

1 Article

## 2 World Turned Upside Down: Entrepreneurial Decline, Its Reluctant Myths and 3 Troubling Realities

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9 **Abstract:** The aim of this paper is to attempt to understand why the popular academic and policy  
10 field of promoting, studying and evangelising “entrepreneurship” should have been associated  
11 with great success but, in the past twenty years or more in many advanced economies, so much  
12 failure. From the US to lesser and developing countries, emerging economies and the European  
13 Union, entrepreneurship, especially in regard to start-ups and particularly high-tech start-ups have  
14 been in constant more or less recent decline. This is seldom registered in the mainstream literature  
15 where a positive and benign profile is generally presented. The paper examines this phenomenon,  
16 ties it partly with the “productivity paradox” and seeks tentative hypotheses in relation to the  
17 apparent illusions if not delusions regarding “entrepreneurship”.

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### 19 Introduction

20 In the Michael Moore film *Fahrenheit 11/9* the director quotes the Bertram Gross book *Friendly*  
21 *Fascism* (1980) to the effect that “...21<sup>st</sup>. century fascism will come with a smiley face and a TV  
22 show”. The show is “The Apprentice”, Moore continues: “It was that TV show that made Trump a  
23 beloved figure in the United States. People loved watching The Apprentice. People liked the show,  
24 it was a popular show.” To say the least it is remarkable and somewhat disconcerting that a reality  
25 TV show and its anchor-person could have popularised entrepreneurship in the US and other  
26 advanced economies, notably the UK, to the extent it has. While further, it enabled the world’s  
27 leading superpower and democracy to have elected the same TV anchor to the position of president  
28 of the US as a by-product. This testifies to something eerie, even unreal, about the mood of  
29 contemporary “reality” TV audiences which seem to veer towards something scarily totalitarian in  
30 their popular preferences. It also acts as something of a comfort to viewers brought up on the  
31 mythology of “the American Dream” of untold wealth in exchange for hard work and a bit of luck.  
32 For the stubborn reality is, for most, just that, a piece of mythology, which is little compensation for  
33 a hard-scrabble existence on less than two or even three living wages per head of household,  
34 deindustrialised neighbourhoods and the prospect of opiate-addiction or worse as the only way  
35 out.

36 These rather depressing sentiments call to mind certain imaginaries of the science fiction  
37 writers, some of whose insights seem more and more prescient as time passes. I have called in the  
38 past upon William Gibson, but on this occasion it is some thoughts of Philip K. Dick that infuse the  
39 narrative at occasional points, such as this one (prefiguring recently deceased screenwriter William  
40 Goldman: “No-one knows anything”).

41 “.....Can any of us fix anything? No. None of us can do that. We're specialized. Each one of us  
42 has his own line, his own work. I understand my work, you understand yours. The tendency  
43 in evolution is toward greater and greater specialization. Man's society is an ecology that forces  
44 adaptation to it. Continued complexity makes it impossible for us to know anything outside  
45 our own personal field — I can't follow the work of the man sitting at the next desk over from  
46 me. Too much knowledge has piled up in each field. And there are too many fields.” Philip K.  
47 Dick “The Variable Man” (1952)

48 In this contribution, I will expose the myth of “The Apprentice” as largely fantasy, delusional  
49 and properly suited to the sphere of popular entertainment. This is despite the widespread  
50 popularity of the idea and perceived practice of “entrepreneurship” in politics, higher education  
51 (notably Business Schools, knowledge transfer departments and some engineering schools), and  
52 many other institutional spheres where “absence of entrepreneurial spirit” and “entrepreneurial  
53 ecosystems” are bemoaned amid calls for more to be done to kindle, stimulate and foster even  
54 further the “business dynamics” of the economy where so much economic development faith has  
55 been placed.

56 This may all come as a heretical and disagreeable shock to audiences in business management  
57 and entrepreneurship, also innovation conferences where these beliefs have long held the platform.  
58 But the reality of the literature reviewed here, and which has been growing slowly for a few years is  
59 that “business dynamics” are generally not in good condition, small-firm performance has of late  
60 been underwhelming, start-up businesses are drying up and entrepreneurship data, in general,  
61 have registered substantially declining profiles, not just in relatively recent times e.g. after the  
62 financial crash of 2008 but well before, even back to the 1990s which now seem like a relatively  
63 “golden age”. So the paper begins with an anatomy of entrepreneurial decline in what is  
64 conventionally thought to be the home of “rugged entrepreneurship” in the US. This is followed by  
65 selected sketches of the same phenomena described for other advanced or developing economies.  
66 The second section of this paper then takes a deep dive into the complex explanations that have  
67 been advanced for possible hypotheses as to why “business dynamics” entered decline over twenty  
68 years ago in – mainly – the US where most analysis has been performed. Then finally, a comparison  
69 of selected advanced economy “business dynamics” profiles is performed in an attempt to tease out  
70 reasonable contributory factors to the drying up of entrepreneurship. As will be understood, at  
71 various points in the narratives of these three sections the implications for the “productivity  
72 paradox” are drawn. This is followed by a brief concluding section.

### 73 **World Turned Turtle Again**

74 This saying denotes a major set of events has occurred that has overturned major structures,  
75 institutions and assumptions that offer a frame or underpinning to the reality most people take for  
76 granted. These things change slowly, un-noticed by most people but as more people pay attention  
77 change speeds up. The “conventional wisdom” (Galbraith, 1958) begins to shrink and uncertainty  
78 starts to become prevailing as new certainties to replace the old assumptions are sought, even  
79 desperately. Many commentators think that the current era is one of those “transition points” with  
80 characteristics of uncertainty, retreat to attitudinal atavism and xenophobia, fears of a “new dark  
81 age” and millenarian expectations of “the end times” (Bridle, 2018; Tooze, 2018). Relatively few are  
82 those persons who keep their antennae attuned to signals of societal change. One small subset of  
83 the population which does is the community of science fiction writers, one of whom provides an  
84 explanation for our neglect through distraction at the complexity of everyday life, which means we  
85 are slow to anticipate change. A representative viewpoint from science fiction literature regarding  
86 our “metathesiophobia” (morbid fear of change) is provided by Philip K. Dick:

87 My major preoccupation is the question, 'What is reality?' Many of my stories and novels deal  
88 with psychotic states..... by which I can present the concept of a multiverse rather than a  
89 universe. Music and sociology are themes in my novels, also radical political trends; in  
90 particular I've written about fascism and my fear of it. (Dick, 1975a)

91 Accordingly, most “realities” are rather delayed, sometimes excessively, sometimes  
92 marginally. Indeed a workable definition of entrepreneurship could be: “the swift appreciation of  
93 changing times ....and spaces”. Schumpeter (1934) now, sadly, seen more as a harbinger of  
94 neoliberalism than social democratic progress, usefully encapsulated the conceptual difference  
95 between the “innovator,” the “entrepreneur,” responsible for the initial investment, growth and  
96 employment in key markets, and the “imitator,” a different entrepreneur – possibly corporate -

97 responsible for the diffusion and profitable exploitation of the innovation at scale. His later fear  
98 (Schumpeter, 1975) was that the facilitating entrepreneur would be squeezed out of the whole  
99 process of corporate “entrepreneurship.” Acceleratingly, if not for the first time, Schumpeter’s  
100 wisdom was periodically questioned: first, corporate growth seemed to have extinguished the  
101 inventor-innovator-entrepreneur trifecta as spatial divisions of labour evolved with geographical  
102 separation of management and innovation (including R&D) from production engineering and,  
103 finally, routine assembly. But then came “lean production” which hollowed-out much of the  
104 unaffordable management strata, innovation research, and prototyping, and consigned it to small  
105 and medium-sized if not “entrepreneurial” stand-alone firms. So entrepreneurship revived,  
106 especially when science-based start-ups in ICT, biotech and knowledge-intensive services joined  
107 them in force while traditional large corporates continued to downsize and/or translocate or both. It  
108 took a predictable delay while entrepreneurship scholars imaged up the rugged individualism of  
109 the independent entrepreneurs that outfoxed the incumbent corporates (Microsoft cf. IBM; MCI and  
110 Verizon cf. AT&T; Apple cf. DEC, Wang, Amdahl and Prime, etc.). But anyway, this rather  
111 atomised version of the Neo-Schumpeterian entrepreneur prevailed until quite recently, when,  
112 second, Schumpeter Mark 1 had been reincarnated but also shown not to have got the innovation  
113 narrative quite correctly. Thus with the discovery of apparently “social democratic” SMEs colluding  
114 in “entrepreneurial ecosystems” (Stam, 2015) Schumpeter Mark 2 corporate “occupational  
115 communities” were now to be conceived not as modern innovators but lazy “rent-seekers”  
116 (Mazzucato, 2018). It was as if Philip K. Dick’s other 1975 prophecy had materialised on the page.

117 “A human being without the proper empathy or feeling is the same as an android built so as to  
118 lack it, either by design or mistake. We mean, basically, someone who does not care about the  
119 fate which his fellow living creatures fall victim to; he stands detached, a spectator, acting out  
120 by his indifference to John Donne’s theorem that “No man is an island,” (sic) but giving that  
121 theorem a twist: that which is a mental and a moral island *is not a man.*” (Dick, 1975b)

122 Rational economic “man” was now to be seen as a collaborative, co-operative, subsidised,  
123 supported, needy and collectively-minded member of an “ecosystem” rather than a cowboy  
124 smoking a Marlboro’. Such social phenomena had been researched, studied and written-up since  
125 the time of Schumpeter’s schooldays by the likes of Alfred Marshall (1890) describing “industrial  
126 districts” (IDs) and later by Giacomo Becattini (1989) in their Italian ID variant before giving rise to  
127 the “cluster craze” fomented by regional scientists, planners and Michael Porter (1998). This, in  
128 retrospect, may have been the “canary in the coalmine” where planner foresight detected  
129 something amiss with an SME world that was beginning to shed its Marlboro’ Man image earlier  
130 than had been spotted by other interested parties. System entrepreneurship signified that  
131 individualistic entrepreneurship may have become harder to perform than textbook accounts had  
132 suggested and that entrepreneurship scholars had been examining for several decades.

133 The shock that has yet to be appreciated or, perhaps, rendered subject to metathesiophobia is  
134 that belatedly, Schumpeter’s (1975) thesis of the demise of the entrepreneur has begun.  
135 Chronologically later than he predicted and accompanied by the demise of the large corporate  
136 entity as an innovative actor, which he had not predicted. Both the typical SME of entrepreneurial  
137 lore and the corporate giant of earlier days and more recent examples arising from the Information  
138 Age technologies of the 1970s and the 1990s are no longer replacing themselves as innovators. In the  
139 latter case they are often now written-up as rent-seekers while in the former case they are  
140 observable from recent data to be a dying breed. This is a worldwide phenomenon and no more  
141 evident than in the modern homeland of entrepreneurship, the USA.

142 In what follows, we start a review of comparative SME growth (or decline) performance that  
143 covers the financial crash interlude but in many cases takes the timeline from earlier as well as later.  
144 Further on, more evidence from a few key economies will be explored more deeply to test this  
145 rather startling observation on declining high tech start-up business dynamics. These will be  
146 presented as having declined substantially in the US and various other advanced economies like  
147 Canada and the UK since the Great Crash of 2008 and even in some cases before then, dating at

148 least from 2000, some being more affected since 2008 and thereafter up to even the year 2017 in the  
149 case of the UK. Many countries had varying fortunes but, in general, business dynamics, notably for  
150 high tech start-ups, declined widely in Canada, Belgium, Brazil, Costa Rica, Japan, New Zealand  
151 and Norway joining the UK in an OECD (2017) study of start-ups growth - meaning fluctuating i.e.  
152 mainly declining high-tech start-up rates. The UK findings in OECD (2017) " Business Dynamics  
153 and Productivity" show that the distinctive feature of the global financial crisis was a collapse in  
154 business entries (new start-ups) which negatively affected the stock of continuing firms in the  
155 following year, leading to job destruction. The relative absence of start ups halted the emergence of  
156 continuing firms.

157 For New Zealand, analysis throughout the 2000s shows marked decline in worker flows within  
158 the labour market and retention of established small firms but with little clear comparison of job-  
159 growth from start-up rate increase. Heterogeneity characterises SME performance in Costa Rica.  
160 There, agricultural and manufacturing SMEs are in decline while services firms perform better,  
161 especially those in export markets or located in Free Trade Zones. In Canada, as we shall see further  
162 below, median firm SME growth stagnated in relation to employment, sales, profits and  
163 productivity. Norway suffered declining productivity but growing employment from 2000  
164 onwards because of high entry of start-ups in services which were nevertheless relatively  
165 unproductive. Services (wholesale and retail) and, surprisingly ICT, contributed to declining  
166 productivity performance while manufacturing lost employment. These job losses were mainly  
167 accounted for by large, increasingly productive firms whose declining employment outnumbered  
168 employment growth from start-ups. Finally, Japan's SME employment growth and numbers either  
169 stagnated for the last twenty years or did not recover while productivity declined after the crisis but  
170 showed signs of upturns afterwards. Crisis impacts occurred universally across sectors due to  
171 labour re-allocation across industries. Accordingly, none of the OECD comparators in this study  
172 seem to have performed well in terms of business dynamics after the crisis but in many cases they  
173 were already slowing down in that respect before 2008.

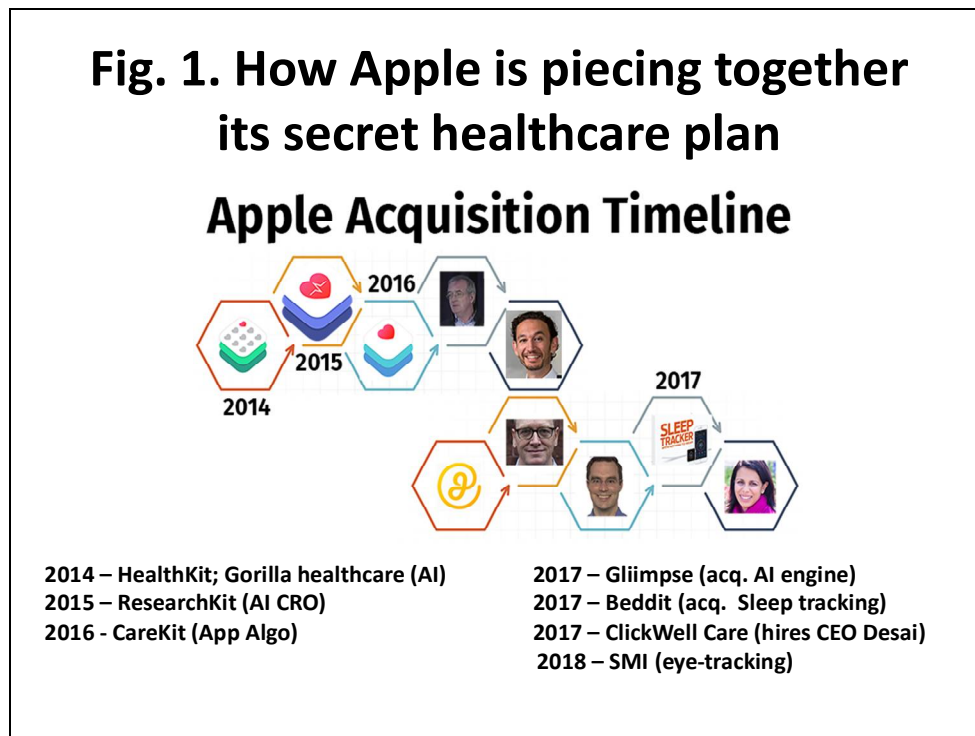
#### 174 "The American Dream is now only a myth"

175 The quote for this section heading comes from Stiglitz (2015). It was suggested earlier that  
176 other research literature by the likes of Gordon (2016), Erixon & Weigel (2016), and Lindsey & Teles  
177 (2017) points to corporate "rent-seeking" having displaced innovation (Schumpeter 2's  
178 miscalculation). If so, and leading high-tech social media behemoths also "hollow-out" their own as  
179 well as their clients' workforces, past practice has often shown the SME sector taking up the slack  
180 regarding job growth. *Except that the latest evidence suggests the contrary.* In this section of the paper  
181 we review the evidence for this - i.e. that high-tech start-ups have declined as sources of US job-  
182 growth. One reason for this focus is that there is a deeper, time-series base for the phenomenon in  
183 the "business dynamics" literature for the US. In the succeeding (fourth) section of the paper we  
184 shall try to review and assess if the process is also pronounced in other economies such as the UK,  
185 Canada and selected European and Asian countries.

186  
187 Regarding US evidence, the post-2000 decline in US high-growth young businesses in key  
188 innovative sectors like high tech suggests there has been a decline in transformational  
189 entrepreneurs in this sector. Why this decline has occurred is an open question (Foster et al, 2006;  
190 Davis & Haltwanger, 2014; Decker et al, 2014; 2016a; 2016b). In the post-2000 period, high tech  
191 includes fewer young firms, and the young firms that are present are less likely to have high  
192 growth (Hecker, 2005; Hurst & Pugsley, 2012; Hathaway & Litan, 2014). As noted above, this period  
193 of decline in high-growth entrepreneurship in high tech coincides with the decline in aggregate  
194 productivity growth in the high tech sectors of the economy as documented by Fernald (2014).  
195 Given the important role high-growth young businesses have played historically in the US,  
196 especially in sectors like high tech, understanding the causes and consequences of this decline  
197 should be a high priority for future research. For some time the sector has been buoyant in UK and



198 elsewhere in Europe but technological job-decline has been registered in China and elsewhere in  
 199 Asia. Now recent evidence  
 200



201

202 suggests an entrepreneurship plateau dipped down in 2017 in the UK and declined even  
 203 earlier in Belgium (Roper & Hart, 2018; Bijners & Konings, 2017).

204 We start with Hathaway and Litan's (2014) study. The authors quote copious research by  
 205 authors like Decker, Haltwanger and others cited above that show that start-up activity declined in  
 206 the US across every sector of the economy including high-tech since 2000. This also applies to every  
 207 state and metropolitan area where, typically, start-ups used to be responsible for the majority of  
 208 employment growth. US entrepreneurship has clearly gone into reverse. The assessment that only  
 209 20% of the workforce is now employed in firms born after the mid-1990s is surprising given the  
 210 hype about entrepreneurship and the widespread belief that many household name businesses  
 211 were created in the last decade alone. But it seems that the few fabled, gigafirms in high-tech like  
 212 Facebook, Google and lesser ones like PayPal, Tesla, Netflix and so on, alongside older firms in  
 213 heralded industries like biotechnology are either very few but prominent if they reach large scale or  
 214 get acquired and absorbed into older high-tech firms, or fade away in some other absorption or  
 215 death spiral manner. In passing, it is instructive that investment in healthcare acquisitions by  
 216 FAGAMi (Facebook, Apple, Google, Amazon & Microsoft) alone rose from \$270 million to \$2.7  
 217 billion in the eleven months to November 2017. Apple (Fig. 1) has added substantially to its one  
 218 hundred-strong list of start-up acquisitions in varieties of ICT and nowadays, artificial intelligence  
 219 (AI) by adding half a dozen healthcare start-ups to its recent acquisitions portfolio.

220 The earlier point about only 20% of employment being accounted for by start-ups dating from  
 221 after the mid-1990s is underlined by the observation of Aldrick (2018) that even since the 1980s the  
 222 US rate of new company formation fell by 40%. Further, a sector that employed 20% of the  
 223 workforce in 1988 and which also accounted for 70% of gross job creation between 1992 and 2011,  
 224 by 2018 only accounted for 10%. Commentators from former Federal Reserve Chairwoman Janet  
 225 Yellen that "...the dynamism of the US economy has diminished" to Nobel Laureate and former  
 226 World Bank chief economist Joseph Stiglitz's view that "The American Dream is really a myth. We  
 227 like to think of our economy as being dynamic, new people creating new firms. The data say we are

228 becoming less dynamic" testify to the new US reality on entrepreneurship. The implication that  
 229 large firms are "taking up the slack" warrants further exploration in this piece.



230

231

**Figure 2.** Percent of working-age Americans employed or looking for work. Source: BLS.

232 Thus record low unemployment, hovering below 4% since April 2018 seems to support  
 233 Aldrick's contention. However, a major reason why not is that the workforce in general has also  
 234 been in decline. Accordingly, the US workforce was falling by some 235,000 per month in 2018.  
 235 Labour force participation fell to stagnating at around 63% since 2015 (Fig. 2). This includes a  
 236 substantial "discouraged worker" element in the US population, leaving an historically low recent  
 237 labour market participation rate, which was once picked up by start-ups, but no longer. So, to  
 238 conclude this momentary diversion into the "double-whammy" experienced by the US economy of  
 239 large-firm job loss and a precipitate decline in start-ups in recent years, what are the causes?  
 240 Business economists seem to be guided more by ideology than research evidence, choosing the only  
 241 indicators that match their political preferences. Right-wingers blame over-regulation and  
 242 education policy while left-wingers blame corporate tax-cuts and "financialisation" which favours  
 243 mergers, rent-seeking and structured finance rather than financing enterprise. Wherever the answer  
 244 lies, the large firm - small firm contraction shows up in low productivity performance. Hitherto,  
 245 productivity increases were assumed to be the product of start-ups and entrepreneurship because  
 246 large firms had become, at best, imitators of SME innovations rather than innovators in their own  
 247 right - see, again, Erixon & Weigel (2016); Lindsey & Teles (2017). But now, with the start-up data  
 248 showing declining "business dynamism" it is likely that a major part of the "productivity paradox"  
 249 is explained by the absence of innovators in recent times. A further, related contributory factor is  
 250 that the innovation frontier is now even more highly skill and competence demanding for new  
 251 graduates. This, too, gathers testimony from the close-to halving in the percentage of graduates  
 252 who were entrepreneurs from 4.0% in 1992 compared to 2.2% in 2017. Coincidentally and not  
 253 conforming to the received image, Brookings (2017) research shows that many self-employed  
 254 individuals have relatively low education levels and opt into entrepreneurship as a default rather  
 255 than choosing it. Accordingly, the self-employed have lower life satisfaction than their wage-  
 256 earning peers. This contrasts with many prior studies that document a positive relationship  
 257 between entrepreneurship and life satisfaction.

258 Exploring more deeply into the historical record, Hathaway & Litan (2014) began with  
259 demographics and found that there were close correlations between population change and start-  
260 up activity both for the 1980s (before which there was no modern start-up data) and the  
261 contemporary period. In simple terms, both periods showed strong demographic effects but also  
262 less obvious ones. The analysis was done with regions as the basis for comparison and firms as their  
263 unit (not establishments, existing ones being responsible for spawning up to 40% of new  
264 businesses). Predictably the “Sunbelt” regions in the south west and Florida out-performed the  
265 north east “Rustbelt” regions. Data for metropolitan city-regions revealed a more intense  
266 correlation. This is consistent with two contrasting hypotheses; one is that firm formation rises with  
267 the supply of population; the other is that it rises with demand from a rising population. Either way  
268 the correlation holds but so, possibly unexpectedly does the one that shows that high start-up  
269 regions decline in firm-formation capacity after about thirty years. So given thirty years of relative  
270 start-up quiescence in the Rustbelt, it was joined thirty years after population grew significantly in  
271 the Sunbelt, which together accounts for an overall regression to the mean. Further analysis  
272 suggests such regression is influenced by “business consolidation” or the aging of regional firms  
273 and the erection of evolving barriers to entry by established firms (Tepper & Hearn, 2018). In  
274 combination these correlated modestly but the strongest magnitudes underlying change were the  
275 initial start-up rate, subsequent population decline and greatest declines in personal income  
276 growth. A local “boom-followed-by-bust” profile predominated in regional start-up declines. This  
277 may be what the US firm formation rate is displaying, namely a seemingly immutable secular  
278 decline in firm-formation, or if it is preferred, “entrepreneurship”.

279 We now briefly return to the research pointing consistently to the decline in US  
280 entrepreneurship in recent years to establish what, if any, plausible hypotheses or putative  
281 explanations are offered before, in the final main section of this paper we review the status of  
282 entrepreneurship in selected countries and regions. First, let us pay attention to a summary article  
283 by the group of researchers into this issue led by Decker, Haltwanger et al. (2016) starting with their  
284 cited paper entitled “The decline of high growth entrepreneurship”. They point at the outset to a  
285 significant change in high growth entrepreneurship since the 1980s to 1990s when decline was  
286 dominated by dearth of start-ups in the retail trade. By the 2000s though this profile was replaced  
287 by a different segment of the start-up product market with a sharp decline in high-growth young  
288 businesses in key innovative sectors like high tech. Clearly there was a marked decline in  
289 transformational entrepreneurs in this sector. Their contribution aims to tease out key factors that  
290 hypothetically may be considered responsible for this change.

291 One question concerns the distinction between “transformational” and “lifestyle”  
292 entrepreneurs, the latter conceived as the less “embedded” of the two. Their evidence shows that,  
293 while retail predominated in the earlier period, equivalent declines occurred later in the  
294 “information” sector of the start-up economy. The authors define high-tech as firms with highest  
295 concentration of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) workers to which are  
296 added appropriate STEM sub-sectors from ICT manufacturing and scientific services. The data  
297 reveal that while sectoral entrepreneurship decline occurred throughout the 1978-2011 period,  
298 information start-ups grew most in the period leading up to 2000 but declined at exactly the same  
299 rate as retail after the “dot.com” slump thereafter – specifically booming and slumping 1997-2005.  
300 High-tech thus displays more “skewness” than retail because it had a predominance of young start-  
301 up entrepreneurs, many of whose firms disappeared in the slump while retail firm start-ups were  
302 not characterised by such a youthful cohort of start-up entrepreneurs but ended up with a similar  
303 downward trajectory nevertheless. A key question, apart from the obvious “shakeout” effects of the  
304 dot.com slump is why did both these demographically and skills-profile sectors reach the same  
305 downward destination? The evidence mainly points to fewer young high-growth start-ups in retail  
306 than in ICT. The authors also determine that the post-2000 period shows a decline in  
307 transformational entrepreneurship, at least as measured by employment growth. There was also a  
308 common rate of decline in business dynamism in all sectors. This points to a decline in high-growth

309 young firm activity although it is unclear if causality is more singular than multiple, with sector-  
310 specific implications. For example, research shows that retail trade entrepreneurship decline is  
311 largely an effect of displacement of SMEs by large national chains that were more competitive  
312 through enhanced productivity. In passing, they in turn are outcompeted in 2018-onwards by  
313 online retail as practised with devastating effect on the likes of Sears (also mall chains like  
314 Abercrombie & Fitch, American Apparel, Best Buy, Gap, J. Crew, Kenneth Cole, Macy's, Radio  
315 Shack, Rockport, Toys 'R' Us, The Limited, and Urban Outfitters) by competition from Amazon. A  
316 further feature of the convergence of decline in business dynamics between retail and high-tech is  
317 that in the post-2000 period while high-tech includes fewer young firms, it is also the case they are  
318 less likely to have high growth. This period of decline in high-growth entrepreneurship in high tech  
319 coincides with the decline in aggregate productivity growth in the high tech sector more generally  
320 as documented by Fernald (2014).

321 The evidence here, for IT, productivity is that it declined before the Great Crash or Recession of  
322 2008. This in turn was caused by the slowdown both in industries producing and using IT  
323 intensively. While capital deepening, labour quality and total factor productivity grew at rates  
324 unforeseen since the 1945-73 era, the dot.com boom was shortlived, pervasive as IT took on the  
325 character of a general purpose technology (GPT) after Helpman (1998) it took a Solow residual (or  
326 paradox) interlude for it to be absorbed fully into the IT productivity statistics as indicated in a  
327 belated, marked increase in labour quality around 2007-2013. The low-hanging IT fruit had been  
328 plucked by 2005 but could not be digested much until nearly a decade later. The slowdown  
329 heralded a lower GDP growth rate and associated lower gross investment rates leading to lower  
330 utilisation and associated innovation demand that might otherwise have stimulated  
331 entrepreneurship, *pari passu*. This is evidently well-identifiable in the contribution to IT  
332 entrepreneurship from its adoption and eventual utilisation in the retail trade. Even though it is  
333 argued by many, including Fernald (2014) that entrepreneurship started to decline early in the  
334 twenty-first century, Fort et al. (2013) also show that young and small firms, anyway particularly  
335 sensitive to fluctuations in housing prices through a range of credit channels, meant that start-ups  
336 were hit hard during and since the Great Recession. So there is now evidence that high-tech  
337 entrepreneurship was already in decline before but then exacerbated even more by the global  
338 financial crisis of 2008 and afterwards.

339  
340 So there is broad agreement on the underlying narrative of the story that turned the  
341 assumptions of those who see an entrepreneurial growth profile in the current and foreseeable  
342 economic era in the USA. It is roughly as follows. To the contrary, observable rates of start-up  
343 activity, new firm entry and job creation have trended steadily down over the past 1984-2014 period  
344 with notable further declines since the Great Recession. Theorised or believed dynamism is good  
345 for politicians and other mythologists because it is comforting to feel their beliefs are associated  
346 with benign economic outcomes represented in redistributive growth trajectories realised through  
347 society's improved innovation performance as implemented through new firm formation by  
348 entrepreneurship. As we have seen for the US case, the existing "business dynamics" literature  
349 does not support this benign view and does not clearly or incontrovertibly establish why business  
350 dynamism has declined. More research is, for example, needed into the extent an aging population  
351 could be influential by fomenting a more risk averse innovative population cohort. Some on the  
352 right have argued that increasing regulation could have raised the cost of business entry, but in a  
353 deregulated "neoliberal" era that seems almost bizarre in principle. Even worse is any evidence that  
354 innovation may have moved back into large established firms when all the evidence points to them  
355 having become classic, parasitic rent-seeking corporations as discussed earlier. On the other hand,  
356 the acquisition process by which large corporate rent-seeking practices stifle entrepreneurship are  
357 well-worth detailed examination. We have pointed to the way the rent-seekers cherry-pick the  
358 specialist innovators in their fields of operation, which are nowadays many and involve inter-  
359 sectoral knowledge crossovers, in order to penetrate relatively under-exploited market potential in



360 legacy quasi-markets like healthcare, education and defence. This creates a chilling effect more than  
361 a re-heating of innovatory spirits among firms for whom monopoly always outweighs competition  
362 (Tepper & Hearn, 2018). So, there has been relatively little by way of a “surge” in entrepreneurship  
363 in recent years, except for the brief three years around the turn of the millennium, with that largely  
364 confined to the IT sector in the shortlived dot.com boom that heralded a succeeding, long high-tech  
365 slump.  
366

### 367 **Rule One: never tell your superior something he doesn't want to hear**

368 This simple instruction is given in Philip K. Dick's (1964) *The Three Stigmata of Palmer Eldritch*,  
369 Garden City NY, Doubleday. Academic research is different from science fiction because it  
370 generally ignores that Rule. It must follow a different one, associated with Thomas Jefferson about  
371 “speaking truth to power”. Yet today, speaking truth to power sometimes requires a courageous  
372 act. Why? Because you may not be clear in whose “truth bubble” or “which hat your superior is  
373 wearing” at any given point in time. So if the public academic makes a legitimate truth claim based  
374 on her publicly-funded contract research, she has a duty truthfully to report it doubly through her  
375 contract with her (public) employer and with the public funding agency to which her research is  
376 contracted. As universities became more semi-privatised or became or were founded privatised,  
377 such duties have so far remained unobscured. If a research contract is funded by a private client, its  
378 contract will specify the limits (if any) of what your superior does not want to hear. It is  
379 increasingly that way in your publicly founded university where you were required to sign a  
380 “disclosure agreement” on which your employer may have first ownership call, comparably with  
381 any “intellectual property agreement”. You may perforce have had to sign one of these by virtue of  
382 its likely or possible market value to which your institution may also have a right of ownership. But  
383 what if your superior is not only your main employment supervisor but also an appointed member  
384 of an executive board of a public agency or, *a fortiori*, a private one or an independent private firm?  
385 Or what if your superior is also a government adviser, or an adviser to a foreign government? All  
386 these various combinations of roles are daily experienced by academic researchers in biotechnology  
387 and pharmaceuticals research, which is why it is often journalists rather than academics who  
388 divulge scandalous evidence to the public while medical researchers pump out articles or  
389 interviews about the latest anodyne findings on the virtuous or deleterious effects of red wine or  
390 red meat consumption. Social scientists are untrammelled by such constraints because they are far  
391 less prey to the interests of Big Pharma, Big Food or Big Tech and its research lures. But it can  
392 happen in subtle ways when that article or letter you sent to a newspaper was published and upset  
393 the superior when he was advising her or his private retainer whose board was so irked that it  
394 critiqued agency performance in some direct or indirect way that your superior was asked to “have  
395 a quiet word” with you. And perhaps penalise you in some direct or indirect way in the future. This  
396 discourse or narrative may ring bells with readers who have paid attention to the “safeguarding”  
397 debate and legal cases or prosecutions arising in the film industry, media and governance arenas  
398 since 2018. “Institutional abuse” remains one of the worst of the remaining barbarities of the “iron  
399 cage” of bureaucracy, as Weber termed it.  
400

401 Coincidentally, (non-) disclosure agreements (NDAs) hit the headlines in the UK in 2018. These  
402 were originally introduced to protect IPR when key staff changed jobs to protect information but  
403 “legislative creep” means they are used by prodigiously wealthy litigants to prevent scandalous  
404 accusations on their personal behaviour being printed by journalists. Hence they are a direct threat  
405 to so-called “open democracy”. Morgan-Bentley (2018) reported that research advisers to UK  
406 government departments had had to sign NDAs affecting ministers, their departments and even the  
407 prime minister, banning 40 charities and over 300 companies from publicly criticising them in deals  
408 costing the taxpayer £25 billion. Since 2015 some 398 contracts with “adverse publicity” clauses had  
409 been signed with adviser firms or contractors. Among the most prominent were US, Dutch and UK

410 consultant advisers to the UK government on Brexit. Boston Consulting Group (BCG) agreed a £2  
411 million deal with the EU exiting department (Dexeu) beginning in December 2017 and ending in  
412 September 2018. The UK Cabinet Office signed an NDA deal with Dutch firm Arcadis for July 2018  
413 to January 2019 worth £239,000 to support Dexeu on IT. Finally the UK Home Office signed an  
414 NDA contract with accountants PWC on EU immigration status for £824,000 for a year starting in  
415 August 2018.

416

417 So academia is also one of those vestigial “iron cages” capable of inflicting barbarous  
418 behaviour on its institutional members. This is because academic “crowds” are peculiarly prone to  
419 being “strong identifiers”. Strong identifiers are the cause of political correctness (PC), virtue  
420 signalling, gaslighting, safe spaces and so-called trigger warnings to signpost such. Thus it may be  
421 perceived in some readerships that the evidence that entrepreneurship is drying up, that large firms  
422 are no longer innovators but rent-seekers, that low unemployment rates conceal large numbers of  
423 discouraged workers and that benign performance profiles are nothing but myths are all  
424 “politically incorrect” thus unacceptable and untrue. In particular, that narrative contradicts the  
425 institutionally abusive hegemony in economics that privileges its neoclassical version:

426 Neoclassical economics conceptualized agents, households and firms as rational actors. Agents  
427 were modeled as optimizers who were led to “better” outcomes. The resulting equilibrium was  
428 “best” in the sense that any other allocation of goods and services would leave someone worse  
429 off. Thus, the social system in the neoclassical vision was free of irresolvable conflict. The very  
430 term “social system” is a measure of the success of neoclassical economics, for the idea of a  
431 system, with its interacting components, its variables and parameters and constraints, is the  
432 language of mid-nineteenth-century physics. This field of rational mechanics was the model  
433 for the neoclassical framework. Agents were like atoms; utility was like energy; utility  
434 maximization was like the minimization of potential energy, and so forth. In this way was the  
435 rhetoric of successful science linked to the neoclassical theory, and in this way economics  
436 became linked to science itself (Weintraub, 2002).

437 Evolutionary economics has a different way of conceiving economic agents, firms and markets.  
438 It gives particular emphasis to history, routines, influences of environment and institutions. Firms  
439 are specific agents (Pavitt 1984, 1986), which given the complexity of their environment and  
440 conflicts of interest do not behave as “profit maximisers”. Agents are therefore not able to compute  
441 optimal solutions (Heiner 1983) and even less to predict other agents’ behaviours because of  
442 uncertainty (Knight 1921; Alchian 1950), bounded rationality (Simon 1962 and 1972), and differing  
443 expectations (Hahn 1952, Rosenberg 1982). In evolutionary economics, firms are differentiated  
444 organisations that use differentiated inputs for their production, one of which is knowledge (Dosi  
445 1988). Knowledge plays a fundamental role: the constitution of a firm is mediated by the  
446 knowledge possessed by the founder or “creative agent” and developed by learning. Firms learn  
447 from their own experience but also from other firms they work with and with whom they share  
448 information, knowledge and technologies. Firms also have a history, a trajectory of development:  
449 they are created, they explore new paths of growth, they discover new routines, develop  
450 technological capabilities, capture new opportunities, adapt to new constraints and competition or  
451 cannot respond to this demanding environment and slowly exit from the market.

452 The narrative on US “business dynamics” above fits as well if not rather better to the  
453 evolutionary than the neoclassical parsings presented above and display the desirability of both  
454 speaking truth to power and telling your (neoclassical) “superior” something he doesn’t want to  
455 hear, so now, to round off the present monologue we shall briefly examine the evidence regarding  
456 any recent decline in “business dynamics” in representative non-US economies. This is attempted to  
457 see – although we have been somewhat forewarned – whether declining dynamics is a feature of  
458 American exceptionalism or something more protean.

459

460 **Everything in life is just for a while.**

461 Philip K. Dick wrote this in "A Scanner Darkly" (1977) which has a narcotics detective  
462 investigating drug crime in a dystopian Orange County, California. The thought, however, has  
463 much wider applicability because of the eternal truth that nothing lasts for ever. The reader may  
464 recall the roll-call of bankrupted or reduced retail firms listed for the US in the recent 2000s. Later in  
465 this section a similar story of some 85,000 retail redundancies in the UK for the first nine months of  
466 2018 features. Regarding entrepreneurship, there were 2692 store closures in the first six months of  
467 the year, leading to an average of 14 job losses per day. Furthermore, store openings dropped by a  
468 third and are now easily outpaced by closures, with just 1569 stores opening their doors in the same  
469 period. Online retail by Amazon is a proximate cause but others include uncertainty about Brexit  
470 and protectionist tariffs under the influence of the Trump administration's MAGA (make America  
471 great again) lessening of trade with Asia, where many textiles suppliers had supplied UK retail  
472 discounters (Butler, 2018). Together with this attenuation of retail entrepreneurship (echoed in our  
473 US account above) is a thinning-out of the previous thirty years' period of World Trade  
474 Organisations's "globalisation" strategy. China, for example, is committed to curtail its own "world  
475 factory" image and turn towards, on the one hand, boosting domestic consumption, while on the  
476 other, accelerating its endogenous technology industry (notably AI and robotics) something Rodrik  
477 (2011) analyses. Accordingly, it may be proposed that these two mainstays of global trade have only  
478 lasted "just for a while."

479 So, before returning to the UK case, where the high-tech start-up downturn is also shown to be  
480 a recent phenomenon, let us look first at the narrative for "business dynamics" in Canada. There are  
481 indications that business dynamism has declined in Canada as well as other advanced economies.  
482 In particular, firm entry and exit rates have fallen, suggesting that the creative destruction process  
483 has lost some of its vitality. Thus, as in the US start-up rates and their associated job-growth  
484 proclivities have dried up. Meanwhile, productivity growth has slowed. Some believe that lower  
485 entry and exit rates partly explain the weaker productivity growth. Criscuolo, Gal and Menon  
486 (2014) found that, during the 2000s, the share of start-ups (firms less than three years old) declined  
487 in many nations, including Canada. Based on a new set of linked, experimental data for the period  
488 1983/1984 to 2011/2012, Canada's business-sector entry rate declined from 24.5% to 13.1%; and, the  
489 exit rate fell from 16.5% to 11.6%.

490 However, the evidence supporting, or invalidating, this view is scarce (St. Amant & Tessier,  
491 2018). This suggests that the decline in productivity growth is partly caused by a decline in the  
492 productivity-based exit selection process. However, business-cycle measures appear to cause both  
493 productivity and the exit rate. This suggests that firm dynamics are an *intermediate*, not an ultimate,  
494 cause of productivity growth. Thus based on experimental linked data, a decline in firm entry and  
495 exit rates over the last 30 years is apparent. The magnitude of the decline was similar across  
496 industries, suggesting the decline was secular rather than the result of a compositional shift with  
497 growth favouring industries with lower entry rates and exit rates. Nor was the decline the result of  
498 one area of the economy adjusting to specific events, and producing a dynamic that differed  
499 substantially from another area. Although industry-specific shocks created industry-specific  
500 adjustments, they were not large enough to negate the evidence of widespread declines in entry  
501 and exit rates. Entry rates are ascribed more significance than exit rates in relation to Canada's  
502 business dynamics decline and associated "productivity paradox".

503 A Canadian consultancy report (Deloitte, 2018) concurs with the Bank of Canada opinion but  
504 stresses something that crops up later in respect to the UK's declining business dynamics: the  
505 prevalence of "zombie" firms. The report is based on a comprehensive study of more than 700  
506 Canadian businesses that analyzed their future-focused attitudes and practices, and builds on  
507 previous Deloitte research examining Canadian business culture and productivity. As part of the  
508 study, Deloitte also found that 16 percent of public companies are considered to be "zombie"  
509 companies. That is 60% higher than the global average of 10% and highlights that many Canadian  
510 businesses are in a vulnerable position when it comes to economic shocks and technological

511 disruption. “Zombie” companies are defined by the OECD as mature businesses – aged 10 years  
512 and older – whose earnings are not high enough to cover the interest payments on their debts and  
513 yet still manage to survive. They are a drag on productivity because they divert capital and talent  
514 away from more productive firms and hinder the ability of younger, more dynamic businesses to  
515 grow. Sample respondents continued to struggle with the discipline of innovation: just 19 percent of  
516 survey respondents reported having processes in place to test and scale innovations. Less than half  
517 of Canadian organizations reported making the investments in the people and technology they said  
518 they need for the future. Finally, only 3.6% of Canadian companies exported their output.

519 Moving on, briefly, to an examination of business dynamics in Belgium – taken as a small-  
520 medium sized EU Eurozone member-state. In Bijners & Konings’ (2017) study they utilised a 30  
521 year dataset from all Belgian private firms, and demonstrate evidence that Belgium, a far more rigid  
522 economy than the U.S., experienced a similar decline in dynamism. Furthermore, the decline set in  
523 around 2000 as in the US. The authors attribute this not only to the declining share of young firms  
524 to become high-growth firms, but more importantly also to the declining propensity for small firms  
525 to experience fast growth. It is not yet known what caused this decline. Since there are remarkable  
526 similarities between Belgium and the U.S. with respect to the secular decline in business dynamism,  
527 one hypothesis may be that global trends rather than country specific changes are more likely to be  
528 at the basis of this evolution. Potential generic factors include, once more, the increased use of ICT  
529 or the increased participation of emerging economies in global supply chains. The steep increase in  
530 globalisation of the past decades has exerted substantial effects on both exporting (unlike Canada)  
531 and importing firms.

532

533 In general, high-growth firms are responsible for a disproportionate share of overall job  
534 creation and productivity growth. While for the U.S., the decline in high-growth firms is especially  
535 evident for young firms, Bijners & Konings (2017) claim the decline in Belgian high-growth firms is  
536 predominantly driven by the decline of high-growth, small firms. The propensity for large, older  
537 firms to become high-growth firms seems to be trending upwards while the propensity for a small  
538 firm to become a high-growth firm has rapidly declined since 2000. Despite this scissors-effect,  
539 other research indicates that younger Belgian firms on average invest more than larger firms per  
540 capita in innovation. If high growth is more and more associated with larger firms this might also  
541 mean that they are more and more able to shield themselves from creative destruction driven by  
542 younger and smaller firms. This implies a negative effect on aggregate productivity. An alternative  
543 and less worrying explanation could be that smaller, disruptive firms are more likely to be acquired  
544 by incumbent firms and they continue their innovation supported by the resources and the  
545 management knowledge of the incumbent. There seem to be as many contradictions as smooth  
546 explanations from the analysis of three decades of Belgian business dynamics: however, the  
547 direction of travel does show the same kind of “decline” consistency.

548

549 As a penultimate possible “corrective” to our consistent transatlantic comparison, with so far  
550 one alone of the Eurozone member-states to confirm our burgeoning picture of entrepreneurial  
551 decline, we turn briefly now to Japan to scan the signs of this process for a very different economy  
552 thus far. Since the 1990s Japan has lost much of its competitive edge. Its economy continues to  
553 operate below its potential. Productivity growth has steadily eroded in almost every sector,  
554 including its formerly dominant advanced manufacturing industries. One-third of the productivity  
555 potential can be captured within four sectors: advanced manufacturing, retail, financial services,  
556 and health care. In the case of health care, we estimate that Japan can slow the rate of annual  
557 expenditure growth from 3.7 percent to just 1.5 percent. Implementing productivity improvements  
558 such as increased automation will affect jobs in many industries. The key is to create the  
559 appropriate environment for growth, focusing on talent and skills development, entrepreneurship,  
560 innovation, competition, and infrastructure productivity. Stock market listed firms in Japan have  
561 performed 25% worse than equivalent non-financial corporates in the US, a symptom of large-scale



562 misallocation of capital. By 2011 Japanese “advanced manufacturing and consumer electronics had  
563 fallen further behind US equivalents by some 70% and worsening to 2011. Productivity was also hit  
564 by *haken*, the practice of hiring temporary workers, producing an under-incentivised lower-level  
565 dual labour market.

566

567 Japan lacks a start-up culture. McKinsey (2015) recommends certain measures that are long  
568 overdue. Fostering a startup culture means increasing access to funding. Despite favourable  
569 regulatory changes, there is little angel investing in Japan. Information platforms can help to build a  
570 community of angel investors, and large corporations could play a role where individual investors  
571 currently do not. Japan’s venture capital industry is also underdeveloped. Israel offers a useful  
572 template; it rapidly expanded its fledgling VC industry in the 1990s by offering tax incentives to  
573 foreign investors and matching private capital. The Innovation Network Corporation of Japan is a  
574 positive step in this direction, but unlocking private investment will require sustained effort.  
575 Promotion of a supportive legal and regulatory framework for startups. Making the process of  
576 setting up a new business more user-friendly could motivate more aspiring entrepreneurs to take a  
577 leap with their ideas. Japan can also revisit the framework around intellectual property protection  
578 and its incentive structure for commercializing university research is imperative. Finally creating an  
579 ecosystem that allows entrepreneurs and innovation to flourish is crucial according to McKinsey  
580 (2015). Japan’s current network of business incubators has a limited reach, and the public sector  
581 may need to mobilize resources. New York, for example, has undertaken an ambitious public-  
582 private partnership to build Cornell Tech, which will offer an MBA program with a digital,  
583 entrepreneurial focus. University-affiliated business incubators (such as Waseda University’s) may  
584 expose Japanese students to the process of turning ideas into profitable realities. In summary, Japan  
585 offers little by way of guidance out of the maze of underperforming or even dormant  
586 entrepreneurship spirit and has yet to throw off its formerly influential corporate structures that  
587 now seem to have atrophied.

588

589 Finally, the UK has until recently avoided a major decline in its entrepreneurship profile  
590 although much of that evolution was a response to the shakeout from many public and private  
591 employers and the rise of prodigious numbers of under-employed and barely surviving “zombie”  
592 companies created by sole traders managing to survive on historically low interest rates stimulated  
593 by quantitative easing (comparable to Canada). By approximately 2017, that sticking plaster was  
594 beginning to unpeel as the start-up rate for new firms turned down following the artificially  
595 boosted “entrepreneurship” of the post-2008 period. This has obviously been exacerbated by the  
596 pre-Brexit run-up which has seen record redundancies in retail (as in the US). Accordingly, as  
597 indicated above, recent evidence from the United States (Fort et al., 2012 and Foster *et al*, 2013)  
598 suggested job creation by young firms had been affected the most, while job destruction of young  
599 businesses remained virtually unchanged. Similarly, recent evidence from the United Kingdom  
600 (Butchner and Bursnall, 2013) shows that the crisis was a period of sustained lower job creation,  
601 especially for small and medium sized firms. Thus UK start-ups declined 13.7% in 2017-2018. The  
602 government has been accused of failing to look after the interests of small business after the first  
603 decline in the number of new companies created in seven years. Figures released by the Centre for  
604 Entrepreneurs revealed a 13.7% decline in the number of start-ups formed in Britain in 2017. The  
605 report, using data from Companies House, showed just over 589,000 new ventures created in 2017.

606

607 The UK data consulted in Roper & Hart (2018) suggests some underlying concerns, however,  
608 about future levels of ambition and SMEs’ willingness to borrow and invest for future growth. In  
609 the 2017 survey, 62 per cent of SME employers indicated that they planned to grow the turnover of  
610 their business over the next three years, the lowest figure since the survey began in 2007/8. At the  
611 same time SME’s willingness to seek external finance has also fallen consistently since 2010. Trends  
612 in start-up, growth and retrenchment all play an important role in shaping job creation in both

613 gross and net terms and together form a measure of business dynamism in the economy. The  
614 number of start-ups in an economy is often seen as the headline metric of 'enterprise' and  
615 'entrepreneurial ability'. Start-ups have been rising steadily in the UK in recent years but have  
616 stagnated in 2017. The downturn may have begun even earlier at approximately 2015. Data on  
617 SMEs consulted suggest that 28 per cent of firms intending to increase export sales had scaled back  
618 this activity due to Brexit. Similarly, 10 per cent of SMEs had scaled back plans to develop new  
619 products/services and 9 per cent had reduced capital and R&D spend. In line with data from other  
620 economies profiled, productivity data reveal that only 8.4% of all employer enterprises in the UK  
621 achieved positive productivity gains (revenue per employee) while still increasing jobs over the  
622 period 2014-17. Previous research showed that there was a very poor correlation between jobs  
623 growth, increases in revenues and productivity gains. This, of course, underlines the more widely  
624 observed phenomenon of "zombie" firms that employ few or often one on survival rations fuelled,  
625 perhaps temporarily by redundancy payments from former employers, "gig"-type projects and  
626 cheap loans resting upon quantitative easing from central banking institutions (Butler, 2018).  
627 Survey estimates suggest that at least 100,000 UK firms fitted the "zombie" characteristic, exerting  
628 further downward pressure on productivity.  
629

### 630 **Conclusions: Unicorn Fantasies and Brexit Zombies**

631 Entrepreneurship became a hot subject of interest for business schools' case material and  
632 enterprise researchers. It is no less a trendy career choice for graduates. Added to this, as we have  
633 seen, the credit crunch prompted people to start their own business as the jobs market shrank.  
634 Startups were formed at a record pace in the UK until the last year (2017), according to research. But  
635 along with the boom in startups there has been a race to the bottom to get investment. As these  
636 businesses mature their performance drops off, in part due to a lack of long-term planning (Duffy,  
637 2017). In effect, they become zombie startups, the term for companies that keep going after funding  
638 runs out but don't actually grow, and investors no longer see them as attractive or worth a punt.  
639 This is overshadowed by press or political lauding the single unicorn that makes it. Moreover, for  
640 some time tech startups have also been pitching models that do not generate cash for venture  
641 capital firms and angel investors. Rather traditional business plan customer data is trotted out in  
642 the hope that one day this data will be valuable. But many investors now demand that the  
643 businesses they invest in must generate proper *sales* to real customers. As Guy Kawasaki, the  
644 Silicon Valley investor, declared in chapter 10 - The Art of Rainmaking – of his book called "The Art  
645 of the Start" "sales fix everything" (Kawasaki, 2004).  
646

647 If the phenomenon of little job-generation from sole-trader start-ups is thus one feature of the  
648 drying up of entrepreneurship, another contributory factor concerns entry rates, which seem fairly  
649 consistently to explain declining business dynamics across the piece. That is, start-ups in some cases  
650 can survive and, at the "unicorn" limit thrive, but there are relatively fewer of them than there were  
651 twenty years ago and they do not create the large workforces of the likes of Amazon, Facebook and  
652 Google, to name a few. Thus Amazon's second headquarters, employing 50,000 will be split  
653 between Long Island City, New York and the Arlington suburb of Washington DC. 5,000 more will  
654 be located at its "fulfillment centre" consignment hub at Nashville, Tennessee. Amazon's global  
655 employment (full and part-time) reached 566,000 in 2017. In 2018 Alphabet (Google's parent firm)  
656 employed 94,732 globally, of which Google had 85,050. It is worth noting that unpublished data  
657 accessed by D'Onfro (2018) suggested Alphabet's outsourced labour exceeded in-house labour for  
658 the first time in July 2018. By comparison Facebook's employment was 33,660 in September 2018.

659 A figure of some 39,000 contract workers was hired in Silicon Valley in 2017 according to a UC  
660 Santa Cruz research report cited by Sheng (2018). More broadly, some 57.3 million Americans, or  
661 36% of the workforce, are now freelancing, revealed a 2017 report by Upwork (Sheng, 2018). So,  
662 briefly, such labour-intensive part-time, often short-term recruitment in relatively large numbers

663 means low wage costs for the “flagships” but locally low compensation compared to full-time  
 664 professional labour and a likely drag effect on both capital and labour productivity. So this is  
 665 another part of the entrepreneurial decline from labour absorption and, to a marked extent, small-  
 666 firm acquisitions (for example Apple’s “developer ecosystem” has 300,000 contracted apps in its  
 667 AppStore; Siilasmaa, 2019). Tepper & Hearn (2019) estimate that Apple actually outsources to 2  
 668 million contractors globally (Tepper & Hearn, 2019).

669 Finally, business dynamics decline is also specific to the high growth, high-tech sector which  
 670 had hitherto burgeoned. It had, to some extent, displaced the retail growth sector a little earlier. By  
 671 the 2000s though that profile was replaced by a different segment of the start-up product market.  
 672 This was displayed in a sharp decline in high-growth young businesses in key innovative sectors  
 673 like high tech. Clearly there was a marked decline in transformational entrepreneurs in this sector.  
 674 The reasons for this include the weakening opportunity for such entrepreneurship due to the “low  
 675 hanging fruit” having been picked earlier, demographic decline in the population cohorts with  
 676 which such start-up growth dynamics were associated and, above all, in the more recent decline in  
 677 the availability of risk capital associated with the financial crash after 2008. All in all, these multiple  
 678 causalities contributed in manifold ways to a decline in business dynamism when little such  
 679 compensating dynamism could be observed in the corporate sector (consider the drying up of “big  
 680 pharma” pipelines) which nevertheless also expropriated the relatively few younger, dynamic  
 681 innovators such as the billion dollar turnover “unicorns”.

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