Time delivery and Just-In-Time production, sub-contracting of production and outsourcing) (Murphy, 2002; Greenan and Mairesse, 2002).²

Innovative human resource practices (also referred to as high performance work practices (HPW)) include employee involvement in decision-making (for example self-managed teams, quality circles, labour-management committees, works councils, employee representation on the board of directors), employee participation in the company's financial results (e.g., profit-sharing and employee stock ownership), and supporting practices (such as information sharing, training and internal labour markets, job design, individual incentives, various pension schemes) (see Ichniowski et al., 2000).

Overview of e-business practices

A large number of innovative business management concepts recently emerged, e.g. Business Process Reengineering, e-business, and Total Quality Management.³ However, of all these, e-business and Business Process Reengineering (BPR; other aliases: Business Process Redesign, Organisational Redesign, Core Process Redesign, Value Reengineering) have probably the greatest influence (Light and Holland, 1998). BPR typically refers to the idea of radical changes to the operations of a business, often utilising new information technology or information systems (Hammer and Champy, 1993).

² Outsourcing is not considered as an element of organisational change because their main purposes are to change the type of quantity of work rather the way in which work is organised (OECD 1999, p. 179).

³ Total Quality Management (TQM) is frequently not considered as an element of reorganisation, however. Although business practices and Total Quality Management have much in common with each other, they are significantly different with respect to the interdependence with ICT.

Information and communication technologies such as networked computer applications are seen as an "essential enabler" of the change in business processes (Hammer and Champy, 1993). Business Process Reengineering critically examines the business process for redundant steps and opportunities for entirely new ways of achieving the desired output. It attempts to break down outdated assumptions and rules, support teamwork, and shorten cycle times (Grover et al., 1998), if successfully implemented, breakthrough performance gains in productivity can be achieved. In addition to ICTs, the success of process change also depends on organisational structure enablers, management system enablers and human resource enablers (Grover et al., 1998). Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems can be seen as an important tool for the reengineering process.

Beginning in the late 1990s, companies invested heavily in e-business solutions such as ERP, CRM, supply-chain management, e-procurement and data warehouse. e-business involves communication and doing business processes electronically through the internet. In particular, companies use the internet to implement CRM and SCM systems which enable them to link their operations seamlessly with customers and suppliers. In general, e-business goes beyond e-commerce and encompasses other areas such as CRM, knowledge management systems and SCM (O'Brien, 2003).

Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems

Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems (also called enterprise-wide systems or enterprise systems) can be seen as an important tool for reengineering processes. They consist of a software package that uses database technology to control and integrate all the information related to a company's business including customer, supplier, product, employee and financial data. A single enterprise-wide database is used in which all business transactions such as inventory management, customer order management, production planning and management, distribution, accounting, human resource management are entered, recorded, processed, monitored and reported (Davenport, 1998; Ragowsky and Somers, 2002; Umble and Umble, 2002). Thus, ERP systems connect the organisation to its customers and suppliers through the different stages of the product or the process life cycle.

TQM focuses on minor continuous improvements of business processes and it is not related to the introduction of ICT.

It is well known that the implementation of an ERP system is an enormously expensive and complex task. ERP package implementation costs include consulting, process redesign, data conversion, training, integration and testing (Mendelson, 1999). For most of the ERP projects, the software portion only accounts for a small proportion of the total implementation costs. The other areas such as hardware, training and consulting tend to dominate the true costs of implementing ERP Systems (Mabert, Soni and Venkataramanan, 2001). Using data on 5,000 U.S. manufacturing firms engaged in ERP, Mabert, Soni and Venkataramanan (2001) find that the cost of licensing the software itself is only 30 percent of the overall cost of implementing the ERP system. Additional costs include expenditures on new hardware (18 percent) and, most significantly, fees paid to consultants and programmers (24 percent), training (11 percent) and costs for the implementation team (14 percent).

Box 2.1: Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems

"ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning Systems) comprise a commercial software package that promises the seamless integration of all the information flowing through the company - financial, accounting, human resources, supply chain and customer information." (Davenport, 1998).

"ERP is a software architecture that facilitates the flow of information among the different functions of an enterprise. Similarly, ERP facilitates information sharing across organisational units and geographical locations." (Mendelson, 1999).

ICT enabled business practices such as ERP systems also have important implications for the organisational structure of the firm. The changes to the organisation can be substantial, and can impact virtually every business process or function within the organisation. ERP implementations mean changes to the organisation chart, to job descriptions, to responsibilities, to internal power structures, and to the organisation's culture.

Box 2.2: ERP systems and business process change

"Typically, business process reengineering is a precondition to implement SAP systems. For instance, in order to implement SAP R/3 (one leading ERP supplier), the system must be configured to specifically meet the organisation's process requirements. This is a complex and lengthy process, which can take years to implement. Analysts identify and deconstruct thousands of business processes that constitute the company's operations such as production processes, inventory management rules, and accounting practices. The organisation, the business process and all transaction details must be explicitly modelled and entered as settings in about 8,000 configuration tables." (Mendelson, 1999).

According to Davenport (1998), on the one hand, ERP systems allow organisations to streamline their management structures, creating flatter, more flexible and democratic organisations, by providing real-time access to operating and financial data. On the other hand, they also involve the centralisation of control over information and the standardisation of processes, which are qualities that are more consistent with hierarchical organisations (Davenport, 1998). Often the outcome of an ERP implementation is flatter hierarchies and the distribution of decision-making to the lowest possible organisational level.

Most of the benefits of the ERP systems are expected from the change in business processes, in which the ERP software is just an enabler (Martin, 1998). Benefits of ERP systems include (Davenport, 1998):

- Integration of customer order information
 - One order in one system
 - Easier coordination and information sharing for departments
 - Better customer service
- Standardisation and acceleration of business processes
 - Save time (direct and easy access to essential data, improved information management, integration of systems and information within the enterprise)
 - Increase productivity (reduced administrative overhead for some business functions, simplified business processes, reduced paperwork)
 - Multiple sites could be managed as a single entity
- Reduction in inventory
- Integrated supply chain
 - Reduced inventory obsolescence
 - Integration with suppliers and increased visibility
 - Standardisation of HR information.

In summarising a number of studies, Ragoswky and Somen (2002) suggest that the benefit an organisation derives from using information technology (IT) is dependent on the characteristics of the organisation. Therefore, not all companies will gain the same benefit from using the same ERP applications, and different ERP software packages will better suit different organisations. Umble and Umble (2002) listed a number of causes of ERP implementation failures including poor leadership from top management, automating non-value-added processes in the new system, unrealistic expectations,

poor project management, inadequate training, attempts to maintain the status quo and inaccurate data. Hereby, ERP implementation is viewed as an IT project as well as a technical challenge (see Table 1). Dignum (2002) suggests that the biggest mistake that companies have made is that they expected huge benefits from just implementing new IT components without changing the organisational structure.

Table 1: Causes of ERP implementation failures

Causes of failure	Comments
Poor leadership from top management	Management must view the implementation as a transformation in the way of doing business.
Automating non-value-added processes in the new system	The new ERP system will require the organisation to do business in a different way. Existing business processes need to be reengineered by means of a bottom-up approach to dovetail with the ERP structure and requirements.
Unrealistic expectations	Underestimation of the amount of time, resources and outside assistance required to implement and run the new system. The new system is complex and difficult to master; therefore, organisations must be prepared for an initial decline in productivity after the new software is put into operation. The expected improvements will come as the company's familiarity with the system increases.
Poor project management	Managers are not fully aware of the scope, size and complexity involved and do not initiate the necessary level of detailed project management planning and control.
Inadequate training	Top managers and all system users must be fully educated in order to be able to understand the integration of the ERP system into the overall company operation, and to be able to take full advantage of the system's capabilities.
Attempts to maintain the status quo	People are generally fearful of change brought about by any new system and reject innovations.
Bad match	Failures occur because the new software's capabilities and needs are mismatched with the organisation's existing business processes and procedures.
Inaccurate data	Due to the integrated nature of ERP, erroneous data may cause a negative domino effect throughout the enterprise if entered into the common database.
ERP implementation is viewed as an IT project	It is likely that business processes will not be properly reengineered and aligned with the software requirements, and staff will therefore resist using it.
Technical difficulties	Bugs in the software, problems interfacing with existing systems and hardware difficulties.

Source : Umble, E. and Umble, M. (2002).

Supply Chain Management (SCM) and Customer Relationship Management (CRM)

An important role of ERP is to serve as a platform for other applications, such as Customer Relationship Management (CRM) and Supply Chain Management (SCM) (Ragoswky and Somen, 2002). SCM covers every aspect of the corporate supply chain process, starting from the production of raw materials to establishing relationships with the customers (Yen, Chou and Chang, 2002). It provides instant data access to information about orders, forecasts, production plans, and key performance indicators such as inventory levels and filling rates, as well as the ability to increase service quality and reduce investments in inventory.

In the last years, all major ERP suppliers have integrated SCM strategy into their ERP systems. Customer Relationship Management is also linked to ERP. CRM provides

solutions that help companies improve the relationship to their customers. The integration of the front-end CRM and the back-end ERP create a new business architecture for enterprises, placing the customer at the centre (Yen, Chou and Chang, 2002). CRM can help businesses enhance their customer relationships by attracting more profitable customers and establishing stronger and more durable customer relationships. CRM and ERP have been converging for some time. Web-based product availability and delivery information are just a few of the common business applications that involve blending technologies from both disciplines.

Box 2.3: Customer Relationship Management (CRM)

Customer Relationship Management (CRM) enables companies to identify, select, acquire, develop, and retain profitable customers. CRM allows companies to build lasting relationships with its customers (O'Brien, 2003).

Supply Chain Management (SCM)

The process of optimising the delivery of goods, services and information from supplier to customer. This set of business processes encompasses a trading-partner community engaged in the common goal of satisfying the end customer (Gartner Group, 1999).

Application Service Provider (ASP)

An Application Service Provider (ASP) manages and delivers application capabilities to multiple entities from data centres across a wide area network (Verwaal et al., 2002).

Knowledge Management Solutions

Knowledge management solutions are web based products that revolutionise how businesses access, manage, and use their information assets. Knowledge management solutions can be defined as a system and managerial approach to collecting, processing, and organizing enterprise-specific knowledge assets for business functions and decision making (Chen, 2001).

e-procurement and e-marketplaces

Online procurement (e-procurement) and business-to-business (B2B) is another commonly used e-business practice. Online procurement changes the process of ordering goods and services. Company personnel can access and browse a list of goods and services directly from the desktops. E-procurement turns the slow, error-prone and costly paper-based process into an efficient, interactive real-time electronic process (Boykin, 2000). Many of the e-procurement systems are a component of an ERP system (Boykin, 2000). One of the main benefits of e-procurement is the reduction in transaction costs. According to Dignum (2002), the cost reduction will be between 50

and 56 percent per order. However, the benefits of cost reduction may only arise for large firms that process hundreds of orders each week (Dignum, 2002). For small companies, the costs of the e-procurement system may outweigh the benefits.

Box 2.4: Online procurement (e-procurement)

Online procurement (e-procurement) can be defined as “a process which allows any designated user to requisition a product or service through a web interface and generate a purchase order to send to a supplier” (Boykin, 2000). E-procurement technologies include e-procurement software, B2B (business-to-business) auctions, B2B market exchanges, and purchasing consortia. Online procurement is focussed on automating workflows, consolidating and leveraging organisational spending power, and identifying new sourcing opportunities (Davila, Gupta and Palmer, 2002).

e-marketplaces

“Also called e-Hubs, net marketplaces, and B2B exchanges, e-marketplaces are purely digital meeting places that provide to their participants two broad categories of service: aggregation and facilitation. Aggregation refers to making available large numbers of potential partners – both buyers and suppliers – along with, in many cases, listings of the goods they want to buy or sell. In many cases, aggregation of suppliers entails creating a comprehensive online catalogue of their wares. Aggregation provides the obvious benefit of liquidity, an important consideration for all traders. Facilitation refers to helping e-marketplace participants interact with each other, before, during, and after their decisions to do business together. Prior to this decision, e-marketplaces facilitate by providing information about potential partners, including certification as to their demonstrated qualities (credit, fulfilment reliability, etc.). e-marketplaces often assist contracting and partnership decisions by conducting auctions, reverse auctions, and other dynamic pricing events. Finally, many e-marketplaces also offer post-partnership facilitation services such as arranging credit and logistics services, and in some cases taking responsibility for order fulfilment (McAfee, 2000).”

Productivity effects of ERP systems

There is a small but growing literature on the impact of ERP systems on performance and productivity. However, the majority of these studies are interviews, case studies or a collection of case studies and industry surveys mainly for US data (see the literature reviews provided by Gattiker and Goodhue, 2002; Hitt, Wu and Zhou, 2002). None of these articles empirically tests the impact of ERP systems using a representative dataset. McAfee (1999, 2002) studies the impact of ERP systems on self-reported company performance. Based on a survey of 101 US implementers of SAP R/3 packages, the author finds that participating companies reported substantial performance improvement in several areas as a result of their ERP implementation, including their ability to provide information to customers, cycle times, and on-time completion rates. Hitt, Wu and Zhou (2002) investigate the relationship between adopting ERP systems

and firm performance. The authors use data on firms that have purchased licenses for the SAP R/3 system from which they confirm some important conjectures about the business value of ERP system implementation. Besides explaining the business impact of the implementation on a wide variety of performance measures, the authors empirically test for the productivity and business performance effects of ERP on firms that adopted ERP versus those that did not, and on firms before, during, and after the implementation to assess performance over time. They find that ERP adopters exhibit a consistently higher performance than non-adopters across a wide variety of measures. Most of the gains occur during the implementation period, although the authors do find some evidence of a decline in business performance and productivity shortly after the completion of the implementation. This result is in contradiction to the theoretical expectation that productivity should increase after the successful completion of the ERP implementation.

Using data on 5,000 U.S manufacturing firms, Mabert, Soni and Venkataramanan (2000) find that the top three ERP performance outcomes include (i) quicker information response time, (ii) increased interaction across the entire enterprise and (iii) improved order management/order cycle. The top three areas benefiting from ERP include (i) availability of information, (ii) integration of business, (iii) operations/processes.

3. New Business practices and productivity performance⁴

Incidence of the use of e-business practices

Our analysis of the incidence and consequences of e-business practices heavily draws on the e-business w@tch sector database. These data provide the first cross-country and industry information on this issue, covering up to 15 industries in the manufacturing and service sector. The analysis is based on data for EU-4 (Germany, France, Italy and United Kingdom) in 2002.⁵ The e-business w@tch data indicate that in the EU-4, the percentage of firms using ERP systems is much higher than the percentage of firms

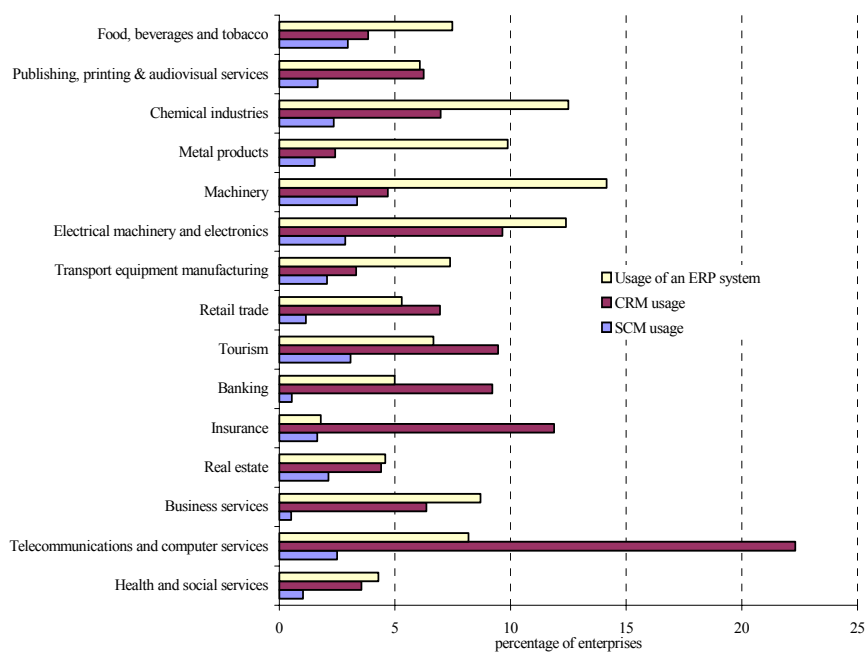
⁴ This section heavily draws on the e-business w@tch sector impact studies as well as the e-business w@tch sector database 2002. Findings presented in the report are based on data weighted by enterprises.

⁵ For Germany, France, Italy and United Kingdom information for each of the 15 industries is available. For Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Portugal the E-business w@tch sector database covers three industries. For Finland, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden we have information for five industries.

using SCM (see Graph 1). CRM is also important, particularly in telecommunications and computer services as well as in banking and insurance. Overall, CRM systems are used by 22 % of firms in the ICT service sector as compared to 7.5 % on average in the non-ICT service sector (see Graph 1). In manufacturing, ERP is the most frequently used e-business practice followed by CRM and SCM. The chemical industry, transport equipment as well as the electrical industry have the highest share of enterprises using ERP. Overall, only few firms use SCM with an EU-4 share of less than 5 %. The low share of ERP and SCM in some service industries is due to the low importance of intermediate materials such as raw materials and energy.

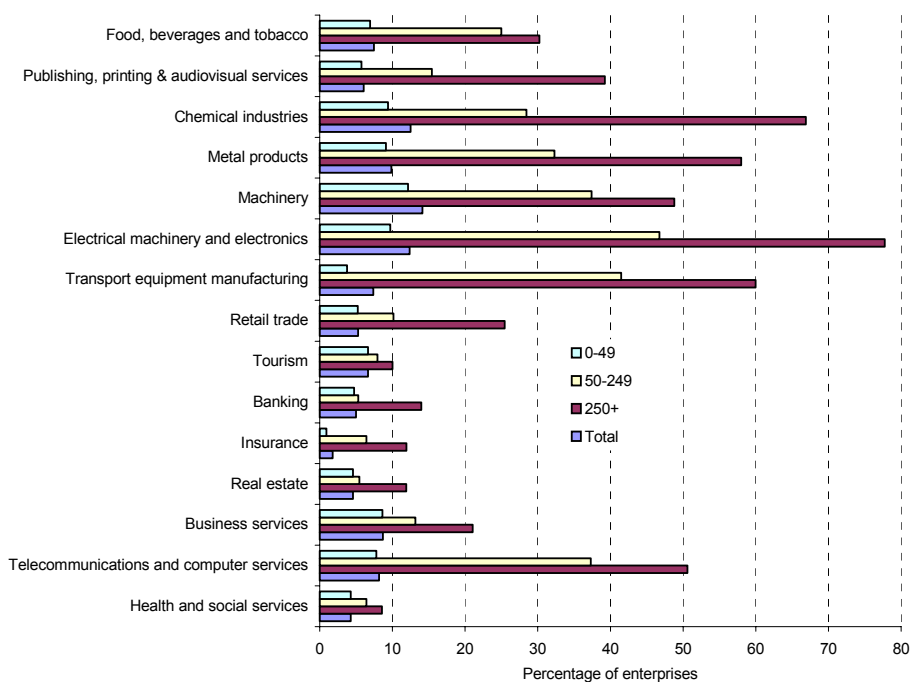
When comparing survey results across firm size, we observe that e-business practices are used by a majority of large companies (see Graph 2 for ERP systems and Graph 3 for SCM). The percentage of firms with ERP systems in large manufacturing companies (>250 employees) ranges from 30 percent in food and beverages to almost 80 percent in the electrical goods industry. This is consistent with Hitt, Wu, and Zhou (2002) stating that ERP systems have been implemented in more than 60 % of multinational firms. Turning to plans to use an ERP system in the future, we again observe that larger firms are more likely to adopt ERP systems. Among large firms, the percentage of firms that will implement ERP systems in the next months is highest in metal products, followed by insurance, banking, computer services, and the food industry.

Graph 1: Incidence of e-business practices in the EU-4



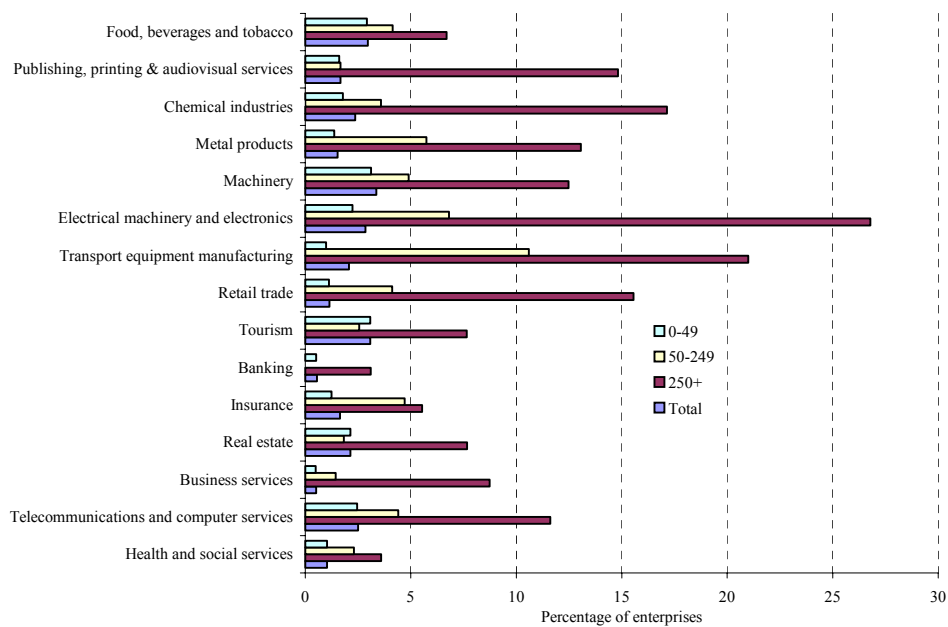
Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Graph 2: Usage of ERP-systems in EU-4 by industry and firm size



Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Graph 3: Usage of SCM-systems in EU-4 by industry and firm size



Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Table 2: Usage of various e-business practices across selected EU-States

	CRM	ERP	SCM	CRM	ERP	SCM
	Germany			France		
Food, beverages and tobacco	0.4	2.4	1.7	0.0	4.2	0.1
Publishing, printing & audiovisual services	4.6	7.5	1.8	3.7	3.9	0.0
Chemical industries	8.8	11.6	1.6	5.5	35.5	0.8
Metal products	1.9	11.7	0.6	0.1	5.8	1.6
Machinery	1.6	7.9	2.2	5.7	17.0	0.7
Electrical machinery and electronics	10.6	18.6	6.3	3.3	12.4	0.8
Transport equipment manufacturing	3.3	7.2	3.0	0.4	9.1	0.4
Retail trade	6.7	5.1	0.0	1.6	1.7	1.6
Tourism	13.3	10.0	3.3	3.3	0.0	0.0
Banking	17.5	6.0	0.0	7.1	4.0	1.7
Insurance	14.4	3.9	3.5	10.5	3.5	0.0
Real estate	0.0	3.4	0.0	4.9	4.9	3.3
Business services	5.3	3.5	0.0	0.1	11.6	0.0
Telecommunications and computer services	22.3	12.9	3.4	18.8	14.2	1.8
Health and social services	1.7	5.0	0.0	1.7	3.4	1.7
	Italy			United Kingdom		
Food, beverages and tobacco	10.4	15.8	6.9	2.7	2.3	2.0
Publishing, printing & audiovisual services	1.5	8.7	3.0	10.2	5.1	1.7
Chemical industries	7.1	13.3	2.1	6.3	3.2	3.6
Metal products	2.7	13.8	2.7	3.7	2.4	0.2
Machinery	6.7	22.9	6.6	3.8	3.3	0.5
Electrical machinery and electronics	8.5	12.7	3.6	12.1	8.2	0.4
Transport equipment manufacturing	7.4	16.3	4.2	2.5	2.7	1.2
Retail trade	9.9	8.5	1.4	6.8	1.8	1.8
Tourism	10.7	10.7	5.3	8.4	3.3	3.3
Banking	12.4	11.6	0.2	7.0	1.8	0.0
Insurance	35.4	22.3	10.1	10.7	0.3	1.2
Real estate	8.6	9.9	1.2	8.3	1.7	5.0
Business services	8.2	16.4	0.0	8.4	3.4	1.7
Telecommunications and computer services	12.9	17.2	0.0	26.9	1.8	3.4
Health and social services	10.2	8.5	3.4	3.4	0.0	0.1

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

With regards to ERP diffusion in different countries, we find that Italy is above average in all service industries. UK is below average and France and Germany are in the middle range. In chemicals, French enterprises reported the highest level of ERP (35%). Enterprises from Italy reported the highest level in machinery, insurance and telecommunications sectors. UK firms are again below average in all manufacturing industries. In the ICT sector, companies from the Netherlands and the UK in particular make extensive use of CRM systems (see e-business sector reports).

Turning to the complementarity hypothesis, we find that certain business practices are complementary to each to other. In particular, the use of SCM and ERP are highly correlated with a correlation coefficient of 0.87 (see Table 3).

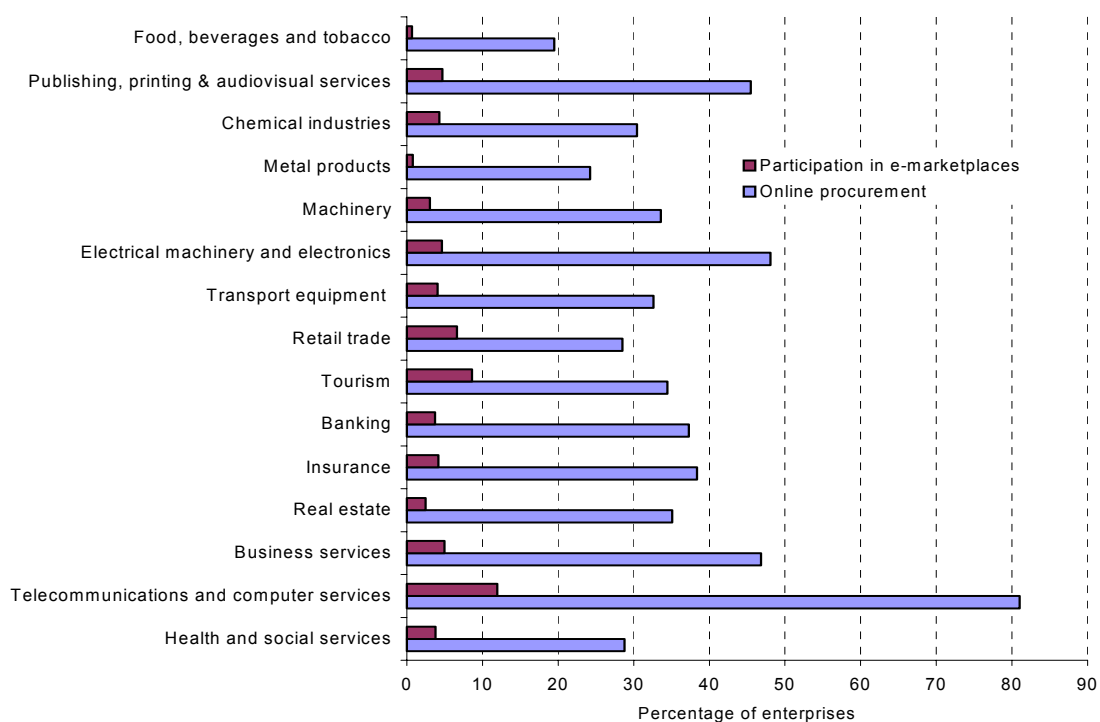
Table 3: Correlations between different types of e-business activities, EU-4

	ASP	CRM	ERP	Knowledge Management Solution
CRM	0.78 (0.00)	1		
ERP	0.33 (0.03)	0.56 (0.00)	1	
Knowledge Management Solution	0.58 (0.00)	0.68 (0.00)	0.32 (0.03)	1
SCM	0.46 (0.00)	0.60 (0.00)	0.87 (0.00)	0.42 (0.00)

Notes: p-value in parentheses. Number of observations 45 (15 sectors x 3 firm size classes).

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002. Own calculations

Graph 4: Participation in e-marketplaces and online procurement, EU-4



Source: e-business w@tch data 2002.

On the basis of e-business w@tch data, we find that e-procurement seems to be one of the most widely used application. In EU-4, the percentage of companies currently taking advantage of e-procurement is approximately 37 % (unweighted average across EU-4 industries). Procuring online is more common in skill-intensive service industries such as telecommunications and computer services and business services (see Graph 4). Unreported results show that online procurement is more common in Germany and in the UK (with unweighted means of 57 % and 44 %) followed by Italy and France with 27 % (see e-business w@tch sector impact studies). Furthermore, the use of online procurement does not differ across firm size. Small firms lag behind but the difference is less pronounced than for other e-business applications such as ERP-systems (see e-business w@tch sector impact studies).

Table 4: *Share of online procurement in total procurement, EU-4*

	Online share of total procurement < 5 %	Online share of total procurement: 5-10 %	Online share of total procurement: 11 to 25 %	Online share of total procurement: 26 to 50 %	Online share of total procurement: > 50 %
Food, beverages and tobacco	43.8	32.6	22.7	0.9	0.0
Publishing, print. & audiovisual services	41.0	27.0	21.0	8.6	2.3
Chemical industries	43.3	41.6	10.3	3.1	1.8
Metal products	49.4	36.0	9.7	2.6	2.4
Machinery	52.0	31.8	12.5	1.8	1.9
Electrical machinery and electronics	39.0	29.3	14.1	8.5	9.0
Transport equipment manufacturing	57.1	22.5	12.5	6.6	1.3
Retail trade	33.7	19.0	19.6	13.9	13.8
Tourism	48.0	26.6	10.1	10.9	4.4
Banking	41.2	30.8	17.5	5.6	4.9
Insurance	41.4	28.7	18.9	5.1	5.9
Real estate	41.1	32.6	17.6	8.7	0.0
Business services	34.8	17.9	23.6	8.6	15.1
Telecommunications & computer scvcs.	16.1	19.2	23.2	21.5	20.0
Health and social services	35.1	39.6	19.6	4.5	1.2

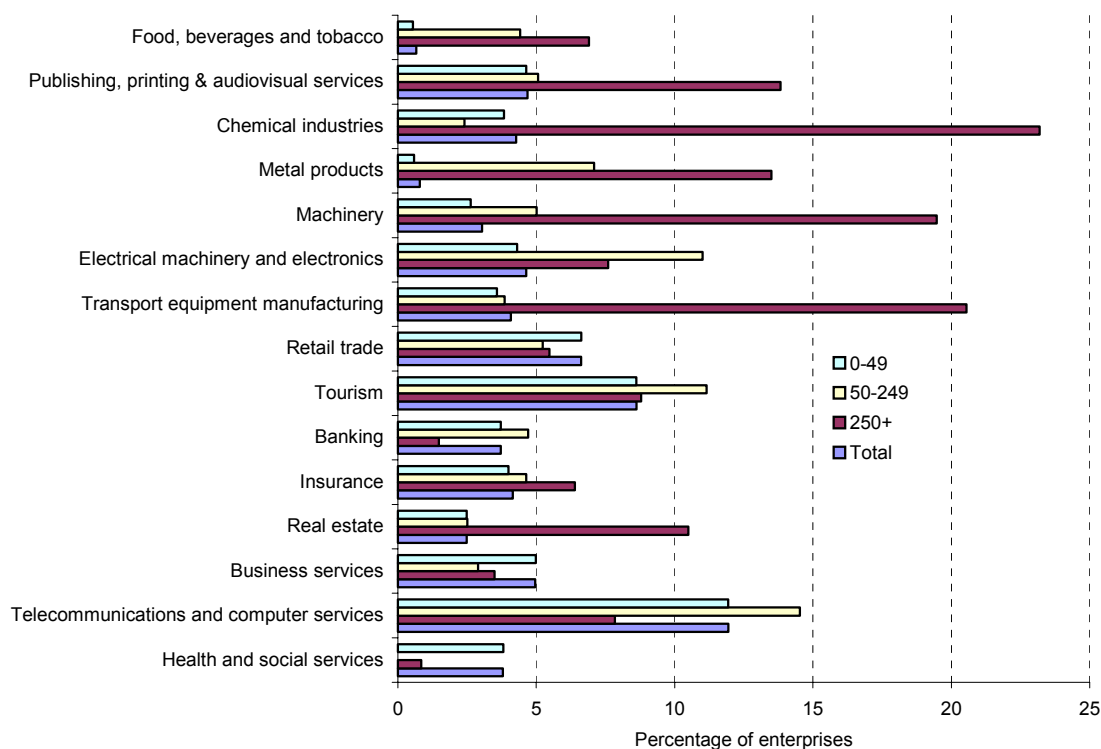
Notes: p-value in parentheses.

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Although the incidence of online-procurement is relatively high, the volume shares are still low. In the EU-4, the share of firms with less than 5 % of their online purchasing volume is highest in manufacturing industries, such as metal products, machinery and transport equipments (see Table 4). Conversely, firms with a high share of online purchasing (50 % or more of their purchasing volume) can be found in business services, telecommunications and computer services and retail trade. In the EU-4, the percentage of firms participating in e-marketplaces is still small with an unweighted

average of 4.5 % (see Graph 4). e-marketplaces are more frequently used by large firms (see Graph 5).

Graph 5: Participation in e-marketplaces by industry and firm size, EU-4



Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Relationship between e-business practices, sectoral labour productivity growth and performance

Table 5 shows the correlation coefficients between various e-business practices in 2002 and the average annual change in labour productivity between 1995-2000 (or 1995-1999 for France) based on EU-4 industry data. The correlation is calculated based on data for the individual EU-4 countries. We find a significant correlation between the change in labour productivity in the past and ERP use (with a p-value of 0.077).⁶ This means that industries with a higher productivity growth rate are more likely to implement ERP systems. We also present an XY-plot in order to illustrate the relationship between the percentage of firms with ERP usage and labour productivity growth (see

Graph 6 based on data for individual countries and Graph 7 based on (aggregated) EU-4 data). Both graphs show that industries with a higher proportion of ERP use have had a higher productivity growth in past. However, the direction of causality may be ambiguous or open to interpretation. Since the time period referred to the past rather than the productivity growth in the future period, the most likely interpretation is that the causality runs from labour productivity growth to ERP usage. However, we might have the causality reversed. This reverse causality running from ERP usage to labour productivity growth may arise because the change in ERP usage is likely to be correlated with its level. There are several reasons we might expect that the change in ERP use would be correlated with its level. One reason is that Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems were developed in the 1990s and have grown rapidly since the mid-1990s. If this is the case, the direction of causality goes in both ways. A higher level of ERP usage may have influenced labour productivity growth and a high labour productivity growth lead to a higher level of ERP use.

Furthermore, the correlation coefficients between the other types of e-business practices and change in labour productivity are also positive in most of the cases but are not significant at the five percent level. Using aggregate data for EU-4, we find a significant correlation between CRM usage and past productivity growth (see Graph 8). The insignificance of the relationship between SCM and change in labour productivity may be due to the fact that the usage of SCM is more pronounced in specific resource-intensive industries.

Table 5: Correlation coefficients between various e-business practices and labour productivity growth, EU-4

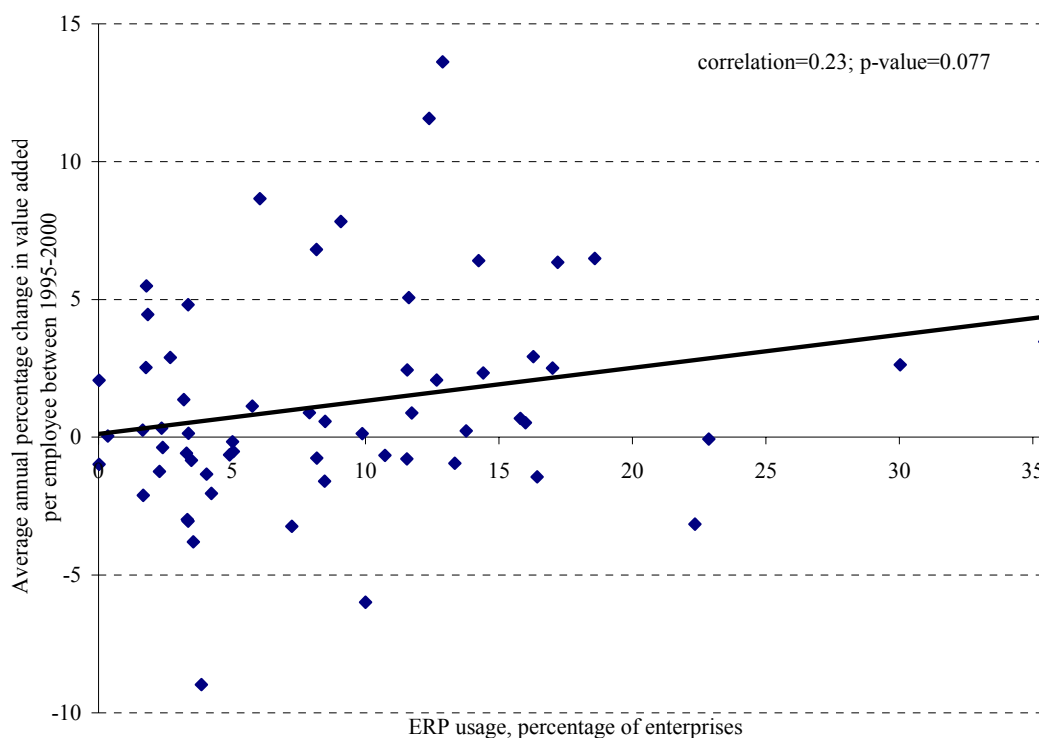
	Usage of an ASP	CRM usage	Usage of an ERP system	Usage of a Knowledge Management Solution	SCM usage
Change in value added constant prices per employees	+0.21 (0.11)	+0.19 (0.15)	+0.23 (0.08)	+0.18 (0.17)	-0.10 (0.46)
Change in value added in constant prices	+0.32 (0.01)	+0.17 (0.19)	+0.07 (0.59)	+0.18 (0.18)	-0.20 (0.12)

Notes: p-value in parentheses. Number of observations is 60 (15 industries for each of the following countries: Germany, France, Italy and United Kingdom). Average annual change in value added refers to the period 1995 -2000 (UK, Italy and Germany) and 1995-1999 (France).

Source: Stan Database, e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations, p-value in brackets.

⁶ The significance is even greater when the correlation is based on robust standard errors corrected for heteroskedasticity (p-value: 0.04).

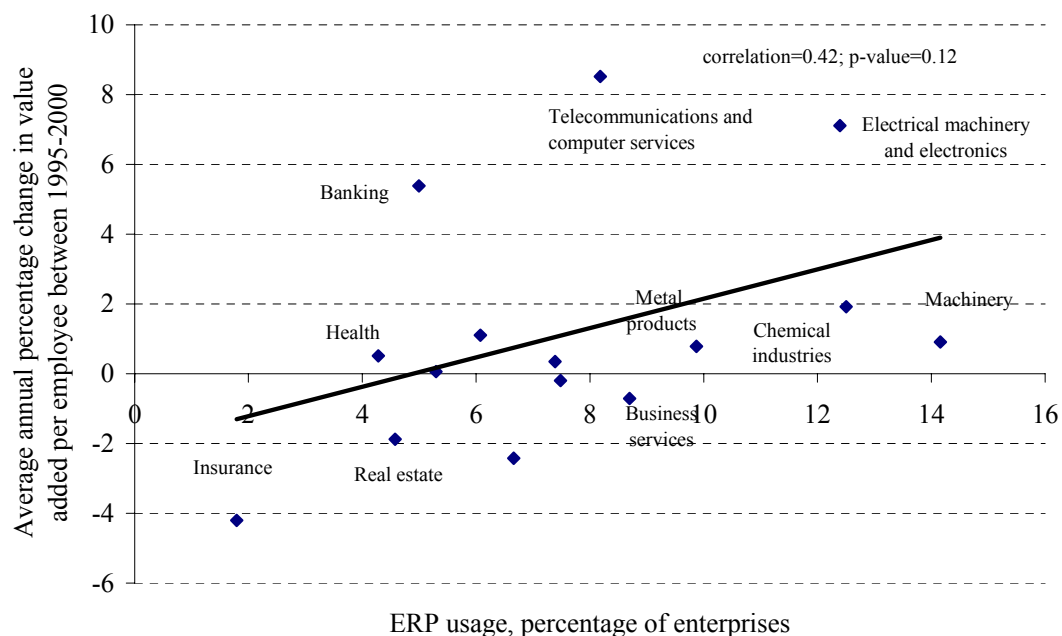
Graph 6: ERP usage and labour productivity growth, EU-4 (disaggregated)



Notes: The graph contains data for individual countries (EU-4). The number of observations is 60.

Source: Stan Database, e-business watch sector database 2002, own calculations.

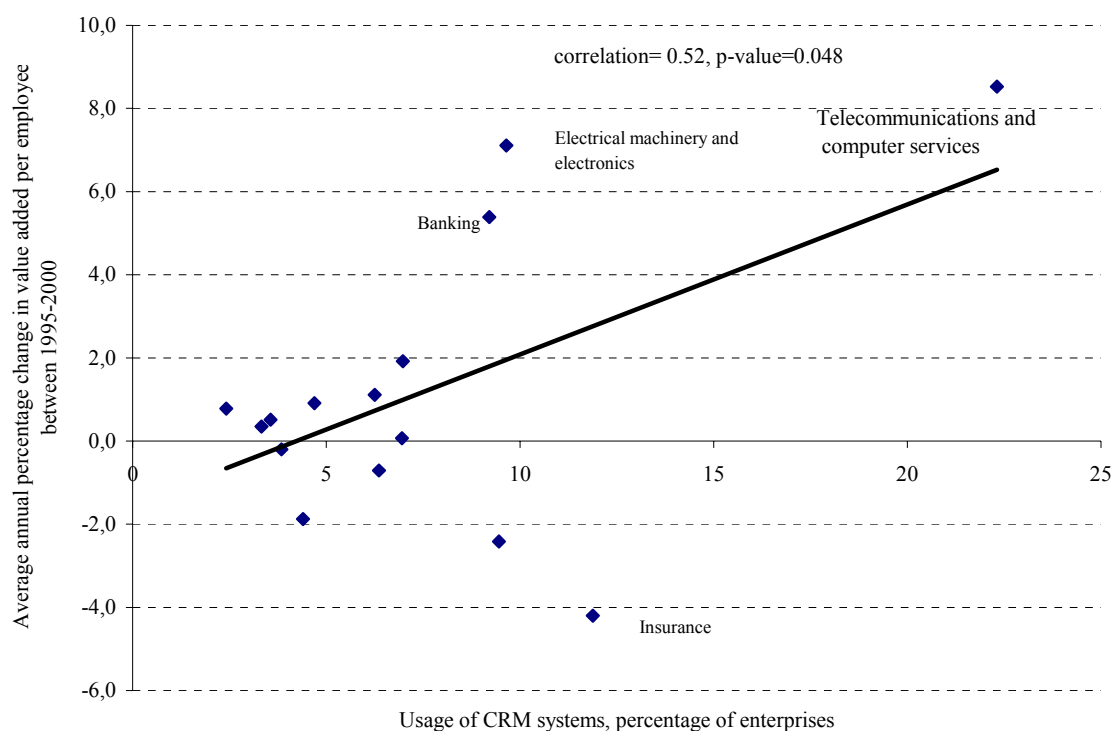
Graph 7: ERP usage and labour productivity growth, EU-4 (aggregated)



Notes: The graph contains data for EU-4. The number of observations is 15.

Source: Stan Database, e-business watch sector database 2002, own calculations.

Graph 8: CRM usage and labour productivity growth, EU-4



Notes: The graph contains data for EU-4. The number of observations is 15.

Source: Stan Database, e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations.

Table 6 shows the correlation coefficients between the percentage of firms using online procurement and the change in labour productivity between 1995-2000 (or 1995-1999 for France) based on EU-4 industry data. In order to investigate whether the improvement in labour productivity is mainly due to labour shedding, we also present correlations for value added growth. Furthermore, we also plot the percentage of firms using online procurement and labour productivity growth (see Graph .10).

Table 6: Correlation coefficients between online procurement and e-marketplaces usage and labour productivity growth, EU-4

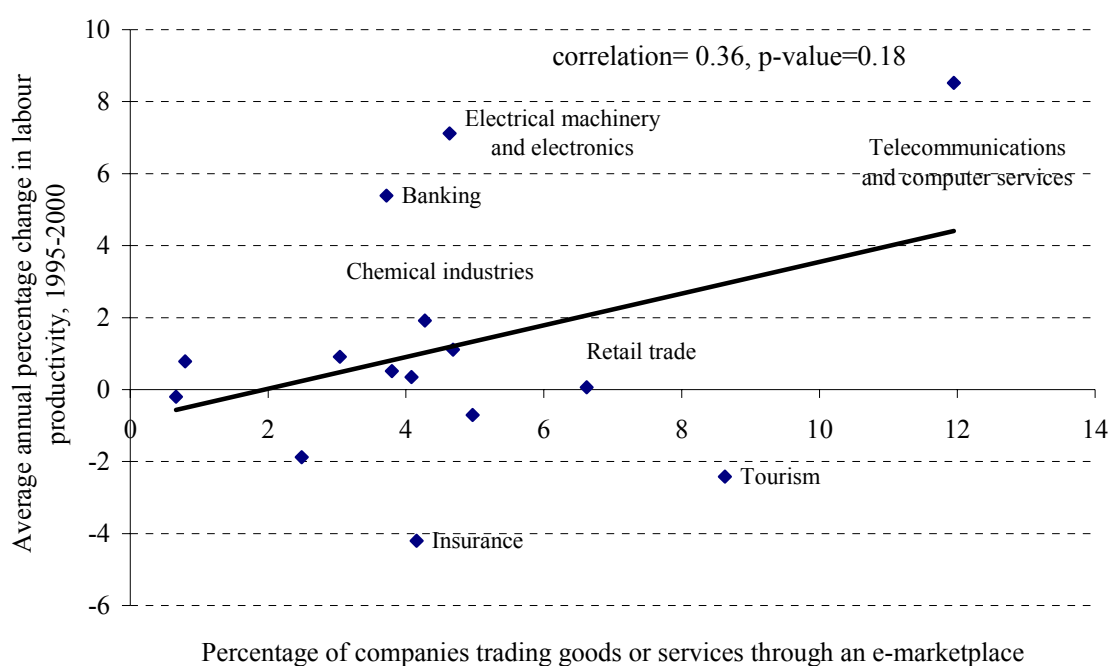
	Percentage of companies trading goods or services through an e-marketplace	Percentage of companies purchasing goods or services online	Percentage of companies that procure more than 26 of the goods / services online
Change in value added constant prices per employees	+0.16 (0.22)	+0.33 (0.01)	+0.30 (0.02)
Change in value added in constant prices	+0.26 (0.05)	+0.38 (0.00)	+0.38 (0.00)

Notes: Number of observations is 60, p-values in brackets.

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations

We find a significant correlation between change in labour productivity in the past and actual use of online procurement. The results are robust with respect to the measurement of online procurement (percentage of firms, or alternatively the percentage of firms with an online procurement share of 25 % or more). This means that industries with a higher productivity growth rate are more likely to use online procurement. Furthermore, the correlation coefficient between participation in e-marketplaces and labour productivity growth is also positive but not significant at the 10 percent level (see also Graph 9).

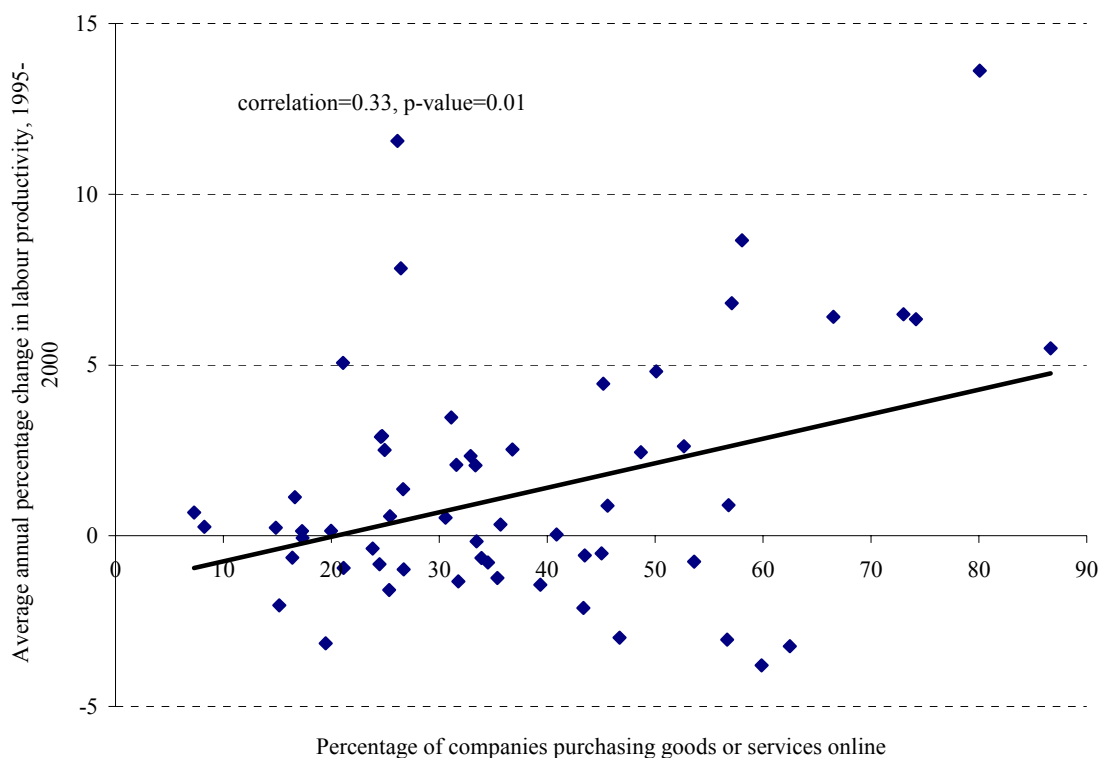
Graph 9: *Participation between e-marketplaces and labour productivity growth, EU-4*



Notes: The graph contains data for EU-4. The number of observations is 15.

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Graph 10: Participation in online procurement and labour productivity growth, EU-4



Notes: The graph contains data for individual countries (EU-4). The number of observations is 60.

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

The e-business w@tch data also allow us to investigate the impact of e-procurement. Firms were asked to express their subjective opinion on the impact of e-procurement on procurement costs. The majority of firms expresses a highly or fairly positive opinion of the impact of e-procurement on procurement costs. This confirms the results obtained from the correlation between labour productivity and e-procurement. The sectors where procurement has had the highest impact are telecommunications and computer services, business services, insurance and tourism (with shares between 62 % and 65 % for both categories "very positive" and "fairly positive") (see Table 7).

Table 7: *Impact of procuring online on procurement costs, EU-4*

	Very positive	fairly positive	Neither	fairly negative	very negative
Food, beverages and tobacco	6.9	36.1	49.8	3.7	3.5
Publishing, printing & audiovisual services	12.5	44.0	43.5	0.0	0.0
Chemical industries	8.8	45.6	41.2	2.5	1.8
Metal products	7.7	35.5	55.2	0.0	1.6
Machinery	7.0	46.1	2.2	43.7	1.1
Electrical machinery and electronics	5.3	48.4	5.2	37.3	3.9
Transport equipment manufacturing	15.6	44.7	4.6	35.0	0.0
Retail trade	11.0	36.6	0.8	51.5	0.0
Tourism	22.3	41.5	32.9	2.4	0.9
Banking	12.2	37.0	48.9	1.7	0.1
Insurance	10.8	54.5	31.4	3.4	0.0
Real estate	10.0	51.3	1.7	37.0	0.0
Business services	13.4	51.7	3.2	31.7	0.0
Telecommunications and computer services	17.2	44.9	34.1	2.7	1.1
Health and social services	6.2	48.4	42.9	1.3	1.2

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations.

Relationship between e-business practices and organisational change

Table 9 shows the percentage of firms reporting that e-business has significantly changed different aspects of the organisation of the firm in EU-4 (only firms with 250 or more employees). Overall, the largest change can be observed for internal work processes, followed by changes in the organisational structure and relationships to suppliers. The largest impact e-business had on the internal work process can be observed in telecommunications and computer services, followed by publishing and multimedia.

In machinery, the electrical industry and transport, between 6 % and 9 % of firms state that e-business has significantly changed their organisation. The impact of e-business on internal work processes is more pronounced: Between 8 % and 15 % of the firms in these industries reported that e-business significantly changed their internal work processes.

Correlations between different types of organisational change indicate that changes in the organisational structure of a company and changes in internal work processes go hand in hand (see Table 8 based in all enterprises). This confirms the theoretical predictions that e-business changes the organisational structure, responsibilities and internal power structures simultaneously.

Table 8: Correlation coefficients for various e-business effects (firms reporting significant effects), EU-4

	Organisational structure of company	Internal work processes	Customer relationship	Relationship to suppliers	Offers of products / services
Internal work processes	0.80 (0.00)	1			
Customer relationship	0.69 (0.00)	0.61 (0.00)	1		
Relationship to suppliers	0.72 (0.00)	0.62 (0.00)	0.61 (0.00)	1	
Offers of products / services	0.67 (0.00)	0.62 (0.00)	0.62 (0.00)	0.73 (0.00)	1
Has e-business changed the way of conducting business?	0.67 (0.00)	0.61 (0.00)	0.66 (0.00)	0.73 (0.00)	0.77 (0.00)

Number of observations is 60 (number of sectors x number of countries). All enterprises.

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Table 9: Companies reporting a significant change in organisational structure and practices due to e-business, EU-4 (large firms)

	Organisational structure of company		Internal work processes		Relationship to suppliers	
	Signifi-cant	Some-what	Signifi-cant	Some-what	Signifi-cant	Some-what
Food, beverages and tobacco	4.4	15.7	2.5	34.2	3.1	18.4
Publishing, printing & audiovisual services	11.7	30.9	17.8	40.1	2.4	46.3
Chemical industries	1.8	21.4	2.8	42.7	1.8	28.4
Metal products	1.6	14.8	0.0	21.3	0.0	8.4
Machinery	6.9	16.7	15.2	19.5	7.1	15.9
Electrical machinery and electronics	9.1	27.8	10.1	38.3	13.0	15.6
Transport equipment manufacturing	9.7	9.4	9.0	18.1	6.9	23.4
Retail trade	12.9	16.2	15.1	20.2	4.2	36.7
Tourism	13.4	29.5	23.8	33.2	15.7	13.8
Banking	5.9	33.2	9.8	37.1	4.8	18.8
Insurance	6.4	37.0	13.8	44.5	3.7	30.6
Real estate	2.3	11.9	0.0	24.7	4.5	19.4
Business services	6.7	22.5	12.6	32.3	6.2	25.4
Telecommunications and computer services	21.0	19.6	14.5	38.3	8.9	31.2
Health and social services	6.8	15.7	14.9	16.1	0.9	27.4

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002.

Determinants and barriers to e-business practices

There are a number of factors determining the use of e-business practices. Firstly, rapid advances in computer and software technologies combined with the explosive growth of the Internet have led many companies to rethink their business practices, to put a

greater emphasis on their use of IT, and to invest more in enterprise organisation (Mendelson, 1999). It is well-known that adoption of new technologies involves significant costs in terms of learning. Using U.S. data, Bartel and Lichtenberg (1987) find evidence that educated workers have a comparative advantage in implementing new technologies because they assimilate new ideas more readily. Since better educated workers enjoy a comparative advantage in implementing new technologies, the diffusion of e-business practices should be higher in skill-intensive industries such as computer services and business services. Furthermore, since various e-business practices are enabled by information technologies, it is likely that the diffusion of e-business practices is positively related to the degree of information technology intensity. Table 10 shows the correlation coefficients between various e-business practices and skill/IT intensity. For two countries, Germany and the United Kingdom, we match industry level data based on the national labour surveys to the e-business w@tch data. Skill intensity in the UK is measured as the share of workers with a higher level of qualification such as National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) 5 (postgraduate qualification) and NVQ 4 first degree. In Germany, skill intensity is measured as the share of workers with a university degree. We find that the usage of Knowledge Management Solution systems, CRM systems and Application Service Provider (ASP) all are significantly positively related to the sectoral skill intensity (see Table 10).

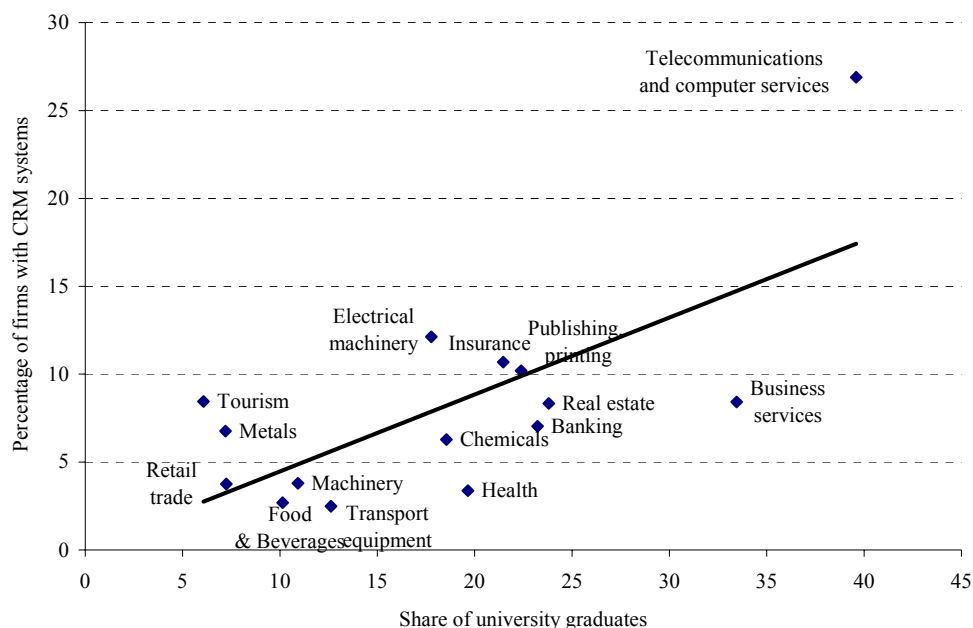
Table 10: Correlation coefficients between various e-business practices and IT/skill intensity

	# of observations	Usage of an ASP	CRM usage	Usage of an ERP system	Usage of a Knowledge Management Solution	SCM usage
Share of university graduates (based on LFS data)	30	+0.61 (0.00)	+0.48 (0.01)	-0.14 (0.46)	0.65 (0.02)	+0.17 (0.37)
Size of IT-department	60	+0.60 (0.00)	+0.45 (0.00)	-0.05 (0.72)	+0.53 (0.00)	+0.09 (0.51)
Share of IT personnel (based on LFS data)	30	+0.74 (0.00)	+0.73 (0.00)	-0.03 (0.88)	+0.82 (0.00)	+0.20 (0.28)

Notes: p-value in parentheses. Number of observations is 30 (15 industries for each of the following countries: Germany and United Kingdom).

Source: UK Labour Force Survey 2000, Mikro Census, e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations.

Graph 11: Scatterplot between CRM usage and skill intensity, United Kingdom



Notes: Skill intensity is defined as the number of university graduates in 2000.

Source: UK Labour Force Survey, e-business w@tch data 2002, own calculations.

For the United Kingdom, Graph 11 illustrates that industries with a higher share of highly-skilled workers have a higher-than-average share of firms using CRM. We also find that Knowledge Management Solution systems and CRM systems are significantly positively related to the sectoral IT intensity measured as the share of IT workers (such as computer software engineers, computer systems analysts, programmers, network and computer systems administrators, computer hardware engineers etc.). However, we do not find a significant relationship between ERP usage and IT intensity.

Table 11 shows the correlation coefficients between IT/skill intensity and both participation in e-marketplaces and use of online procurement. The use of online procurement is significantly related to the skill intensity of the firm, with a correlation coefficient of 0.50. The results are robust when a quantitative measure, namely the share of online procurement in percent of total procurement is used. Again, we also find a significant relationship between IT intensity, measured as the share of IT-personnel and use of online procurement. The results are robust with respect to the definition of IT-personnel (size of IT-department vs. IT-personnel based on the Labour Force Survey).

Table 11: Correlation coefficients between participation in e-marketplaces and online procurement and IT/skill intensity

	# of obs.	Participation in electronic marketplaces	Online procurement	Online procurement in percent of total procurement between 26 and 100 % ^b
Share of university graduates (based on LFS data)	30	+0.22 (0.25)	+0.51 (0.00)	+0.38 (0.04)
Size of IT-department	60	+0.62 (0.00)	+0.73 (0.00)	+0.66 (0.00)
Share of IT personnel (based on LFS data)	30	+0.36 (0.05)	+0.62 (0.00)	+0.47 (0.01)

Notes: Size of IT-department is defined as the number of employees per thousand employees mainly occupied with maintenance of IT and networks. ^b The categories >50 % and 26-50 % are added together.

Source: UK Labour Force Survey 2000, Mikro Census, e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations.

Table 12: Barriers to procuring online, EU-4 (firms that agreed "completely")

	Requires face-to-face interaction	Suppliers do not sell online	Concerns about data protection, security issues	Technology is expensive	Suppliers' technical systems are not compatible	Cost advantage is insignificant
Food, beverages and tobacco	49.3	42.9	32.4	20.5	13.8	23.6
Publishing, printing & audiovisual services	37.6	36.8	31.3	25.1	13.5	27.6
Chemical industries	39.4	44.5	27.9	23.5	13.9	20.3
Metal products	48.9	41.3	27.0	23.4	15.5	23.4
Machinery	49.0	45.7	32.9	24.7	14.3	21.4
Electrical machinery and electronics	36.2	36.8	32.5	21.0	12.1	23.0
Transport equipment manufacturing	39.7	44.8	35.0	36.3	18.7	30.5
Retail trade	41.4	34.5	33.5	24.4	17.6	23.2
Tourism	37.1	33.9	27.8	25.3	15.1	21.1
Banking	34.0	25.7	38.5	23.3	11.8	20.5
Insurance	33.4	33.7	45.0	22.9	14.8	20.9
Real estate	36.5	35.1	35.3	28.1	10.6	22.8
Business services	31.0	26.3	25.1	18.6	7.9	17.4
Telecommunications and computer services	20.9	14.8	25.0	12.7	9.7	17.4
Health and social services	40.8	27.2	34.6	27.9	10.6	25.8

Source: e-business w@tch sector database 2002, own calculations.

When looking at the drivers of e-business practices, it is also important to look at the barriers of e-business practices. The principal barrier to the use of online procurement is that many products and services require face to face interactions. This barrier is particularly important in some manufacturing industries such as food, metals and machinery. The second most important factor is that suppliers do not sell online. Other barriers such as concerns about data protection, security issues and compatibility of the suppliers' technical systems are less important (see Table 12).

4. Incidence of organisational change and new management techniques: Evidence based on CIS III data

As already indicated in the introduction, various new organisational practices are complementary in the sense that the implementation of one practice (say business or advanced management techniques) is enhanced by the implementation of others (such as changes in the organisational structure). In order to provide a first look at the connection between changes in the organisational structure and the introduction of new management techniques, we calculate the percentage of firms implementing the practices. In the Community Innovation Survey (CIS), enterprises were asked whether they had made major changes to their organisational structure or introduced important new management techniques (alternatively referred to as modern management practices or business practices) during the three-year period 1998-2000. Three areas of business/organisational practices can be distinguished: implementation of advanced management/business techniques within the firm, implementation of new or significantly changed organisational structures and implementation of new or significantly changed corporate strategies. New business/management practices may include total quality management, Business Process Engineering (through ERP and Supply Chain Management) and lean manufacturing, although this is not clearly defined. Changes in organisational structure may include the introduction of new profit centres and a flattening of the traditional hierarchical pyramid. The countries we are going to focus on are Finland, Germany, Austria and Sweden.⁷

Graph 12, Graph 16 and Graph 18-19 show the percentage of firms implementing either new management techniques or changes in the organisational structure for selected European countries. Both types of organisational practices seem to be highly correlated with correlations coefficients of 0.92 in Finland (see Graph 13), 0.68 in Germany, 0.79 in Austria and 0.84 in Sweden, all significant at the one percent level. This is consistent with the prediction that management techniques such as ERP lead to significant organisational changes such as streamlining of management structures, flatter, more flexible and democratic organisations (Davenport, 1998).

For Germany, the percentage of firms implementing new management techniques is on average 36 % in manufacturing and 31 % in services. The percentage of firms

⁷ Unfortunately, CIS III data for other European countries are not available yet.

reporting major changes to their organisational structure in manufacturing and services is 49 % and 44 %, respectively. Within the manufacturing sector, machinery, metals and chemicals have higher-than-average shares (see Graph 16). Unreported results show that large firms (> 499 employees) are more likely to introduce a major organisational change or new management practices (69 % for firms with 500 and more employees vs. 44 % for firms with less than 500 employees).

The results for Finland show that telecommunication and computer services have the highest share of firms implementing either new management techniques or changes in the organisational structure. A high proportion of firms with organisational changes can also be found in wholesale trade as well as in electrical machinery (Nace 30-33) (see Graph 12).

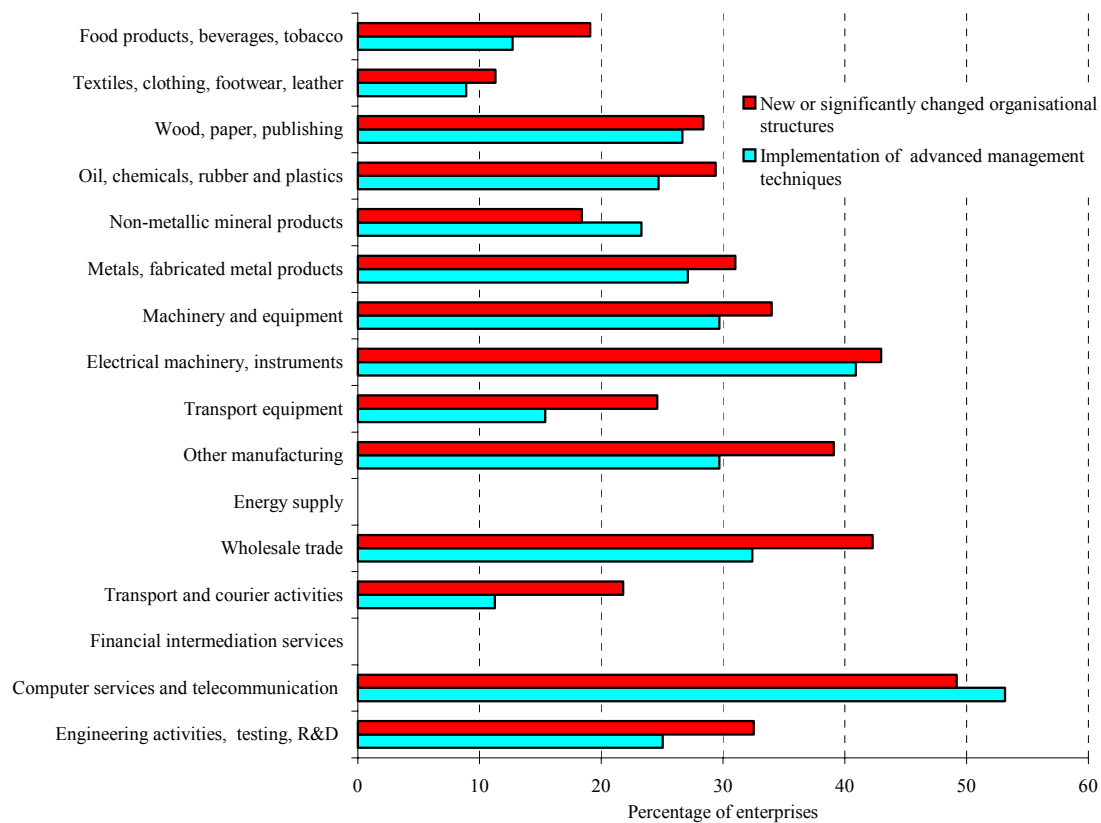
In Austria, the telecommunication and computer services industry, and low-skill intensive industries such as textiles, leather and wearing apparel as well as the transport industry have the highest share of firms with new organisational practices (see Graph 18).

In Sweden, telecommunication and computer services have the highest share of firms implementing either new management techniques or changes in the organisational structure (see Graph 19). A high proportion of firms with organisational changes can also be found in electrical machinery. Engineering activities, testing, R&D, machinery and electrical machinery have higher-than-average shares of firms implementing new management techniques.

Overall, the results suggest that ICT intensive industries such as telecommunications and computer services are more likely to introduce organisational changes.⁸ Note that the ICT-intensive industries also employ more educated workers. Furthermore, R&D intensive industries such as machinery or electrical machinery are also more likely to introduce organisational changes.

⁸ Since ICT investment data at the two digit level are not available for Finland it is possible to correlate ICT investment shares with the percentage of firms with organisational changes.

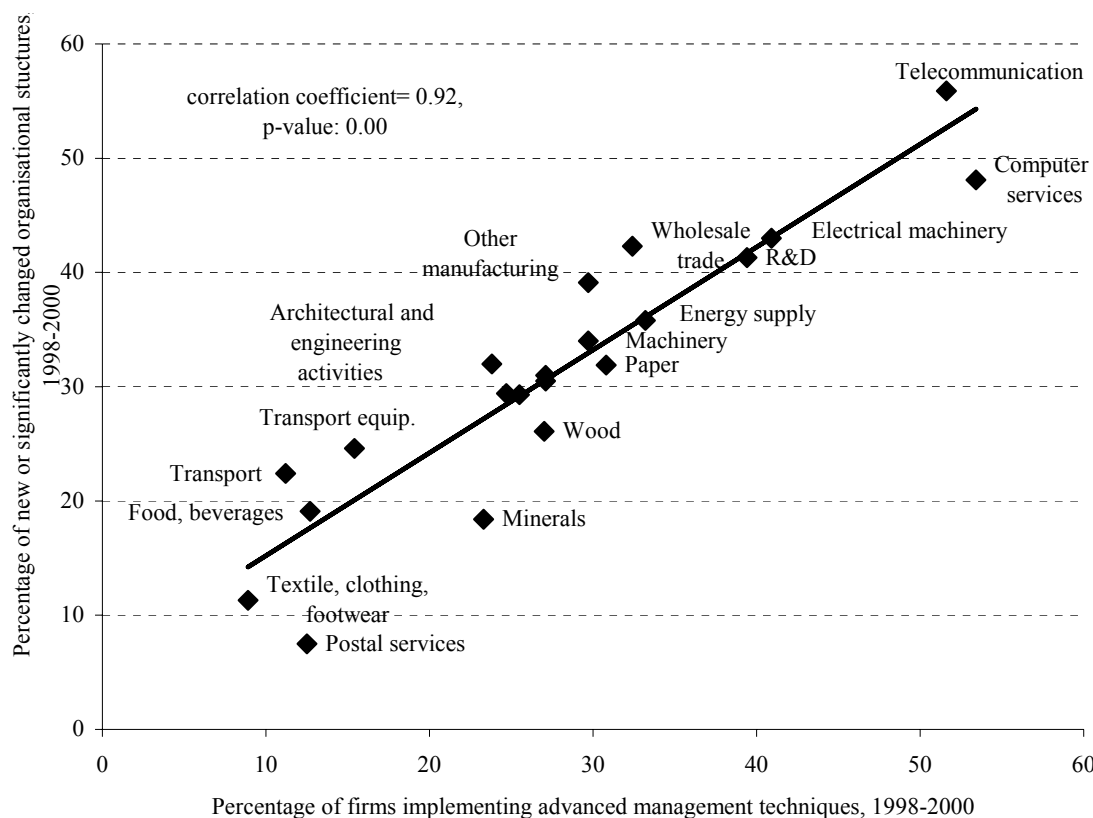
Graph 12: Introduction of new organisational practices and advanced management techniques, Finland 1998-2000



Notes: Energy supply and financial intermediation services are not covered by the survey.

Source: CIS 2000 Finland, own calculations.

Graph 13: Scatterplot between change in organisational structure and advanced management techniques, Finland, 1998-2000.



Source: CIS 2000 (Finland), own calculations.

Graph 14 plots labour productivity growth and the percentage of enterprises with new or significantly changed organisational structures based on industry data for Finland. Industries such as telecommunication services, electrical machinery (including computer hardware, telecommunications equipment) can be identified as the industries with an above-average growth rate of labour productivity. It is surprising that computer services experienced a negative productivity growth between 1995 and 2001. This may be partly due to measurement problems in the 'unmeasurable sector' (financial sector, market services such as computer services) (Griliches, 1992). For instance, in many service industries information on inputs (such as labour income) is used as a proxy of output (Van Ark, 2001). Furthermore, it is difficult to split the change in output value into a quantity and a price component (Van Ark, 2001). This problem may be more severe in industries that are affected by changes in the quality of services. Van Ark (2001) pointed out that the difference in the labour productivity change between the measurable sector and unmeasurable sector is highest in Finland.

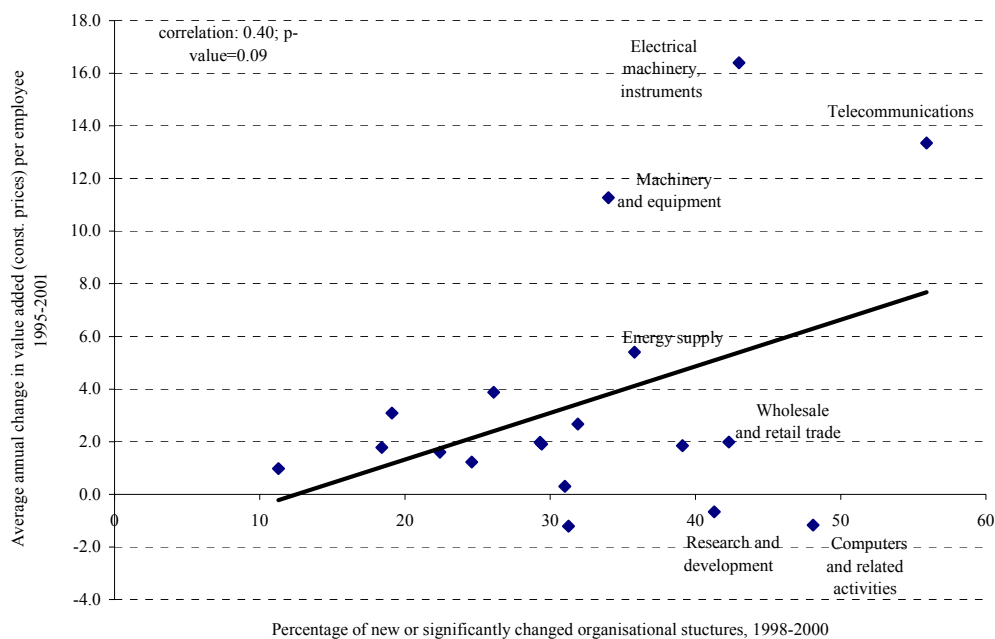
This suggests that measurement problems may be more acute in Finland than in other European countries.

Furthermore, a correlation coefficient was computed in order to statistically determine the relationship between the change in labour productivity and the percentage of firms with changes in the organisational structure. We find that the correlation coefficient is positive of about 0.40 and significant at the 9% significance level. Excluding the outlier computer services, the correlation between organisational change and labour productivity is highly significant (p -value = 0.02).

In order to investigate whether the positive relationship between organisational change and labour productivity growth is mainly due to labour shedding, we look at the relationship between employment growth and the percentage of firms with organisational changes. Again, we find a positive correlation. Finally, we plot the average annual growth rate of value added in constant prices and organisational change (see Graph 15 for Finland). Again, we find a positive correlation of 0.65 that is highly significant (p -value = 0.00). This means that the percentage of firms with organisational changes is significantly higher in fast growing industries. This indicates that organisational change is accompanied by a higher labour productivity growth achieved mostly through output growth rather than labour-shedding.

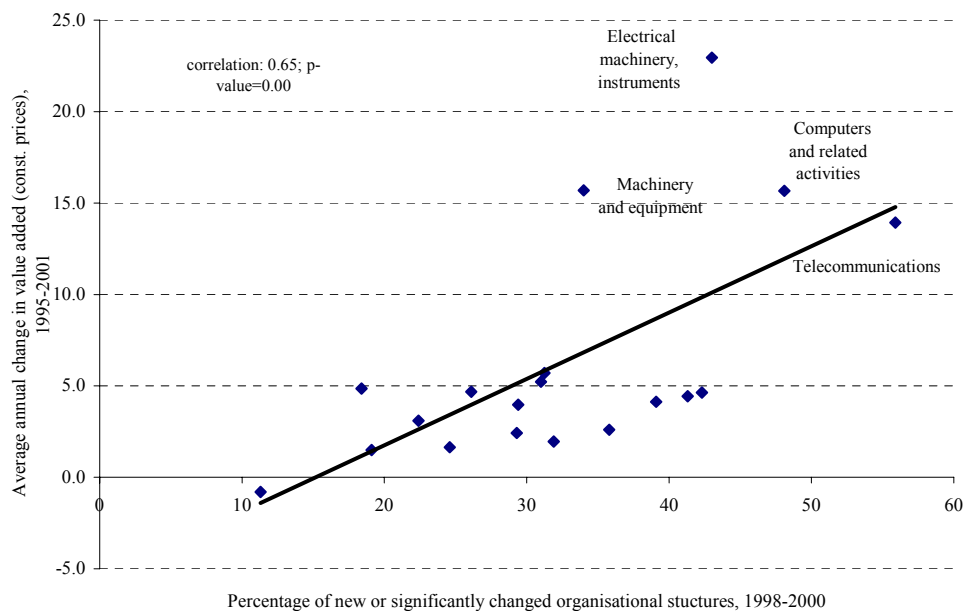
For Germany, we also find a positive relationship between the proportion of firms with organisational changes and labour productivity, but the correlation is not significant at the 10 percent level (see Graph 17).

Graph 14: Organisational change and labour productivity growth, Finland



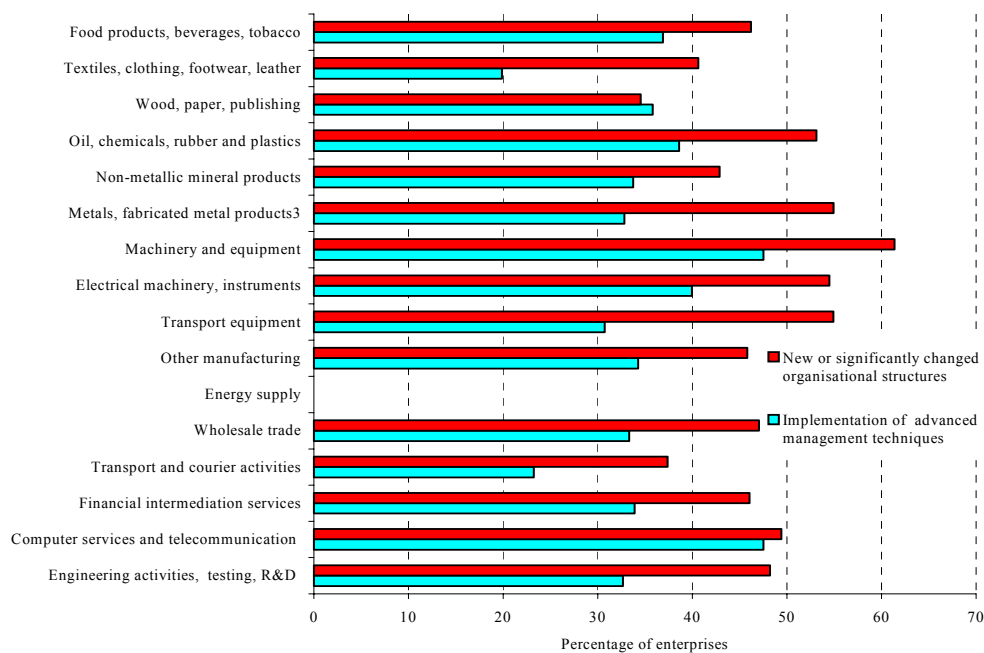
Source: CIS 2000 Finland, OECD Stan data base, own calculations.

Graph 15: Organisational change and change in value added, Finland



Source: CIS 2000 Finland, OECD Stan data base, own calculations.

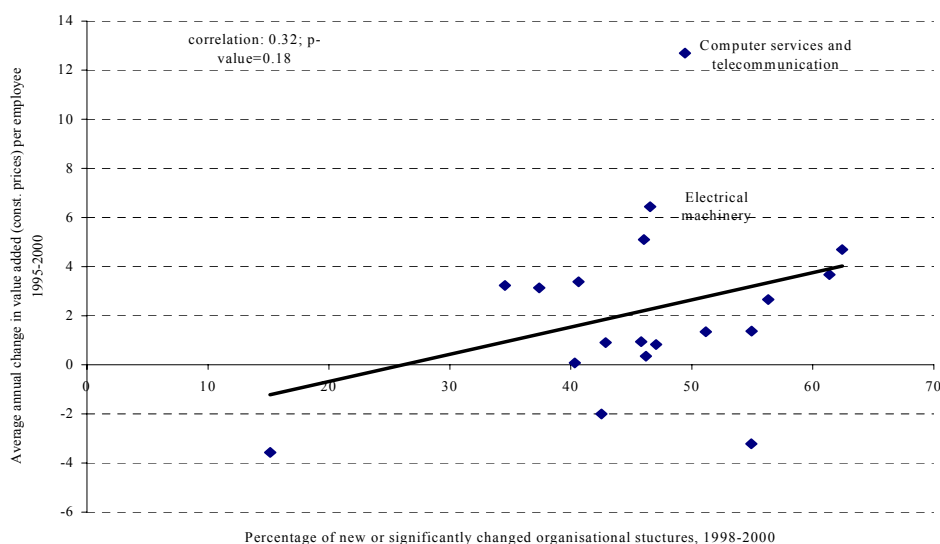
Graph 16: Introduction of new organisational practices and advanced management techniques, Germany, 1998-2000



Notes: Energy supply is not covered by the survey.

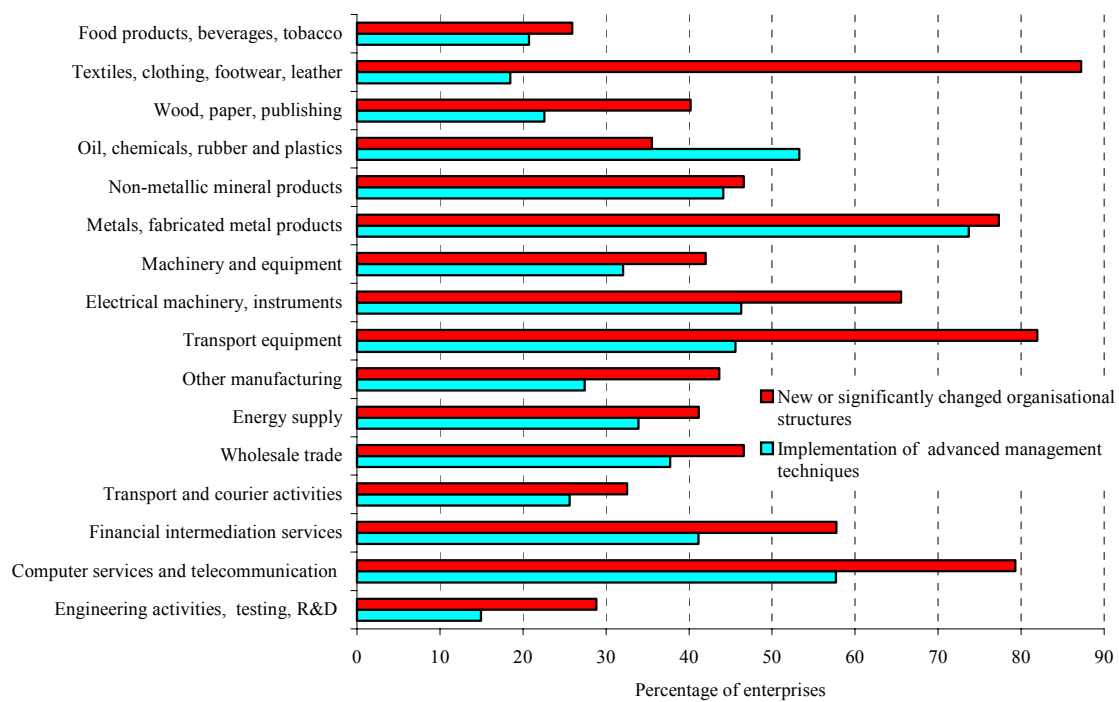
Source: CIS 2000 (Germany). We would like to thank Christian Rammer (ZEW) for providing us with the cross-tables.

Graph 17: Organisational change and labour productivity growth, Germany



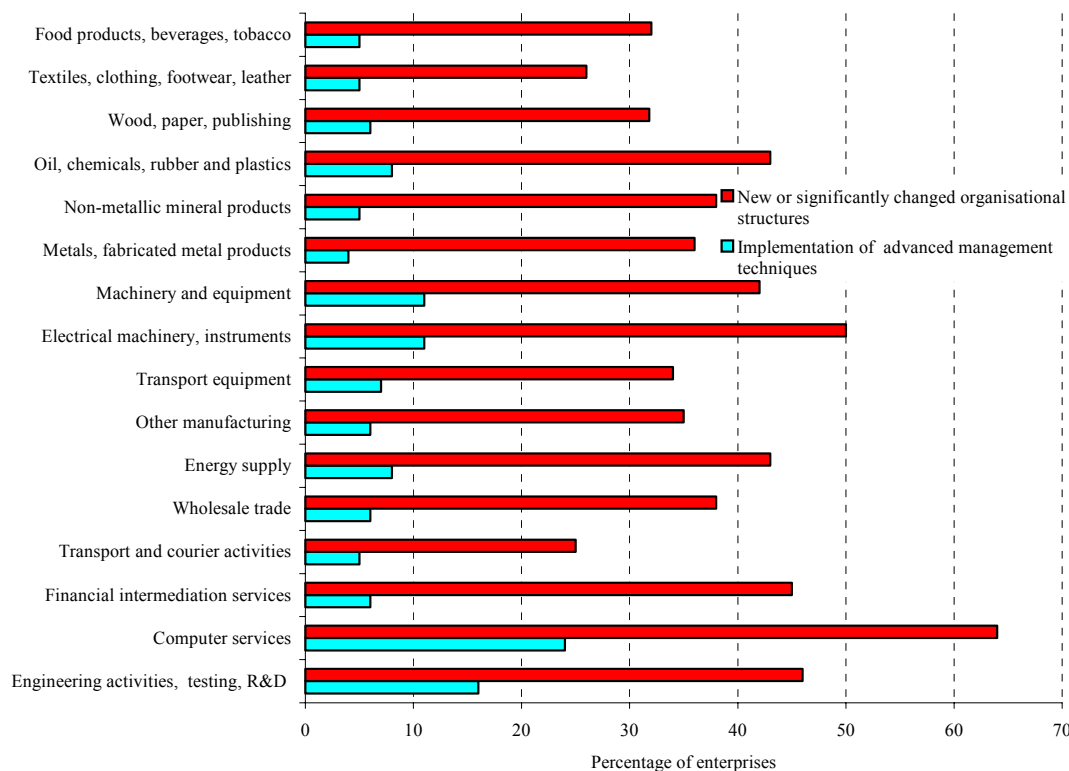
Source: CIS 2000 (Germany), Stan Data, National accounts.

Graph 18: Introduction of new organisational practices and advanced management techniques, Austria 1998-2000



Source: CIS 2000 (Austria), Statistic Austria, own calculations.

Graph 19: Introduction of new organisational practices and advanced management techniques, Sweden 1998-2000



Notes: Transport and courier services include telecommunication. Data for computer services should be interpreted with caution due to small sample size. This also holds for the category "organisational change" in other manufacturing, energy supply and minerals. We thank Maria Säfström for her advice on the data interpretation.

Source: CIS 2000 (Sweden), Statistics Sweden, own calculations. We would like Maria Säfström (Statistics Sweden) for providing us with the cross-tables.

5. Summary and conclusions

The results from the empirical analysis at the industry level can be summarised as follows: Firstly, we find that the actual use of enterprise resource planning and online procurement is positively related with labour productivity growth in the past based on EU-4 data (Germany, France, Italy and United Kingdom), Secondly, we find that certain e-business applications, such as Knowledge Management Solution (KMS) systems and CRM systems are significantly positively related to either the sectoral skill intensity or the information technology intensity. Finally, we find evidence that the introduction of e-business applications change the organisational structure, responsibilities and internal power structures simultaneously. The results from the empirical analysis based on CIS data confirm the hypothesis that the introduction of business practices and new organisational practices are highly correlated. Furthermore, there is a significantly positive relation between labour productivity growth and the percentage of enterprises with new or significantly changed organisational structures based on industry data for Finland. This indicates that industries with an above-average growth rate of labour productivity such as telecommunication services and electrical machinery have a higher share of firms with new or significantly changed organisational structures. However, this relationship is low and not significant for other countries such as Germany.

Given the positive relationship between e-business applications such as ERP systems and labour productivity growth, policies should aim at increasing the firms' incentives for productivity enhancing investments in e-business solutions. Many e-business applications are widely available but utilisation is not widespread especially by SMEs. The European Commission (2003) suggests several issues that should be considered, in particular: (i) improve the managerial understanding and skills for e-business in SMEs, (ii) promote the availability of SME friendly e-business solutions, and to facilitate effective participation of SMEs in electronic marketplaces and business networks. The managerial understanding and skills for e-business in SMEs should be enhanced by an increased knowledge transfer. Furthermore, managers and system users must be fully educated in order to be able to understand the integration of e-business applications into the overall company operation. Thus, firms should increase their investment in training and retraining programmes that give attention to the organisational culture and work organisation (EITO, 2003). e-business support networks may provide a way to develop and share knowledge. Some member states such as the UK already established SME business support networks. These typically aim at providing targeted knowledge and

practical assistance to SMEs in the various stages of their effort to adopt concepts such as e-business.

Government policy, in general, can take responsibility for the following areas. Given the key role of ICT in the process of organisational change, governments must ensure the provision of an efficient infrastructure, especially including a high quality ICT infrastructure (Murphy, 2002, OECD, 2001). Given the positive externalities associated with human capital investment, governments have a major role in developing human capital. Government support is required in various areas, particularly tertiary education, worker training and lifelong learning (OECD, 2001). EU member states already had begun to implement the e-Europe 2002 Action Plan which identifies actions around the key objectives of achieving a cheaper, faster, and secure Internet, investing in people and skills and stimulating the use of the Internet. Furthermore, governments can disseminate information on the benefits and costs of ICT enabled organisational change (Murphy, 2002). This is particularly important for small and medium sized firms, as well as for firms in low skill intensive industries such as food & beverages and textiles, leather and clothing that seem to be late adopters of e-business practices. Encouraging the further growth of e-business solutions in these industries should be a key issue for policy actions.

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