



**Laboratoire
de Recherche
en Gestion
& Economie**

Working Paper

Working Paper

2010-17

Differentiating entrepreneurs from family business founders

Anaïs Hamelin

December 2010

Université de Strasbourg
Pôle Européen de Gestion et d'Economie
61 avenue de la Forêt Noire
67085 Strasbourg Cedex
<http://ifs.u-strasbg.fr/large>

IFS
Institut de Finance
de Strasbourg

Differentiating entrepreneurs from family business founders

A model of the influence of ownership flexibility on small business growth, and evidence on French SMEs.

Anaïs HAMELIN*

LaRGE, Institut d'études Politiques, Université de Strasbourg

CEB, Solvay Brussels School of Economics and Management, Université Libre de Bruxelles

Preliminary version: October 2009

Abstract

This paper develops a theoretical model predicting the difference in investment policy between entrepreneurs and family founders based on the firm ownership flexibility. Moreover, this paper provides evidence on the fact that small business with less flexible ownership structure does not exploit all their growth potential.

Key words: Small business, Growth, Ownership structure, Investment, Risk, Performance

JEL codes: G31, G32, L26

* 47, Avenue de la Forêt-Noire, 67082 Strasbourg Cedex. Anais.Hamelin@unistra.fr, Tel : 0388417737.

1 Introduction

According to the traditional view (Berle and Means, 1932) firms start as family-controlled entrepreneurial entities, and then raise external capital to grow what results in family ownership dilution. However, a brief overview of ownership structures around the world underlines that public company with dispersed shareholders is an exception in a landscape characterized by concentrated control (La Porta *et al.*, 1999). Moreover, a large majority of small businesses will never evolve toward being a large corporation. This paper argues that traditional corporate governance models can predict the difference in investment policy between entrepreneurs and family founders if the model is considered in a dynamic framework.

This paper differentiates entrepreneurial from family small businesses according to their growth dynamism. In the literature two main factors have been advanced to distinguish entrepreneurial from small business ventures. The “Shumpeterian approach” argues that entrepreneurs are characterized by innovative behavior (Carland *et al.*, 1984), while an extended literature focuses on differences in risk behavior to distinguish between entrepreneurial and family ventures. On the one hand, risk behavior differences can arise from specific risk attitudes. This argument was already underlined by Mill (1848), but the accuracy of the risk taking propensity hypothesis remains a widely debated question (Brockhaus, 1980). On the other hand, specific risk behavior can arise from differences in risk exposure. The corporate governance literature underlines that one of the trade off determining ownership structure is the balance between increased private benefits and increased exposure to the firm risk (Bebchuk, 1999). The idea is that the lack of investor protection raises the private benefits of control and forces owners to co-invest more into the firm (Stulz, 2005). This higher co-investment led to a higher exposure of the owner portfolio to the firm idiosyncratic risk what raises his cost of capital and led to under investment (Himmelberg *et al.* 2002). The negative relationship between investment and co-investment is largely verified for large businesses around the world (Morck *et al.*, 2005). However, recent developments in the individual investor literature points out that high exposure to idiosyncratic risk is a common feature for all small businesses (Moskovitz and **Vissing-Jorgensen** 2002) rather than a characteristic of small new ventures.

In this paper I argue that the corporate governance model of co-investment need to be considered in a dynamic framework in order to accurately predict the differences in growth attitude between entrepreneurial ventures and small family businesses. Indeed, traditional corporate governance models assume that the firm ownership structure and owner portfolio diversification are simultaneously determined when the firm is created. However, empirical observation of the actual diversification of small business owners indicates that both entrepreneurs and family firm founder undergo a high under diversification of their asset portfolio. The model developed departs from the hypothesis that portfolio diversification and ownership structure choices occur at different stages in the business life cycle.

Initially, agents decide to become entrepreneurs, they start a firm and later on they might decide to open the firm capital to external investors. It is beyond the scope of this paper to study the initial choice of being an entrepreneur. The risk exposure of small business owners remains a puzzle for financiers: diversified portfolio of public equity seems to offer a far more attractive risk–return tradeoff than that obtained by under diversified controlling shareholders **Moskowitz and Vissing-Jorgensen (2002)** . Moreover, it seems that the cost of under diversified portfolio is not offset by the private benefits of control Odegaard (2009). Overall, portfolio under diversification appears to be a non optimal situation in the mean-variance setting. The rationales for entering into business seems to be related to personal and behavioral issues such as risk assessment, risk preferences, time horizon, non pecuniary private benefits.

The model departs from the business being already a going concern in which the owner has committed all his wealth and retains all the shares. At the first period the owner faces a risky investment opportunity and has to decide how much cash flow to allocate to investment, the remaining funds are allocated to cash reserves. Then, at the second period he faces a fixed investment opportunity. To finance this project he uses the realized cash flow from the initial investment and completes the financing by raising external equity. However, raising new equity is costly because of institutional imperfections that affect the amount of private benefits the owner can extract.

When the owner decides to invest, in period 1, this creates an exogenous cost of raising external equity. Therefore, at this period exogenous parameters linked both the contractual environment and the firm expected performance determines the extent to which the firm ownership structure is flexible. Indeed, firms with a higher flexibility of ownership will undergo a lower cost of raising external equity to finance the new project. At the initial period, the flexibility of ownership influences the firm investment decision. Indeed, the existence of a cost of raising external funds creates an endogenous rationale for internal risk management (Froot et al, 1993). Therefore, the main prediction of the model is that the flexibility of ownership structure (ie, the expected cost of raising external funds in period 1) positively influences firm investment at the initial period by reducing the owner endogenous risk aversion.

I confront the model predictions to actual data, using a large sample of 90 338 French SMEs for the 1999-2007 period.

First, I use the data on older sample firms in order to construct a score of the cost to raise external equity. Departing from the theoretical model, those costs depend on the firm performance, capital structure and contractual environment. Secondly, I apply this score function to determine the predicted cost of raising external equity (ie the ownership flexibility) of younger sample firms. Finally, I use this predicted value of the cost of raising external funds to assess the influence of ownership flexibility on new ventures growth.

Results indicate that ownership flexibility has a positive influence on small business economic growth. Nonetheless, this result could also be explained by the fact that the flexibility of ownership structure and first stage financing resources are related. Therefore, I develop an original indicator of growth capacity: the growth rate allowed by the firm internal resources given its capital structure. Results underline that firms with flexible ownership structure exploit more their growth capacity than firms with lower flexibility of ownership.

Section 2 presents the theoretical model. Section 3 presents the data and the empirical methodology. Section 4 presents the results.

2 The model

This model extends the corporate governance model of co-investment in a dynamic framework by introducing an intermediary time period between the firm setting and the firm choice of ownership structure. At the initial period the firm is an ongoing concern that produces a cash flow of an amount CF_0 . At this period it is assumed that the owner of the firm has vested all his wealth into the firm and that he retains all the shares of the firm. At this initial period the owner faces a stochastic investment opportunity and must decide how much to invest. In order to finance this investment he can use both the cash flow generated by the firm and raises debt. At the second period, the owner faces a new fixed investment opportunity. In order to finance this new investment he uses the proceeds from the first investment and completes the financing by selling firm equity to external investors. The assumption concerning the owner preferences are standard he is risk neutral and his objective is to maximize the proceeds he receives at the last period.

2.1 Structure

Period 0 : The owner faces a stochastic investment opportunity.

At this period, the owner faces an investment opportunity I_0 that offers a random payoff Z_1 at period 1. This net payoff is normal and can be written: $Z_1 - I_0 = \mu_1 + \varepsilon_1$, where μ_1 is the expected realization of the investment and ε_1 is a mean zero disturbance term. The risk (ε_1) of this investment has two components on the one hand a transferable risk (ε_1^T) that can be hedged, and on the other hand a specific risk (ε_1^N) that is not transferable to the market.

At this period the owner chooses which proportion α_0 of the investment opportunity (I_0) to undertake. In order to finance this new investment he uses the proceeds from the firm (CF_0) and can raise debt (D_0) at a cost d . Thus, the owner faces the following budget constraint $\alpha_0 I_0 = CF_0 + D_0 - K_0$, where K_0 is the amount of the initial cash flow the owner devoted to cash reserves in the firm.

Period 1: The fixed investment opportunity and the cost to raise external equity.

At this period the entrepreneur faces a fixed investment opportunity of amount I_1 that generates at period 2 a net payoff $F(I_1)$. This investment project has a positive net present value $F(I_1) > 0$. In order to finance this investment the owner uses the proceeds from the investment at the initial period W_1 and raises external finance of an amount X_1 to complete the financing of the project, thus the project is undertaken only if $I_1 = W_1 + X_1$.

There is a cost to raise external finance at this period, classically the owner cannot costlessly commit to the level of private benefits (b_2) extracted in the next period. Nonetheless, the extraction of private benefits is discouraged by an exogenous punishment technology (γ_1) which imposes a monetary cost for diverting resources. Several institutional factors influence the facility with which private benefits can be extracted, and the cost of diverting resources is increasing in the level of rent extraction. I adopt the functional form proposed by La Porta et al. (1999): $c(\gamma_1, b_2) = \gamma_1 b_2^2$.

The parameter γ_1 is therefore a quantitative index of « investor protection », where higher values of this parameter impose a higher difficulty to divert resources, is meant to summarize the net impact of all features of the contracting environment that influences the cost of diverting resources. An intuitive interpretation of this cost might be the probability to be brought to Courts by minority shareholders.

To the extent that the owner owns equity in the firm, he also steals from himself. Inside ownership is then a mechanism that allows the owner manager to commit to lower levels of future stealing¹. Thus, if the owner extracts private benefits at a rate b_2 he receives a direct private benefit of $(b_2 - \gamma b_2^2)F(I_1)$, and shares with outside shareholders $(1 - b_2)F(I_1)$.

In order for external investors to accept to finance the new project equity proceeds must guarantee their alternative investment opportunity. For simplicity I assume that this rate is

¹ This statement is only accurate if there is no possibility to avoid taxes through the extraction of private benefits. Thus, I implicitly assume that the owner does not considerate tax issues in his decision to extract private benefits.

zero. Therefore, the proceeds from selling fraction $1 - \beta_1$ of the firm equity is given by :
 $X_1 = (1 - \beta_1)(1 - b_2)F(I_1)$, this is the participation constraint of external investors.

2.2 Solution

Period 2: deciding the optimal level of private benefits: the incentive compatibility constraint of the owner.

The owner net return at period 2 is: $N_2 = [\beta_1(1 - b_2) + b_2 - \gamma_1 b_2^2]F(I_1)$. At this period, the only decision facing the owner is to maximize his net return (N_2) by choosing the optimal level of private benefits. The first order condition for maximizing the owner net return is given by $\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial b_2} = 0$. Then, at the optimum the marginal cost of stealing and the marginal reduction of the owner dividends is equated with the marginal benefits of rent extraction. Therefore, the optimal rate of private benefits extraction is given by $b_2^* = \gamma_1^{-1}(1 - \beta_1)$.

Period 1: financing the fixed investment opportunity.

In order to be able to finance the fixed investment opportunity (I_1) the owner has to raise an exogenous amount $X_1 = I_1 - W_1$. Therefore, if the owner decides to invest at period 1 the shares he retains in the firm are given by:

$$\beta_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(2 - \gamma + \frac{\sqrt{\gamma_1} \sqrt{4W_1 - 4I_1 + F(I_1)\gamma_1}}{\sqrt{F(I_1)}} \right)$$

The share retained by the owner is increasing with the proceeds from the initial investment ($\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial W_1} > 0$). This comes from the fact that the owner is confronted with a fixed investment opportunity, thus higher proceeds from the initial investment reduce the amount of

proceeds from equity issuing needed². The share retained by the owner is also increasing with γ_1 , this results from the fact that when investor protection increases then the amount of private benefit extracted by the owner is lower what therefore increases the equity proceeds for the same amount of shared issued³.

Therefore, the payoff for the owner from period 1 perspective is;

$$N_2 = \frac{1}{4}(2W_1 - I_2(2 + \gamma_1 F(I_1)) - 4I_1 + \sqrt{F(I_1)}\sqrt{\gamma_1}\sqrt{4W_1 - 4I_1 + \gamma_1 F(I_1)})$$

The owner payoff is therefore influenced by the proceeds from the initial investment, indeed the owner net return at period 2 is increasing and concave in W_1 .

$$\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{\sqrt{F(I_1)}\sqrt{\gamma_1}}{2\sqrt{4W_1 - 4I_1 + \gamma_1 F(I_1)}} \right) > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1} = - \frac{\sqrt{F(I_1)}\sqrt{\gamma_1}}{[4W_1 - 4I_1 + \gamma_1 F(I_1)]^{\frac{3}{2}}} < 0$$

Period 0: the influence of ownership flexibility on investment decision

At this period, the entrepreneur's objective is to maximizes the value of time 2 net return (N_2) subject to the constraints linked to the realisation of W_1 and his initial budget constraint.

² When $W_1 > I_1 = \bar{W}_1$ then the owner does not issue new equity, and if $W_1 < \bar{W}_1$, then there is no investment because the owner should issue more than 100% in order to finance the new investment.

³ In order for the owner to be able to raise external funds at this period $\gamma_1 > \frac{F(I_1)}{F(I_1) - I_1 + W_1}$.

From the perspective of time 0, the ultimate payoff (N_2) is a random variable. It is assumed that the owner value his asset according to a one factor model, the owner only value his exposure to the market factor.

$$V_0(N_2) = E((N_2)) - \varphi \text{Cov}(N_2, M)$$

where M is the one priced factor, and φ is the equilibrium price of the risk factor⁴.

In order to decide the optimal amount to invest at the initial period the owner solves the following optimization program:

$$\text{Max} V(N_2)$$

$$\alpha_0$$

$$\text{s.t.} W_1 = K_0 - dD_0 + \alpha_0(\mu_1 + \varepsilon_1^N) - \varphi \alpha_0 \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_1^T, M)$$

The first order condition for the optimal level of investment at time 0 is given by

$$\frac{\partial V(N_2)}{\partial \alpha_0} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha_0^* = \frac{\mu_1}{G \text{Var}[\varepsilon_1^N]}$$

where G corresponds to an endogenous coefficient of risk aversion. The optimal level of investment at the initial period then depends positively on the expected profitability of the project, and negatively of the endogenous risk aversion and riskiness of the specific risk factor.

Pining down G I observe that $\frac{\partial G}{\partial \gamma_1} < 0$ is that is firm that operates a technology where it is

more difficult to extract private benefits will have a lower endogenous risk aversion and thus

⁴ To maintain coherence with the participation constraint of external investors at time 1, it is assumed that the risk free of interest between two periods is equal to 0.

invest more aggressively at the initial period. That is firms with more flexible ownership structure will invest more at the initial period.

Moreover, $\frac{\partial G}{\partial K_0} < 0$ that is if the owner allocate more capital to cash reserves at the first period he will reduces his endogenous risk aversion and thus invest more aggressively, however this will be possible only to the extent that he can raises enough debt or have a really high initial cash flow.

Overall, the model predicts that firms with lower ownership flexibility will invest less than small businesses with higher ownership flexibility for a given risk, return and initial resources.

3 Empirical methodology

The model developed in this paper indicates that the flexibility of ownership structure influences small business growth attitude. Indeed, small businesses with lower expected cost of raising external finance (ie higher flexibility of ownership structure) will have a more dynamic investment behavior (ie they are entrepreneurs). In order to explore the accuracy of the model I test on actual data on French SMEs how the flexibility of ownership structure affects the growth policy of small businesses.

3.1 Data and sample selection

This study use a very large sample, where all the relevant information is available for 90 338 French SMEs over the 1999-2007 period. The data comes from the DIANE database, provided by COFACE Services, and contains two types of information. First, all balance sheets and result account information that allows computing growth rates and financial ratios. Secondly, the main advantage of the DIANE database is to furnish information about the ownership structure, in particular the type, names and shares of main shareholders.

For this study I retained firms for which all the relevant information was available at least two consecutive years during the study period. The sample is restricted to private SMEs that are private firms which annual sales are lower than 50 millions Euros a year. I also excluded from the sample firms with annual sales lower than 750 000 Euros, given that the accounting data for the smaller firms is not complete enough. Finally, firms belonging to the financial industry are excluded from the sample given that they are generally holding and thus have a specific financial and productive behavior.

3.2 Flexibility of ownership structure

The core idea of the model is that the flexibility of ownership structure influences small business growth behavior.

In the model the cost of raising external funds arise because of moral hazard issues, indeed insiders can to some extent extract a private rent at the expense of minority shareholders. In order to develop a measure of the flexibility of ownership structure I explore on a subsample containing older firms the factors determining the ownership structure. Thus, I use a subsample containing all the firm for which I have information and that are older than 20 years, where firm *age* is the number of years since the firm creation.

First, I distinguish between family and non family firms. The DIANE database provides the *type of the main shareholder* (individual, company, financial institution, state...), I use this information in order to distinguish between firms that are controlled by an individual and the one controlled by an institution. Then for firm controlled by an individual I compute a variable of *family ownership*: the percentage of firm' shares held by shareholders having the same name are summed for each firm⁵. Then I define *family firms*: firms controlled majoritarily by the same individual or family, and non family firms: firms either controlled by a non individual shareholder or where the individual or the family hold less than 50% of the

⁵ This approach under evaluates the share of a family, as members of the family that do not have the same name (as son in law, for example) are excluded.

shares. The idea of this variable is to distinguish between firms that have been able to open their capital to external shareholders from firms where the external shareholders are still minority. Thus, this binary variable distinguishes between firms with higher potential to open their capital and firms with lower ownership flexibility.

Several variables explain the potential to open firm capital to external investors. On the one hand, the performance of the firm is an important determinant. To capture the firm performance I use the return for shareholder of the firm, thus the return on equity (**ROE**) that is computed as the ratio of net income on equity:

$$ROE_t = \frac{1}{T} \frac{NetIncome_{i,t}}{Equity_{i,t}}$$

Moreover, external investors accept to provide funds to a firm according to the expected returns, therefore their decision is somehow based on the firm growth opportunities. The problem with private firms is that the expectations of the market cannot be measured as market data lacks. Traditionally, studies on public firms use the Tobin Q to appreciate the growth opportunities of the firm. In order, to control for those opportunities I use the degree of internationalization of the firm. I therefore, built a binary variable **Export** that takes value one if part of firm sales occurs abroad and 0 else.

The capital structure of the firm might also influence its ownership structure. On the one hand, firms that access more easily to debt finance might find it cheaper to finance growth with debt instead of using external equity. On the other hand, it is not clear if the agency cost of debt is also exacerbating by the same moral issues than the ownership structure (Anderson, Mansi and Reeb, 2003). Thus, in order to control for this plausible interference of capital structure with the cost of raising external equity I also control for the firm **financial leverage**: that is the ratio of the firm financial debt over its equity.

$$FinancialLeverage_t = \frac{1}{T} \frac{FinancialDebt_{i,t}}{Equity_{i,t}}$$

Most importantly the cost of raising external equity is influenced by organizational issues. On the one hand, the law and finance literature underlines that institutional factors related

to the degree of investor protection influence the incentives and or possibility of extracting private benefits. The empirical literature has principally explored cross-countries differences. However, recent developments indicate that it could also be related to industries specificities (Stulz, 2005). Because I focus on French evidence I use industry dummies in order to control for the plausible specific industry localization related to the institutional environment. The firm' **industry** refers to the belonging of the firm to one industry in a 14 sectors classification (very close to the NACE classification).

On the other hand, property right theory argues that asset specificity plays a determinant influence on the allocation of ownership rights (Grossman and Hart, 1986). In order, to proxy for the asset specificity of sample firms I use an indicator of asset tangibility it is the **fixed assets** of the firm:

$$FixedAssets_{i,t} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{LongTermAssets_{i,t}}{TotalAssets_{i,t}}$$

that is the ratio of fix asset over total asset.

Finally, I also introduce the **accounts receivable** of the firm: this variables accounts for the type of clients of the firm. Indeed, I expect that firms having direct relationship with the final consumer have a higher propensity to extract private benefits.

In order to build a measure of the flexibility of ownership structure, I use the variables described above as explanatory variables in the prediction of the probability of being a family firm. Table 1a presents the estimation of the coefficients using a logit regression, where the modeled probability is the probability that the firm has a flexible ownership structure that is older firms that are not majoritarily controlled by a family.

Results underline that firms that have a higher financial leverage, financial performance, lower specific asset, and are located in business to business industries have an higher probability to be a non family firm. For the interpretation of the industry localization those coefficients can only be interpreted in an ordinal fashion based on the fact that the estimated coefficients are in comparison to the transportation industry. Nonetheless, it appears that investor protection issues seem to be more important in the construction

industry (BTP) and to a lower extent in the trade activities, firms located in this industries have a lower probability to be a non-family firm.

[Insert table 1 about here]

This first estimation allows me to build a score of ownership flexibility using the coefficients obtained in the logit regression. Then, I compute the score for subsample containing the younger firms, that is the firms that have younger than 20 years. Note that the score values are not interpretable per se but conserves the ordinal properties of the variable; that is firms with a higher ownership flexibility score have a higher a priori probability of having a flexible ownership structure. The classification performance of the model, presented in table 1b, indicate that the classification has a concordance rate of 62%. Given this average classification performance I only maintain in the young firm subsample the firms present in the first and last quartiles of the score distribution. The variable of ***inflexible ownership structure*** takes value 1 for firms that have a score lower than the quartile of the score distribution of all young subsample firms, and 0 if the firm belongs to the highest quartile.

3.3 Investment and growth of small businesses

The model indicates that ownership flexibility influences negatively small young business investment by increasing their endogenous coefficient of risk aversion. Thus, the main empirical prediction of the model is that small business that are supposed not to have external capital will invest less if they have an inflexible of ownership structure.

In order to accurately investigate the influence of ownership flexibility I need to disentangle between the mechanical, the performance and the ownership flexibility effect. The ***mechanical effect*** is related to the fact that there is variation in ownership concentration even in small young businesses. The ***performance effect*** is related to the fact that at the initial period firms are supposed to rely on internal resources to finance growth. Then it is necessary to control for firm internal financing resources.

To explore the relationship between ownership flexibility and small business growth I use economic growth and sustainable growth. Economic growth is captured using, the average firm annual growth rate of sales, and investment rate.

- **Sales growth:** is the average of the annual growth rates of turnover over the 1999-2007 period.

$$SalesGrowth_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1997}^{2002} SalesGrowth_{i,t} ,$$

$$\text{with, } SalesGrowth_{i,t} = \frac{Turnover_{i,t+1}}{Turnover_{i,t}} - 1$$

- **Investment:** is the average of the annual growth rates of long-term assets and working capital over the 1999-2007 period.

$$Investment_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1997}^{2002} Investment_{i,t}$$

$$\text{with, } Investment_{i,t} = \frac{Pr oductiveAssets_{i,t+1}}{Pr oductiveAssets_{i,t}} - 1$$

$$\text{where, } Pr odcutiveAs sets_{i,t} = LongTermAs sets_{i,t} + WorkingCapital_{i,t}$$

$$WorkingCapital_{i,t} = Accounts Re ceivable_{i,t} + Inventories_{i,t} - AccountsPayables_{i,t}$$

I include working capital in the investment as it participates in the production process of the firm, especially in non manufacturing industries. The investment then is the closer empirical proxy for the actual investment in the theoretical model because it excludes the cash capital (K_0) mentioned in the model.

However, the model also assumes that at the first period firms are all characterized by a completely concentrated ownership structure. Unfortunately, this theoretical assumption is not verified in the data. Small and young businesses tend to be characterized by a high ownership concentration (Brav, 2009), but there is large ownership structure variations across small business. I use **sustainable growth**, the maximum rate at which firms can

growth without altering their financial structure, in order to isolate the effects of possible variation in the ownership structure of younger firms. Sustainable growth is the rate of economic growth that maintains the debt leverage unchanged and avoids increasing the share of outside shareholders (Higgings, 2007). The sustainable growth rate corresponds to the annual growth rate of retained earnings:

$$SustainableGrowth_{i,t} = RetentionRate_{i,t} \times ROE_{i,t}$$

The sustainable growth rate is influenced by the financial performance and the distribution policy of the firm. The financial performance is measured by the return on equity. But, it is not possible to compute firms' retention rate because the information on dividends distribution is not correctly filled in the database. The sustainable growth rate is computed as the average annual growth rate of internal equity.

$$SustainableGrowth_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1997}^{2002} SustainableGrowth_{i,t}$$

$$SustainableGrowth_{i,t} = \frac{InternalEquity_{i,t+1}}{InternalEquity_{i,t}} - 1,$$

with $InternalEquity_{i,t} = TotalEquity_{i,t} - SocialCapital_{i,t}$

Finally, the **gap** variables allow assessing to what extent firms exploit their growth potential allowed by their internal resources and leverage. GAP variables are the difference between the sustainable growth rate and the economic growth rate of the firm:

$$GapSales_i = SustainableGrowth_i - SalesGrowth_i$$

$$GapInvestment_i = SustainableGrowth_i - Investment_i$$

The gap variables allow to control for both the mechanical and performance effect of family control on growth. On the one hand, sustainable growth is the maximum rate at which firms can finance growth without resorting to external capital financing, this controls for the mechanical effect. On the other hand, the level of sustainable growth is influenced by firm performance (ROE), thus using the gap variable also allow controlling for the performance effect.

Finally, to accurately assess the influence of ownership flexibility on firm's growth it is necessary to control for the other factors that influence firm's growth.

First, technological factors such as the importance of economies of scale in the industry, the size of the market where businesses operate influence firm's growth (Kumar, Rajan, and Zingales; 1999). In order to take into account those factors two variables control for firm's size and age. Firm **size** is the total asset of the firm in the last year for which accounting information was available. Total asset rather than turnover is used to proxy for firm size in order to avoid mechanical correlation with the sales growth rate.

Secondly, small business growth depends on the growth opportunities of the firm that in the model are summarized by its performance and risk. Thus, I control both for the operating profitability and risk of the firm. The **ROA** is computed as the ratio of the EBITDA to total assets $ROA_t = \frac{1}{T} \frac{EBITDA_{i,t}}{TotalAsset_{i,t}}$, and firm risk (**SROA**) is the standard deviation of the ROA on the period.

Finally, in the model the capacity to invest at the initial period depends on the easiness to raise debt. Indeed, in the extreme case where the firm can raise an infinite amount of debt and the cost of debt is zero then any firm will have a dynamic investment opportunity as they can reduce their endogenous risk aversion by placing an infinite amount of cash capital. Therefore, I also control for the firm **financial leverage**.

[Insert table 2 about here]

4 Results

First, I test for the global influence of flexibility of ownership structure on firm growth: that is do firms with inflexible ownership structure invest less. However, as already mentioned this could be related to the fact that they have a lower performance reducing their financing resources thus to really isolate the flexibility of ownership effect I use the gap variable in order to observe if firms that dispose of the amount of resources (debt and initial cash flow) exploit their growth potential to the same extent.

To check at firm level the influence of expected ownership inflexibility on small business growth I estimate the following model:

$$EconomicGrowth_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 FO_i + \sum_{n=1}^N \beta_n Control_{n,i} + \varepsilon_i (1)$$

where, ε is the error term, **FO** is the dummy variable of inflexible ownership structure built upon the regression presented in section 3.2, **economic growth** is either the average annual sales growth or investment rate of firm i , and **control** are the different control variables for firm i . Specifications 1 to 4 in Table 3 present the results of ordinary least square estimation of the model parameters respectively for the average annual sales growth and investment rates.

Results in specification 1 to 4 in table 3 underline the negative influence of lack of flexibility of ownership structure on firm economic growth. On average less flexible ownership firms have a 30% lower growth rate than firms with a flexible ownership prospect. This result holds when controlling for other factors influencing firm growth but decrease the economic significance.

The signs of the estimates of the control variables are as expected and consistent across the different specifications. Firm size has a positive influence on firm economic growth. The positive influence of size on firm economic growth can be related to technological arguments and not to informational issues. Firm age has a negative impact on firm growth, what is quite intuitive. I interpret this negative sign as showing that as firm get older they are closer to their stationary size and then stabilize firm growth rate. Firm economic performance and operational risk that account to some extent for the firm growth have a positive effect on firm economic growth. Finally, the leverage ratio has a positive influence on firm growth: small businesses that are able to raise debt have more resources and thus can invest more.

However, those results could be in part driven by the fact that firms with lower prospect of opening their capital have a lower performance and thus are less able to produce cash flows.

To explore the influence of family control on firm growth attitude I estimate the following model:

$$Gap_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 Family_i + \sum_{n=1}^N \beta_n Control_{ni} + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

where, ε is the error term, **FO** is the dummy variable of inflexible ownership structure built upon the regression presented in section 3.2, **gap** is the difference between average annual sustainable growth and either the average annual sales growth or investment rate of firm i , and control are the different control variables for firm i . Specification 5 to 8 in table 3 present the results of ordinary least square estimation of the model parameters respectively for the gap between sustainable growth and average annual sales growth (GAP1) and investment rates (GAP2).

Results provide support to the fact that firms with inflexible ownership structure exploit less their growth potential. Indeed, the gap between sustainable growth and economic growth is higher for firms with higher expected cost of raising external equity.

Finally, results underline that firm size and age influences negatively firm conservative attitude toward growth, this observation indicate that the theoretical model is better adapted to small and young businesses. Moreover, leverage influences negatively the gap variable, firms with better access to credit are able to reduce their endogenous risk aversion and thus can invest more.

REFERENCES

Anderson, R., S. Mansi and D. Reeb (2003), "Founding family ownership and the agency cost of debt" ,*Journal of financial economics* 68, 263--285.

Bebchuk, L. 1999). "**A Rent-Protection Theory of Corporate Ownership and Control**," ,*NBER Working Papers* 7203,

Berle, A., and G. Means (1932), The Modern corporation and private property, Brace and World, New York: Harcourt.

Brav, O. (2009), "Access to capital, capital structure, and the funding of the firm," *Journal of Finance* 64 1, 263--308.

Brockhaus, R. (1980), "Risk taking propensity of entrepreneurs", *Academy of Management Journal* 23 (3), 39-57.

Carland , J., F. Hoy, W. Boulton, and J. Carland (1984), « Differentiating entrepreneurs from small business owners : A conceptualization » , *Academy of Management Journal* 9 (2), 354-359.

Froot, K., D. Schaferstain, and J. Stein (1993), "Risk management: coordinating corporate investment and financing policies", *Journal of Finance* 48, 1629-1658.

Froot, K., and J. Stein (1998), "Risk management, capital budgeting, and capital structure policy for financial institutions: an integrated approach", *Journal of financial Economics* 47, 55-82.

Grossman , S., and O. Hart, (1986). « The costs and benefits of ownership: a theory of vertical integration », *Journal of Political Economy* 94(4), 691-719.

Higgins R. (2007). Analysis for financial management, 8th edition, McGraw--Hill Higher Education, New York.

Himmelberg , C., G. Hubbard, and I. Love (2002), " Investor protection, ownership, and the cost of capital",

Kumar, K., R. Rajan and L. Zingales (1999), "What Determines firm size? " *NBER WP7208*.

La Porta, R., F Lopez-de-Silanes, A. Shleifer, and R. Vishny (1999), "Corporate ownership around the world", *Journal of Finance* 54 (2), 471-517.

La Porta, R., F. Lopez-De-Silanes, A. Shleifer, and R. Vishny (2000), "Investor protection and corporate governance", *Journal of Financial Economics* 58 (1), 1-25.

Mill J.(1848),Principles of political economy with some of their applications to social philosophy, London:John W. Parker.

Morck, R., D. Wolfenzon, and B. Yeung (2005), "Corporate governance, economic entrenchment and growth", *Journal of Economic Literature* 43 3, 655-730.

Moskowitz, T. and A. Vissing-Jørgensen (2002), "The returns to entrepreneurial investment: A private equity premium puzzle?," *American Economic Review* 92, 745-778.

Ødegaard, B. (2009), "The diversification cost of large, concentrated equity stakes. How big is it? Is it justified? ",*Finance Research Letters* 62, 56-72.

Stulz, R. (2005)"The Limits of financial Globalization," *Journal of Finance* 60(4), 1595-1638.

APPENDIX

Following the demonstration by Froot and Stein (1998) it can be showed that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial V(N_2)}{\partial \alpha_0} &= 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1}\right) &\left(E\left(\frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0}\right) - \gamma \frac{\partial \text{Cov}(W_1, M)}{\partial \alpha_0}\right) + E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right) \left[\text{Cov}\left(W_1, \frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0}\right) - E\left(\frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0}\right) \varphi \text{Cov}(W_1, M)\right] \\ &- E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right) \left[\varphi \text{Cov}(W_1, M) \text{Cov}\left(W_1, \frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0}\right)\right] \end{aligned}$$

Given the specification of the model I obtain the following

$$\frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0} = (\mu_1 + \varepsilon_1^N)$$

$$E \frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0} = \mu_1 - \varphi \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_1^T, M)$$

$$E(W_1) = K_0 + \alpha \mu_1 - (1+d)D_0 \quad 6$$

$$\text{Cov}\left(W_1, \frac{\partial W_1}{\partial \alpha_0}\right) = \alpha_0 \text{Var}[\varepsilon_1^N]$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Cov}(W_1, M)}{\partial \alpha_0} = \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_1^N, M) = 0$$

Then I obtain:

$$\frac{\partial V(N_2)}{\partial \alpha_0} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1}\right)(\mu_1) + E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right)[\alpha_0 \text{Var}[\varepsilon_1] - \mu_1 \varphi \text{Cov}(W_1, M)]$$

$$- E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right)[\varphi \text{Cov}(W_1, M) \times \alpha_0 \text{Var}[\varepsilon_1]]$$

By definition the risk represented by the investment technology of the firm is specific and

$$\text{cannot be } G = \frac{-E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right) + E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right) \text{Cov}(W_1, M)}{E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1}\right) + E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right) \text{Cov}(W_1, M)} \text{ but if it is assumed that the firm}$$

$$\text{has hedge all the non specific risk, thus } G = \frac{-E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1 \partial W_1}\right)}{E\left(\frac{\partial N_2}{\partial W_1}\right)}$$

⁶ Because the risk of the specific risk is completely independent of the market then $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_1, M) = 0$

$$G = \frac{2\sqrt{F(I_2)\gamma}}{\sqrt{F(I_2)\gamma} \times (4((K_0 + \alpha\mu_1) - 4I_2 + \gamma F(I_2)) + (4((K_0 + \alpha\mu_1) - 4I_2 + \gamma F(I_2)))^{\frac{3}{2}})}$$

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial \gamma} < 0 = \frac{-2F(I_2)\gamma - \frac{2\sqrt{F(I_2)(4((K_0 + \alpha\mu_1) - 4I_2 + \gamma F(I_2))) \times (2I_2 + \gamma F(I_2) - 2(K_0 + \alpha\mu_1))}}{\sqrt{\gamma}}}{(\sqrt{F(I_2)\gamma} \times (4((K_0 + \alpha\mu_1) - 4I_2 + \gamma F(I_2)) + (4((K_0 + \alpha\mu_1) - 4I_2 + \gamma F(I_2)))^{\frac{3}{2}}))^2}$$

TABLES

Table 1

TABLE 1a: Estimation of the probability of being a non family firm

The standard errors of estimates are reported in italics under the value of the estimated coefficients. *** indicates that coefficients estimates are significant at the 1% level according to the khi 2 Wald test , ** at 5%, and * at 10%.

	<i>prob fam=0</i>
<i>Leverage</i>	0,0490 *** <i>0,0119</i>
<i>Export</i>	0,0175 <i>0,0285</i> 3,7151 ***
<i>ROE</i>	<i>0,2678</i>
<i>Working Capital</i>	0,0004 *** <i>0,0000</i>
<i>Fixed Assets</i>	0,2772 *** <i>0,1057</i>
<i>Agricultural</i>	0,0251 <i>0,1229</i>
<i>Energy</i>	0,9900 ** <i>0,4823</i> - ***
<i>Construction</i>	0,1407 <i>0,0412</i>
<i>Retail trade</i>	0,4343 *** <i>0,0429</i>
<i>Wholesale trade</i>	0,1692 *** <i>0,0418</i>
<i>Real estate</i>	1,2482 *** <i>0,1162</i>
<i>Hotels and restaurants</i>	1,2826 *** <i>0,1149</i>
<i>Manufacturing of equipment goods</i>	0,1462 *** <i>0,0530</i>
<i>Food industry</i>	0,3410 *** <i>0,0946</i>
<i>Manufacturing of intermediary goods</i>	0,3052 *** <i>0,0585</i>
<i>Manufactuirng of consumption goods</i>	0,2873 *** <i>0,0602</i>
<i>Services to the firms</i>	0,8621 *** <i>0,0667</i>
<i>Services to individuals</i>	1,1902 *** <i>0,1176</i>
<i>Number of Observations</i>	29784

TABLE 1b: Quality of model 1

TEST	
<i>Likelihood Ratio Score</i>	7254,573 ***
<i>Wald</i>	5469,9684 ***
Quality of fit	
<i>Percent Concordant</i>	62,1
<i>Percent Discordant</i>	37,3
<i>Percent Tied</i>	0,6
<i>Somers' D</i>	0,248
<i>Gamma</i>	0,25
<i>Tau-a</i>	0,1
<i>c</i>	0,624

Table 2

Panel A: Descriptive statistics full sample (N=30277)	Mean	Standard Error	Median
<i>Sales Growth</i>	0,3451	0,5791	0,1626
<i>Investment Growth</i>	0,3022	0,5002	0,1595
<i>GAP 1</i>	0,1392	1,1534	0,1642
<i>GAP 2</i>	0,1822	1,1245	0,1621
<i>Size (Total Assets) in K€</i>	1594	2493	728
<i>Age</i>	8,5983	4,7918	8,0000
<i>Leverage</i>	1,3128	1,4436	0,8467
<i>ROA</i>	0,1795	0,1661	0,1426
<i>SROA</i>	0,0726	0,0783	0,0570

Panel B: Mean comparison according ownership unflexibility	FO=0 Mean n=15002	FO=1 Mean n=15275
<i>Sales Growth</i>	0,4069	0,2834 ***
<i>Investment Growth</i>	0,3560	0,2484 ****
<i>GAP 1</i>	0,1232	0,1553 ***
<i>GAP 2</i>	0,1741	0,1902
<i>Size (Total Assets) in K €</i>	2341	848 ***
<i>Age</i>	8,0004	9,1963 ***
<i>Leverage</i>	1,2174	1,4082
<i>ROA</i>	0,2416	0,1174 ***
<i>SROA</i>	0,0877	0,0578 ***

TABLE 3: Influence of the flexibility of ownership structure on firm growth

	Sales growth		Investment growth		GAP 1		GAP 2	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<i>Flexibility of ownership structure</i>	-0,1234 *** <i>0,0057</i>	-0,0488 *** <i>0,0068</i>	-0,1034 *** <i>0,0050</i>	-0,048 *** <i>0,006</i>	0,0430 *** <i>0,0122</i>	0,0449 *** <i>0,0148</i>	0,0230 * <i>0,0120</i>	0,0441 *** <i>0,0145</i>
<i>Size (Log total assets)</i>		0,0461 *** <i>0,0035</i>		0,013 *** <i>0,003</i>		-0,0396 *** <i>0,0076</i>		-0,0067 <i>0,0074</i>
<i>Age (Log of years since creation)</i>		-0,1802 *** <i>0,0048</i>		-0,147 *** <i>0,004</i>		-0,2065 *** <i>0,0104</i>		-0,2395 *** <i>0,0102</i>
<i>ROA</i>		0,0706 *** <i>0,0207</i>		0,127 *** <i>0,018</i>		-0,0498 <i>0,0451</i>		-0,1064 ** <i>0,0442</i>
<i>Risk (STD ROA)</i>		0,2872 *** <i>0,0376</i>		0,336 *** <i>0,033</i>		-0,3694 *** <i>0,0820</i>		-0,4184 *** <i>0,0804</i>
<i>Leverage</i>		0,0108 *** <i>0,0021</i>		0,008 *** <i>0,002</i>		-0,0569 *** <i>0,0046</i>		-0,0545 *** <i>0,0045</i>
<i>Intercept</i>	0,3519 *** <i>0,0040</i>	0,3190 <i>0,0274</i>	0,3160 <i>0,0036</i>	0,441 <i>0,024</i>	0,1561 *** <i>0,0087</i>	0,9592 <i>0,0597</i>	0,1919 *** <i>0,0085</i>	0,8368 *** <i>0,0585</i>
<i>F</i>	470,69 ***	350,93 ***	425,85 *****	327,89 ***	12,41 ***	104,45 ***	3,69 *	117,28 ***
<i>R2</i>	0,0153	0,065	0,0139	0,061	0,0004	0,0203	0,0001	0,0227
<i>NB Observations</i>	30277	30277	30277	30277	30277	30277	30277	30277

The standard errors of estimates are reported in italics under the value of the estimated coefficients. *** indicates that coefficients estimates are significant at the 1% level according to the student test, ** at 5%, and * at 10%.

Working Papers

Laboratoire de Recherche en Gestion & Economie

- D.R. n° 1 "Bertrand Oligopoly with decreasing returns to scale", J. Thépot, décembre 1993
- D.R. n° 2 "Sur quelques méthodes d'estimation directe de la structure par terme des taux d'intérêt", P. Roger - N. Rossiensky, janvier 1994
- D.R. n° 3 "Towards a Monopoly Theory in a Managerial Perspective", J. Thépot, mai 1993
- D.R. n° 4 "Bounded Rationality in Microeconomics", J. Thépot, mai 1993
- D.R. n° 5 "Apprentissage Théorique et Expérience Professionnelle", J. Thépot, décembre 1993
- D.R. n° 6 "Strategic Consumers in a Duable-Goods Monopoly", J. Thépot, avril 1994
- D.R. n° 7 "Vendre ou louer ; un apport de la théorie des jeux", J. Thépot, avril 1994
- D.R. n° 8 "Default Risk Insurance and Incomplete Markets", Ph. Artzner - FF. Delbaen, juin 1994
- D.R. n° 9 "Les actions à réinvestissement optionnel du dividende", C. Marie-Jeanne - P. Roger, janvier 1995
- D.R. n° 10 "Forme optimale des contrats d'assurance en présence de coûts administratifs pour l'assureur", S. Spaeter, février 1995
- D.R. n° 11 "Une procédure de codage numérique des articles", J. Jeunet, février 1995
- D.R. n° 12 "Stabilité d'un diagnostic concurrentiel fondé sur une approche markovienne du comportement de rachat du consommateur", N. Schall, octobre 1995
- D.R. n° 13 "A direct proof of the coase conjecture", J. Thépot, octobre 1995
- D.R. n° 14 "Invitation à la stratégie", J. Thépot, décembre 1995
- D.R. n° 15 "Charity and economic efficiency", J. Thépot, mai 1996
- D.R. n° 16 "Pricing anomalies in financial markets and non linear pricing rules", P. Roger, mars 1996
- D.R. n° 17 "Non linéarité des coûts de l'assureur, comportement de prudence de l'assuré et contrats optimaux", S. Spaeter, avril 1996
- D.R. n° 18 "La valeur ajoutée d'un partage de risque et l'optimum de Pareto : une note", L. Eeckhoudt - P. Roger, juin 1996
- D.R. n° 19 "Evaluation of Lot-Sizing Techniques : A robustness and Cost Effectiveness Analysis", J. Jeunet, mars 1996
- D.R. n° 20 "Entry accommodation with idle capacity", J. Thépot, septembre 1996

- D.R. n° 21 "Différences culturelles et satisfaction des vendeurs : Une comparaison internationale", E. Vauquois-Mathevot - J.Cl. Usunier, novembre 1996
- D.R. n° 22 "Evaluation des obligations convertibles et options d'échange", Schmitt - F. Home, décembre 1996
- D.R. n° 23 "Réduction d'un programme d'optimisation globale des coûts et diminution du temps de calcul, J. Jeunet, décembre 1996
- D.R. n° 24 "Incertitude, vérifiabilité et observabilité : Une relecture de la théorie de l'agence", J. Thépot, janvier 1997
- D.R. n° 25 "Financement par augmentation de capital avec asymétrie d'information : l'apport du paiement du dividende en actions", C. Marie-Jeanne, février 1997
- D.R. n° 26 "Paiement du dividende en actions et théorie du signal", C. Marie-Jeanne, février 1997
- D.R. n° 27 "Risk aversion and the bid-ask spread", L. Eeckhoudt - P. Roger, avril 1997
- D.R. n° 28 "De l'utilité de la contrainte d'assurance dans les modèles à un risque et à deux risques", S. Spaeter, septembre 1997
- D.R. n° 29 "Robustness and cost-effectiveness of lot-sizing techniques under revised demand forecasts", J. Jeunet, juillet 1997
- D.R. n° 30 "Efficience du marché et comparaison de produits à l'aide des méthodes d'enveloppe (Data envelopment analysis)", S. Chabi, septembre 1997
- D.R. n° 31 "Qualités de la main-d'œuvre et subventions à l'emploi : Approche microéconomique", J. Calaza - P. Roger, février 1998
- D.R. n° 32 "Probabilité de défaut et spread de taux : Etude empirique du marché français", M. Merli - P. Roger, février 1998
- D.R. n° 33 "Confiance et Performance : La thèse de Fukuyama", J.Cl. Usunier - P. Roger, avril 1998
- D.R. n° 34 "Measuring the performance of lot-sizing techniques in uncertain environments", J. Jeunet - N. Jonard, janvier 1998
- D.R. n° 35 "Mobilité et décision de consommation : premiers résultats dans un cadre monopolistique", Ph. Lapp, octobre 1998
- D.R. n° 36 "Impact du paiement du dividende en actions sur le transfert de richesse et la dilution du bénéfice par action", C. Marie-Jeanne, octobre 1998
- D.R. n° 37 "Maximum resale-price-maintenance as Nash condition", J. Thépot, novembre 1998
- D.R. n° 38 "Properties of bid and ask prices in the rank dependent expected utility model", P. Roger, décembre 1998
- D.R. n° 39 "Sur la structure par termes des spreads de défaut des obligations », Maxime Merli / Patrick Roger, septembre 1998
- D.R. n° 40 "Le risque de défaut des obligations : un modèle de défaut temporaire de l'émetteur", Maxime Merli, octobre 1998
- D.R. n° 41 "The Economics of Doping in Sports", Nicolas Eber / Jacques Thépot, février 1999
- D.R. n° 42 "Solving large unconstrained multilevel lot-sizing problems using a hybrid genetic algorithm", Jully Jeunet, mars 1999
- D.R. n° 43 "Niveau général des taux et spreads de rendement", Maxime Merli, mars 1999

- D.R. n° 44 "Doping in Sport and Competition Design", Nicolas Eber / Jacques Thépot, septembre 1999
- D.R. n° 45 "Interactions dans les canaux de distribution", Jacques Thépot, novembre 1999
- D.R. n° 46 "What sort of balanced scorecard for hospital", Thierry Nobre, novembre 1999
- D.R. n° 47 "Le contrôle de gestion dans les PME", Thierry Nobre, mars 2000
- D.R. n° 48 "Stock timing using genetic algorithms", Jerzy Korczak – Patrick Roger, avril 2000
- D.R. n° 49 "On the long run risk in stocks : A west-side story", Patrick Roger, mai 2000
- D.R. n° 50 "Estimation des coûts de transaction sur un marché gouverné par les ordres : Le cas des composantes du CAC40", Laurent Deville, avril 2001
- D.R. n° 51 "Sur une mesure d'efficacité relative dans la théorie du portefeuille de Markowitz", Patrick Roger / Maxime Merli, septembre 2001
- D.R. n° 52 "Impact de l'introduction du tracker Master Share CAC 40 sur la relation de parité call-put", Laurent Deville, mars 2002
- D.R. n° 53 "Market-making, inventories and martingale pricing", Patrick Roger / Christian At / Laurent Flochel, mai 2002
- D.R. n° 54 "Tarification au coût complet en concurrence imparfaite", Jean-Luc Netzer / Jacques Thépot, juillet 2002
- D.R. n° 55 "Is time-diversification efficient for a loss averse investor ?", Patrick Roger, janvier 2003
- D.R. n° 56 "Dégradations de notations du leader et effets de contagion", Maxime Merli / Alain Schatt, avril 2003
- D.R. n° 57 "Subjective evaluation, ambiguity and relational contracts", Brigitte Godbillon, juillet 2003
- D.R. n° 58 "A View of the European Union as an Evolving Country Portfolio", Pierre-Guillaume Méon / Laurent Weill, juillet 2003
- D.R. n° 59 "Can Mergers in Europe Help Banks Hedge Against Macroeconomic Risk ?", Pierre-Guillaume Méon / Laurent Weill, septembre 2003
- D.R. n° 60 "Monetary policy in the presence of asymmetric wage indexation", Giuseppe Diana / Pierre-Guillaume Méon, juillet 2003
- D.R. n° 61 "Concurrence bancaire et taille des conventions de services", Corentine Le Roy, novembre 2003
- D.R. n° 62 "Le petit monde du CAC 40", Sylvie Chabi / Jérôme Maati
- D.R. n° 63 "Are Athletes Different ? An Experimental Study Based on the Ultimatum Game", Nicolas Eber / Marc Willinger
- D.R. n° 64 "Le rôle de l'environnement réglementaire, légal et institutionnel dans la défaillance des banques : Le cas des pays émergents", Christophe Godlewski, janvier 2004
- D.R. n° 65 "Etude de la cohérence des ratings de banques avec la probabilité de défaillance bancaire dans les pays émergents", Christophe Godlewski, Mars 2004
- D.R. n° 66 "Le comportement des étudiants sur le marché du téléphone mobile : Inertie, captivité ou fidélité ?", Corentine Le Roy, Mai 2004
- D.R. n° 67 "Insurance and Financial Hedging of Oil Pollution Risks", André Schmitt / Sandrine Spaeter, September, 2004

- D.R. n° 68 "On the Backwardness in Macroeconomic Performance of European Socialist Economies", Laurent Weill, September, 2004
- D.R. n° 69 "Majority voting with stochastic preferences : The whims of a committee are smaller than the whims of its members", Pierre-Guillaume Méon, September, 2004
- D.R. n° 70 "Modélisation de la prévision de défaillance de la banque : Une application aux banques des pays émergents", Christophe J. Godlewski, octobre 2004
- D.R. n° 71 "Can bankruptcy law discriminate between heterogeneous firms when information is incomplete ? The case of legal sanctions", Régis Blazy, october 2004
- D.R. n° 72 "La performance économique et financière des jeunes entreprises", Régis Blazy/Bertrand Chopard, octobre 2004
- D.R. n° 73 "Ex Post Efficiency of bankruptcy procedures : A general normative framework", Régis Blazy / Bertrand Chopard, novembre 2004
- D.R. n° 74 "Full cost pricing and organizational structure", Jacques Thépot, décembre 2004
- D.R. n° 75 "Prices as strategic substitutes in the Hotelling duopoly", Jacques Thépot, décembre 2004
- D.R. n° 76 "Réflexions sur l'extension récente de la statistique de prix et de production à la santé et à l'enseignement", Damien Broussolle, mars 2005
- D. R. n° 77 "Gestion du risque de crédit dans la banque : Information hard, information soft et manipulation ", Brigitte Godbillon-Camus / Christophe J. Godlewski
- D.R. n° 78 "Which Optimal Design For LLDAs", Marie Pfiffelmann
- D.R. n° 79 "Jensen and Meckling 30 years after : A game theoretic view", Jacques Thépot
- D.R. n° 80 "Organisation artistique et dépendance à l'égard des ressources", Odile Paulus, novembre 2006
- D.R. n° 81 "Does collateral help mitigate adverse selection ? A cross-country analysis", Laurent Weill –Christophe J. Godlewski, novembre 2006
- D.R. n° 82 "Why do banks ask for collateral and which ones ?", Régis Blazy - Laurent Weill, décembre 2006
- D.R. n° 83 "The peace of work agreement : The emergence and enforcement of a swiss labour market institution", D. Broussolle, janvier 2006.
- D.R. n° 84 "The new approach to international trade in services in view of services specificities : Economic and regulation issues", D. Broussolle, septembre 2006.
- D.R. n° 85 "Does the consciousness of the disposition effect increase the equity premium" ?, P. Roger, juin 2007
- D.R. n° 86 "Les déterminants de la décision de syndication bancaire en France", Ch. J. Godlewski
- D.R. n° 87 "Syndicated loans in emerging markets", Ch. J. Godlewski / L. Weill, mars 2007
- D.R. n° 88 "Hawks and doves in segmented markets : A formal approach to competitive aggressiveness", Claude d'Aspremont / R. Dos Santos Ferreira / J. Thépot, mai 2007
- D.R. n° 89 "On the optimality of the full cost pricing", J. Thépot, février 2007
- D.R. n° 90 "SME's main bank choice and organizational structure : Evidence from France", H. El Hajj Chehade / L. Vigneron, octobre 2007

- D.R n° 91 “How to solve St Petersburg Paradox in Rank-Dependent Models” ?, M. Pfiffelmann, octobre 2007
- D.R. n° 92 “Full market opening in the postal services facing the social and territorial cohesion goal in France”, D. Broussolle, novembre 2007
- D.R. n° 2008-01 A behavioural Approach to financial puzzles, M.H. Broihanne, M. Merli, P. Roger, janvier 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-02 What drives the arrangement timetable of bank loan syndication ?, Ch. J. Godlewski, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-03 Financial intermediation and macroeconomic efficiency, Y. Kuhry, L. Weill, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-04 The effects of concentration on competition and efficiency : Some evidence from the french audit market, G. Broye, L. Weill, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-05 Does financial intermediation matter for macroeconomic efficiency?, P.G. Méon, L. Weill, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-06 Is corruption an efficient grease ?, P.G. Méon, L. Weill, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-07 Convergence in banking efficiency across european countries, L. Weill, février 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-08 Banking environment, agency costs, and loan syndication : A cross-country analysis, Ch. J. Godlewski, mars 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-09 Are French individual investors reluctant to realize their losses ?, Sh. Boolell-Gunesh / M.H. Broihanne / M. Merli, avril 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-10 Collateral and adverse selection in transition countries, Ch. J. Godlewski / L. Weill, avril 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-11 How many banks does it take to lend ? Empirical evidence from Europe, Ch. J. Godlewski, avril 2008.
- D.R. n° 2008-12 Un portrait de l’investisseur individuel français, Sh. Boolell-Gunesh, avril 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-13 La déclaration de mission, une revue de la littérature, Odile Paulus, juin 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-14 Performance et risque des entreprises appartenant à des groupes de PME, Anaïs Hamelin, juin 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-15 Are private banks more efficient than public banks ? Evidence from Russia, Alexei Karas / Koen Schoors / Laurent Weill, septembre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-16 Capital protected notes for loss averse investors : A counterintuitive result, Patrick Roger, septembre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-17 Mixed risk aversion and preference for risk disaggregation, Patrick Roger, octobre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-18 Que peut-on attendre de la directive services ?, Damien Broussolle, octobre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-19 Bank competition and collateral : Theory and Evidence, Christa Hainz / Laurent Weill / Christophe J. Godlewski, octobre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-20 Duration of syndication process and syndicate organization, Ch. J. Godlewski, novembre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-21 How corruption affects bank lending in Russia, L. Weill, novembre 2008
- D.R. n° 2008-22 On several economic consequences of the full market opening in the postal service in the European Union, D. Broussolle, novembre 2008.

- D.R. n° 2009-01 Asymmetric Information and Loan Spreads in Russia: Evidence from Syndicated Loans, Z. Fungacova, C.J. Godlewski, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2009-02 Do Islamic Banks Have Greater Market Power ?, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2009-03 CEO Compensation: Too Much is not Enough!, N. Couderc & L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2009-04 La cannibalisation des produits à prix aléatoires : L'Euromillions a-t-il tué le loto français?, P. Roger & S. Chabi
- D.R. n° 2009-05 The demand for Euromillions lottery tickets: An international comparison, P. Roger
- D.R. n° 2009-06 Concentration in corporate bank loans What do we learn from European comparisons?, C.J. Godlewski & Y. Ziane
- D.R. n° 2009-07 Le mariage efficace de l'épargne et du jeu : une approche historique, M. Pfiffelmann
- D.R. n° 2009-08 Testing alternative theories of financial decision making: an experimental study with lottery bonds, P. Roger
- D.R. n° 2009-09 Does Corruption Hamper Bank Lending? Macro and Micro Evidence, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2009-10 La Théorie Comportementale du Portefeuille et l'Equilibre du Marché, O. Bourachnikova
- D.R. n° 2009-11 Déformation des Probabilités Objectives et la Théorie Comportementale du Portefeuille, O. Bourachnikova
- D.R. n° 2009-12 La Théorie Comportementale du Portefeuille vs. le modèle moyenne – variance. Étude empirique, O. Bourachnikova
- D.R. n° 2009-13 Symmetric vs. Downside Risk: Does It Matter for Portfolio Choice? O. Bourachnikova & N. Yusupov
- D.R. n° 2009-14 Negative Agency Costs, J. Thépot
- D.R. n° 2010-01 Does family control of small business lead to under exploitation of their financial growth potential? Evidence of the existence of conservative growth behavior in family controlled French SMEs, A. Hamelin
- D.R. n° 2010-02 Better borrowers, fewer banks?, C.J. Godlewski & F. Lobe & J.-C. Statnik & Y. Ziane
- D.R. n° 2010-03 Responsabilité sociale de l'entreprise et théorie de l'organisation, J. Thépot
- D.R. n° 2010-04 Small business groups enhance performance and promote stability, not expropriation. Evidence from French SMEs, A. Hamelin
- D.R. n° 2010-05 Are Islamic Investment Certificates Special? Evidence on the Post-Announcement Performance of Sukuk Issues, C.J. Godlewski & R. Turk-Ariss & L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2010-06 Trading activity and Overconfidence: First Evidence from a large European Database, S. Boolell-Gunesh & M. Merli
- D.R. n° 2010-07 Bank lending networks, experience, reputation, and borrowing costs, C.J. Godlewski, B. Sanditov, T. Burger-Helmchen
- D.R. n° 2010-08 How Market Power Influences Bank Failures Evidence from Russia, Z. Fungacova, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2010-09 Market Power in the Russian Banking Industry, Z. Fungacova, L. Solanko, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2010-10 Stock Market Reaction to Debt Financing Arrangements in Russia, C.J. Godlewski, Z. Fungacova, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2010-11 Can Bankruptcy Codes Create Value? Evidence from Creditors' Recoveries in France, Germany, and the UK, R. Blazy, J. Petey, L. Weill
- D.R. n° 2010-12 Investor Sophistication, Learning and the Disposition Effect, Boolell-Gunesh. S., Broihanne M-H., Merli M
- D.R. n° 2010-13 LES CONTOURS DE LA PRESTATION DE SERVICES EN EUROPE : SUR QUELQUES PARADOXES ET PARTICULARITES DU COMMERCE DE SERVICES, D. BROUSSOLLE
- D.R. n° 2010-14 The treatment of non financial services in the recent System of National Accounts (SNA) and Balance Of Payments (BOP) updates, in view of the emerging new concept of services, D. Broussolle
- D.R. n° 2010-15 Arbitrating between Renegotiation and Bankruptcy: The Case of French Banks Facing Distressed SMEs, R. Blazy, J. Martel, N. Nigam
- D.R. n° 2010-16 Private benefits and market competition, J. Thépot
- D.R. n° 2010-17 Differentiating entrepreneurs from family business founders, A. Hamelin