

The Dynamic Impacts of M&A on Employment in Japan
— Using Micro-data from the Financial Statements Statistics
of Corporations by Industry —

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August 2010

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Abstract

This paper provides empirical evidence on the effects of mergers and acquisitions (M&A) on employment in Japan. It contributes to the literature by capturing dynamic employment impacts of various types of M&A using the latest micro data of firms' financial statements. Our main findings are: the dynamic effect of "firm acquisitions" on a target firm's employment proved to be significantly positive mainly in the manufacturing sector, while the dynamic effect of "mergers" on a remaining firm's employment turned out to be significantly negative mainly in the non-manufacturing sector. The switching pattern from negative impact to positive impact on a target firm's employment in the dynamic post-acquisition process appeared more clearly in the domestic acquisition case than in the cross-border acquisition case for the manufacturing sector. We speculate that the dynamic positive employment effect of firm acquisitions reflects the efficiency' gains by a firm's management improvements in the post-acquisition process, whereas the dynamic negative employment effect of mergers implies organizational rationalization in the post-merger process.

Key words: M&A, firm acquisitions, mergers, dynamic employment effects

JEL Classification Codes: D21, M51

1. Introduction

There has been a boom in recent decades at a global level of mergers and acquisitions (M&A) in firms' activities, under the background of the progress of technological innovation and deregulation. Japan has been not an exception to this boom, and experienced a rapid increase in its M&A activities since the later half of the 1990s. Although the global credit shrinkage caused by US subprime loan turmoil and the subsequent deterioration of the real economy impacted on global M&A trends, Japanese M&A activities have still held at a high level.

The impact of M&A on the value of both the acquiring and the acquired firm has been the subject of a large and growing body of research literature. As for the effects on labor, there is a popular perception that acquisition activity usually leads to, and indeed is often motivated by, the opportunity for substantial workforce reduction. This general interpretation was typically endorsed by the influential contribution of Shleifer and Summers (1988), which suggested that the control changes associated with acquisition activity offer an opportunity to firms to renege on implicit and explicit labor contracts, leading to a "breach of trust" with employees. On the other hand, acquisitions may occur because the firm believes it can manage the firm more efficiently than current management. Better management might lead to more and better jobs, particularly if the new management has better access to capital markets for expanding the operation. While there exists an abundance of anecdotal and general comments on the topic, there is very little systematic empirical evidence on the employment effects of M&A, and almost none in Japan. Furthermore, the limited existing literature— see Section 2 below— shows a variety of sampling procedures and methodologies, and is also ambiguous in its findings.

This paper provides a systematic empirical analysis of the effects of M&A on employment in Japan. It contributes to the Japanese literature by capturing dynamic employment impacts of various types of M&A using the latest micro data of firms' financial statements. The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 describes the recent trends in M&A in Japan; Section 3 summarizes the empirical literature and makes clear our contribution; Section 4 represents the empirical framework and estimation results; and the last section offers our conclusions.

2. Recent Trends in M&A in Japan

Japan has experienced a so-called M&A boom since the later half of the 1990s.

Figure 1 indicates the remarkable increase in the number of M&A cases, from around 500 cases in the mid 1990s to around 2,000 cases in the 2000s, although showing a decline after 2007 due to the global credit shrinkage (see Figure 1).

Looking at their composition by the type of M&A in Table 1, we can find the following characteristics. First, the number of M&A cases in which a Japanese firm acquired a foreign firm (an “in-out” M&A) has shown rapid growth in the latter half of 1980s and a rather stable trend thereafter. The share of “in-out” M&A also climbs to about 60 percent until 1990, and then continues to decline toward around 15 percent in 2008. The background of the “in-out” M&A boom in the 1980s is nothing more than the robust economy in that period, which made Japanese companies go ahead into foreign markets, with the Sony Corporation’s acquisitions of CBS Records Inc. and Columbia Pictures Entertainment a typical example.

Second, the main element in creating the 1990s-2000s M&A boom was “in-in” M&A cases, in which a Japanese company acquired another Japanese one. Its number as well as its share has gone up from around 200-300 cases (the share: around 50 percent) in the mid 1990s toward more than 2,000 cases (the share: about 80 percent) in the mid 2000s. The “in-in” M&A boom appears to have come mostly from the necessity for industry consolidation amid intensifying international competition. In the steel industry, for example, two of Japan’s major steelmakers – Kawasaki Steel Corp. and NKK Corp. – were merged into JFE Holdings, inc. in 2002, in response to fierce competition with their South Korean and Chinese counterparts. The individual companies’ efforts to reorganize group companies with the introduction of new accounting rules on a group-wide basis, may have contributed to the “in-in” M&A boom.

Lastly, another element for the 1990s-2000s M&A boom was “out-in” M&A cases, in which a Japanese company was acquired by a foreign one. The number increased from around 50-60 cases in the mid 1990s toward about 200 cases in the mid 2000s. “Out-in” M&A can often be seen as a case for strengthening the domestic presence of foreign companies, with the Citigroup’s acquisition of the Nikko Cordial group in 2007 a typical example. The activated role of foreign investment funds seems to have contributed to the increase in “out-in” M&A.

In investigating the factors behind the 1990s-2000s M&A boom, Arikawa and Miyajima (2007) picked up two different hypotheses and examined which hypothesis was applicable to the Japanese M&A boom. The first hypothesis, which is often referred to as a neoclassical explanation, focuses on industry-level shocks to growth opportunities and profitability as a factor of M&A. Mitchell and Mulherin (1996), and Harford (2005), recognizing that M&A activities concentrate on specific industries,

argued that the occurrence of shocks to growth opportunities and/or profitability that require a large-scale intra- or inter-industry redistribution of resources leads to a boost in the number of M&A as an efficient means of reallocating resources. The other hypothesis is called “market-driven,” based on the assumption of stock market mispricing. Shleifer and Vishny (2003) theoretically showed that managers of bidding companies, when they have information that the market valuation of their companies is higher than their fundamental value, have an incentive to seek profits by making acquisitions in stock-for-stock deals, and that myopic managers of target companies have an incentive to sell their companies, in disregard of the long-term profit prospects, by agreeing to favorable terms offered by bidders.

Arikawa and Miyajima (2007) examined the hypotheses above by using industry-by-industry data as well as individual companies’ data. Their findings supported not the “market-driven” hypothesis but the neoclassical explanation: that the 1990s-2000s M&A boom in Japan came from some sort of shock that impacted on the growth opportunities and profitability of industry.¹ Miyajima et al. (2007) also stated that the recent, rapid increase in M&A in Japan has been driven by economic shocks - both positive and negative - such as technological innovation and sharp falls in demand, and that the increase in M&A have facilitated resource allocation in terms of downsizing less profitable divisions and expanding high-growth divisions, thereby contributing to the improvement of organizational efficiency through the transfer of management resources and know-how. These findings, that the M&A in Japan has been driven by real shocks, lead us to recognize the significance in examining the labor impact of the M&A in the latter section of this paper.

3. Previous Studies and Our contribution

Evidence on the overall employment impact of M&A has been very limited. In addition, the limited evidence has been based on a variety of sampling procedures and methodologies, and has reported mixed findings. We first present theoretical considerations, and then pick up several representative studies on the United States of America (USA), European countries including the United Kingdom (UK), and Japan.

It seems to be difficult to extract strong predictions about the employment consequences of M&A activities from the extensive literature of theories about M&A.

¹ As well as testing the two hypotheses, they described the impact of legal reform on promoting M&A: the lifting of the ban on holding companies (1997), the introduction of stock transfer system (1999), tax incentive measures for revitalizing industry (1999), etc.

This is because the employment outcomes may differ depending on the motive type of the M&A. Mueller (2003), for instance, picked up the following as important motives for M&A: 1) obtaining genuine synergy gains, 2) utilizing economies of scale in various forms, 3) strengthening the market power in pricing, 4) revising implicit agreements related to the firm's personnel and other stakeholders, and 5) promoting the manager's own deviating interests. Of these, a synergy-promoting M&A may create employment by improving productivity and expanding market share, whereas the new management team which reneges on implicit labor contracts may provably reduce the amount of workforce. The difference in the types of the M&A, such as horizontal or vertical cases, and related or unrelated cases, may also influence the employment effects (e.g. Dutz, 1989). All in all, the theory does not seem to give a clear prediction about the employment effects of the M&A. The net employment effect is, thus, nothing more than an empirical matter.

As for the empirics in the USA, Brown and Medoff (1988) examined the effects of firm's control changes with a large sample of firms in the state of Michigan. Their results suggested that the employment consequences depend upon the type of control change: asset disposals were followed by a decrease in employment, while true mergers produced a small increase. The generality of the results is open to question, because their data set was numerically dominated by very small firms and excluded interstate acquisitions, where large-scale takeovers predominated. McGuckin et al. (1995), in a study using US plant-level data, reported that employment in acquired plants increased relative to that in non-acquiring firms, but suggested this was accompanied by improved operating efficiency, particularly in the smaller plants in their sample. However, when the authors used firm-level data they found no significant employment consequences. In a more recent study, McGuckin and Nguyen (2001) argued that ownership changes are not a primary vehicle for cuts in employment and wages, or closing plants, and instead, ownership changes are associated with increases in employment for the entire US manufacturing sector.

Concerning the literature in European countries, Conyon et al. (2002) provided a systematic empirical analysis of the effects of take-over and merger activity on firm employment in the UK using a specially constructed database. They indicated that significant rationalizations in the use of labor occur as firms reduce joint output and increase efficiency in post-merger process, and that these effects are particularly pronounced in the case of related and especially hostile mergers. On the other hand, Amess and Wright (2007), using a unique hand-collected dataset, examined the effects of leveraged buyouts on wages and employment in the UK. They found that all

leveraged buyouts taken together have an insignificant effect on employment growth but have significantly lower wage growth than non leveraged buyouts. Lehto and Böckerman (2008) examined the employment effects of M&A by using establishment-level data from Finland, and found that the cross-border M&A leads to downsizing in manufacturing employment as well as the changes in ownership associated with domestic M&A also causing employment losses.

As long as we see the previous works above, the evidence of labor losses by M&A appear more often in European countries than in the USA. Here comes Gugler and Yurtoglu (2004), which compared the effect of mergers and acquisitions on employment in Europe and the USA. While they did not find adverse effects of mergers on labor demand in the USA, they did find negative effects in Europe of the order of minus 10% compared to pre-merger levels. They attributed this significant difference to more rigid labor markets in Europe than in the USA.

Evidence on the employment impact of mergers and acquisitions has been extremely limited in Japanese literature. To our knowledge, the only systematic empirical study is found in Kubo and Saito (2007). They focused their analysis on the impact of mergers on employment, and examined 114 cases of mergers during the period from 1990 to 2003 among companies whose stock is listed on the Stock Exchange Market. They found that during the post-1999 period, mergers brought about an effect on employees' reduction by ten percent on average, and that the effect varied depending on the purpose of the mergers as well as pre-merger firm's performance: mergers within related industries and mergers intended for firm relief produced more curtailment of employees than the average.

This paper tries to extend the afore-mentioned research literature, and mainly the work of Kubo and Saito (2007), in the following directions. First, we target various types of M&A, i.e. firm acquisitions, capital participation, capital increase, and merges, in examining the employment impacts whereas Kubo and Saito (2007) concentrate only on the effect of *mergers* on employment. This enables us to compare the employment impacts among the types of the M&A. Second, our observation covers not only the firms listed in the Stock Exchange Market but also unlisted firms by using the specific micro data, while Kubo and Saito's (2007) estimation covers only listed firm. Thus, our estimation includes the behavior of medium-size companies. Thirdly, and more importantly, our estimation captures the *dynamic* employment effects of M&A as well as the *immediate* effects, while most earlier studies, including Kubo and Saito (2007), estimated only the *immediate* effects. It seems to take some years for M&A activities to finalize a company's resource allocation in terms of downsizing less profitable sections

and expanding high-growth sections, or in terms of rationalizing the backward offices as a whole. It is thus indispensable to count on dynamic aspects in examining the employment effects of M&A.

4. Empirical Studies

We now turn to empirical studies of the effects of M&A on firms' employment in Japan. Before launching into the analysis, we first clarify the methodology and data used, and then exhibit the estimation results and their interpretations.

4.1 Methodology

An ordinary dynamic labor demand function, assuming that output-constrained firms face continuous quadratic adjustment costs and use a Cobb–Douglas technology, takes the following form of equation. Nickell (1984) and Bresson et al. (1996) derived the equation, and such subsequent studies as Conyon et al. (2002), Gugler and Yurtoglu (2004), and Kubo and Saito (2007), have employed the equation for estimating the effect of M&A on employment:

$$E_{it} = \alpha E_{it-1} + \beta_1 Q_{it} + \beta_2 Q_{it-1} + \gamma_1 W_{it} + \gamma_2 W_{it-1} + \delta_1 C_{it} + \delta_2 C_{it-1} + \eta_t D_t + \theta_j ID_j + f_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

where E_{it} , Q_{it} , W_{it} and C_{it} denote the logarithms of employment, real output, real wage, and user cost of capital regarding firm i in period t . D_t are a set of time dummies to account for technical progress and business cycle effects, ID_j is a set of industry dummies to signify the specific effect of the industry that a firm belongs to², and f_i is firm-specific fixed effects that reflects intra-firm differences in technology and management. ε_{it} is an equation disturbance term.

Our method of estimating the impact of M&A on employment is to introduce the dummy variables that signify the actions of various types of M&A carried out by a specific firm in a specific time. Our estimation does not include time dummies, since the estimation period is limited to thirteen years, and since time dummies may have multicollinearity with the M&A dummies in the sense that the M&A activities can be influenced by business cycle. It also has to be noted that, due to data constraints, our

² The industry classification ($j = 43$) follows that of the data source, the “Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry”.

estimation focuses only on the employment effects of not the acquirer but the *target* firm in the cases of firm acquisitions, capital participation and capital increase, and the *remaining* firm in the case of mergers. For the purpose of capturing the *dynamic* employment effects of the M&A, we specify the equations for the baseline estimation in the following ways.

$$\begin{aligned}
E_{it} = & \text{const.} + \alpha E_{it-1} + \beta_1 Q_{it} + \beta_2 Q_{it-1} + \gamma_1 W_{it} + \gamma_2 W_{it-1} + \delta_1 C_{it} + \delta_2 C_{it-1} + \theta_j ID_j + f_i + \\
& \varepsilon_{it} \\
& + \lambda_{a0} DA_{it} + \lambda_{b0} DCP_{it} + \lambda_{c0} DCI_{it} + \lambda_{d0} DM_{it} \\
& + \lambda_{a1} DA_{it-1} + \lambda_{b1} DCP_{it-1} + \lambda_{c1} DCI_{it-1} + \lambda_{d1} DM_{it-1} \\
& + \lambda_{a2} DA_{it-2} + \lambda_{b2} DCP_{it-2} + \lambda_{c2} DCI_{it-2} + \lambda_{d2} DM_{it-2} \\
& \dots \\
& + \lambda_{a10} DA_{it-10} + \lambda_{b10} DCP_{it-10} + \lambda_{c10} DCI_{it-10} + \lambda_{d10} DM_{it-10}
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where DA , DCP , DCI and DM are the M&A dummies: “firm acquisitions”, “capital participation”, “capital increase”, and “mergers”, respectively.³ For instance, $DA_{it} = 1$ if the firm i is acquired by another firm in the period of t , and zero elsewhere. The key statistics of interest, λ_0 , measures the *immediate* impact of the M&A on labor demand in percentage terms relative to the non-M&A labor trends, and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots$ represent the *dynamic* impact on post-M&A employment. We examine the dynamic impact until ten years later due to data constraints. The ordinary labor demand function expects positive sign of sale’s coefficient β , negative sign of wage’s coefficient γ , and positive sign of the coefficient of user cost of capital δ .

Our analysis further extends the baseline estimation above in the following directions. First, we examine the employment impacts of M&A by sector: the manufacturing and non-manufacturing sectors. To be specific, we divide the M&A dummies into two sectors –the dummy for firm acquisitions, DA , for instance, is divided into DA_m for the manufacturing sector and DA_nm for the non-manufacturing sector. Second, we investigate the differences in the employment impact between the cases of a cross-border acquisitions (in which the purchaser is a foreign company that is located abroad) called an “out-in acquisitions”, and a domestic acquisition called an “in-in acquisitions”, and further examine the two sector’s effects in the in-in and out-in

³ The definition of each case is as follows; “firm acquisitions” is a case where more than 50 percent of the target firm’s equity is acquired by another firm; “capital increase” is a case in which acquired equity is increased but up to less than 50 percent; “capital participation” is a case where the target firm’s equity is acquired newly but up to less than 50 percent; and “mergers” is a case in which the firm is merged.

classification. Since the classification causes a lack of data necessary for estimation in the specific M&A dummy case, we create the combined dummy for *DA*, *DCP*, *DCI*, as *DACPCI* (we exclude *DM* from the combination to avoid the complexity of interpretation), and divide it into *DACPCI_in* for the in-in case sector and *DA_out* for the out-in case, and further partition them into the two sectors.

Another focus of our analysis is concerned with estimation techniques. Equation (2) contains a lagged dependent variable among the explanatory variables, and thereby the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimator is inconsistent. Obtaining consistent estimates requires the application of an instrumental variables estimator or Generalized Method of Moments (GMM). We herein adopt the system GMM estimator (two-step, robust) developed by Arellano and Bover (1995), and Blundell and Bond (1998), who argue that additional instruments can be obtained in a dynamic model from panel data if we utilize the orthogonality conditions between lagged values of the dependent and the disturbances. We present the test results for autocorrelations in the table that follows.

4.2 Database

The database used in this study is constructed from two sources. The primary source of information relating to M&A comes from the MARR M&A Database presented by the RECOF Corporation. This database allows us to identify each type of M&A: “firm acquisitions”, “capital participation”, “capital increase”, and “mergers” (see footnote 3 for their definition).

The micro-data for firm’s behaviors, i.e. employment, output, wage and user cost of capital is collected by the Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry, made by the Policy Research Institute of the Ministry of Finance in Japan. Our estimation targets the firms whose capital is 600 million yen and over, and whose sectors exclude those of finance and insurance, due to the data availability of statistics. The sample firms, however, have wide coverage in that they include not only firms listed on the Japanese Stock Exchange Market, but also unlisted firm. The data for employment is derived from the item of “Number of employees” in the statistics, which includes part-time job workers. The data for output is from the “Sales” in the profit and loss statements. The data for wage is calculated by dividing the “Personnel expenses” by the “Number of employees”. The data for user cost of capital is from the “Interest expenses” in the profit and loss statements. We herein use nominal data, not real data, because our estimation period within thirteen years indicates price stability.

We combine the data from two sources above, and construct panel data with 9,880

sample firms for the period from 1995 to 2008 after checking the data availability of both data sources. Table 2 shows that the total number of the M&A cases between 1996 and 2008 is 3,697, including 626 cases of “firm acquisitions”, 744 of “capital participation”, 423 of “capital increase”, and 1,904 of “mergers”. The observed firms, whose number amounts to a total of 9,880, have average statistics of 1,165 employees, 86,887 million yen of sales, and 5,939 thousand yen of wages.

4.3 Estimation Results and Interpretations

Table 3a represents the results of the baseline estimation. The test results for autocorrelations indicates the validity of all the estimations from Equation (a) to (e), since all the AR(2) statistics reveal the absence of second-order serial correlation in the first-differenced errors. All the estimations represent that the inclusion of the lagged dependent variable of employment is positively discernable, thus implying inertia in firm employment and justifying forming the dynamic panel model; the coefficients of output, wage, and user cost of capital in the period t have expected signs at the significant level, whereas those in the period $t-1$ have opposite signs— especially the wage has larger degree of coefficient in the period $t-1$ than that in the period t , which may come from the problem of data source.⁴

As for the coefficients of the M&A dummy, the one of “firm acquisitions” is negative (though not significant) in the period of t to $t-1$ in Equation (a) and (e); it shifts to become significantly positive in the period of $t-5$ to $t-7$ in Equation (a), and in the period of $t-4$ to $t-7$ in Equation (e). The dummies for “capital participation” and “capital increase” do not have any significant coefficient. The coefficient of “mergers” is significantly positive in the period of t in Equation (d) and (e); It turns to be negative in the period of $t-2$, $t-3$, $t-4$, $t-5$, and $t-7$ (significant in the period of $t-3$, $t-4$, $t-7$) in Equation (d) and (e). Since Equation (a) to (d) with only one type of the M&A dummy indicate almost the same outcomes as Equation (e) with all types of the M&A dummy, we focus on the results of Equation (e) and describe the trend in the coefficients of each M&A dummy based on Equation (e) in Figure 2a. We can characterize the outcomes considering confidential interval of 90 percent, by dynamic positive effect of “firm acquisitions” on target firm’s employment, and immediate positive but dynamic negative effects of “mergers” on the remaining firm’s employment.

⁴ The data of the Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry is based on each firm’s financial statements. Each firm’s financial statement differs in the starting month of fiscal year. The data may, therefore, include lagged figures in case that a firm adopts a fiscal year with an earlier starting month.

Table 3b reports the outcomes of two-sector estimation. Regarding the dummies for “firm acquisitions”, the manufacturing sector has significantly positive coefficients in the period of t-2 to t-7, while the non-manufacturing sector does only in the period of t-5 and t-6. On the other hand, in the dummies for “mergers”, significantly negative coefficients appear only in the t-2 period for the manufacturing sector, but in the period of t-1 to t-10 except t-8 for the non-manufacturing sector. The trends in the coefficients by sector are shown in Figure 2b. Some significant coefficients with mixed signs are found in the dummies for “capital participation” and “capital increase” by sector. Its interpretation, which seems to be rather difficult, needs further investigation. As for the estimate for in-in and out-in cases, Table 3c indicates that the significant coefficients concentrate on the manufacturing sector. It should further be noted that the coefficient of the in-in dummy for the manufacturing sector is significantly negative in the period of t-1. Figure 2c represents the trends in the coefficients for in-in and out-in cases.

We summarize and interpret the estimation results above as follows. First, the dynamic positive effect of “firm acquisitions” on a target firm’s employment, which mainly appears in the manufacturing sector, may imply the firm’s management improvements in the post-acquisition process. Operating efficiency can be realized often in terms of the firm’s resource allocation by downsizing less profitable sections and expanding high-growth sections. The firm acquisitions may provide target firms with the opportunity to trigger and promote the firm’s resource allocation, and may finally realize labor demand expansion of target firms as a result of so-called “efficiency gains” through the transfer of the firm’s resources and know-how. And it seems to take some years for the target firm to finalize its resource allocation and step into the aggressive stage to expand employment in the post-acquisition process. In the context of the motives of the M&A suggested by Mueller (2003), the positive effect of on the target firm’s employment may reflect such outcomes as synergy gains, economies of scale and so forth, obtained by the target firm. The case of Japan does not appear to be compatible with the “breach of trust” hypothesis suggested by Shleifer and Summers (1988), who argued that corporate takeover is nothing more than the transfer of wealth from shareholders to stakeholders such as suppliers and employees.

Second, the immediate positive effect of “mergers” on the remaining firm’s employment turned to be negative in dynamic post-merger process mainly in the non-manufacturing sector. The immediate positive effect is a natural result because our analysis traces only the employment of the remaining firm among plural pre-merged companies.⁵ The interesting finding, if anything, lies in the dynamic negative effect of

⁵ In contrast with to our estimating result, Kubo and Saito (2007) represented a negative impact as an

“mergers”. It may reflect organizational rationalization in the post-merger process, such as curtailing the excess labor in the backward and branch offices overlapped by the mergers. Especially, the gradual rationalization of branch offices in the post-merger process would be often found in the non-manufacturing sector.

Third, the difference in the employment impact between in-in cases and out-in cases lies in the existence of a significantly negative impact in in-in cases at an early stage of post-acquisition process for the manufacturing sector. Domestic acquisitions for the manufacturing sector may form a switching pattern from a negative impact to a positive impact on the target firm’s employment in the dynamic post-acquisition process. This implies that domestic acquisitions often include cases whose purpose is to revitalize the target firms, in which the acquiring firms execute labor restructuring at an early stage of the firm acquisitions to downsize less profitable sections, and expand employment as a result of so-called “efficiency gains” at a later stage of the post-acquisition process. Lehto and Böckerman (2008) presented two contrasting hypotheses on domestic and cross-border M&A. One hypothesis was that radical structural reforms with considerable negative effects on employment are more often characterized by domestic M&As than cross-border ones, because the better touch of the local markets has enabled profound rationalization. The other was that cross-border M&As may cause greater employment losses than domestic ones since for foreign owners it may be easier to loosen themselves from implicit contracts that preserve employment. Our estimation outcomes seem to be consistent with the former hypothesis, whereas Lehto and Böckerman (2008)’s empirical study in Finland appears to support the latter hypothesis.

Fourth, “capital participation” and “capital increase” do not seem to produce any specific employment effect. This is probably because their activities are not accompanied with ownership change, thereby not exposing the firm to a change in organizational structure.

5. Concluding Remarks

This paper provides empirical evidence on the effects of M&A on employment in Japan. It contributes to the literature by capturing dynamic employment impacts of various types of M&A using the latest micro data of firms’ financial statements. Our main findings are as follows: The dynamic effect of “firm acquisitions” on a target firm’s employment proved to be significantly positive mainly in the manufacturing

immediate employment effect of “merger”. This is because they trace the employment of all pre-merged companies, thereby being able to estimate a net effect of “mergers”.

sector, while the dynamic effect of “mergers” on the remaining firm’s employment turned out to be significantly negative mainly in the non-manufacturing sector. The switching pattern from negative impact to positive impact on a target firm’s employment in the dynamic post-acquisition process appeared more clearly in the domestic acquisition case than in the cross-border acquisition case for the manufacturing sector. We speculate that the dynamic positive employment effect of firm acquisitions reflects the efficiency gains by a firm’s management improvements in the post-acquisition process, whereas the dynamic negative employment effect of mergers implies organizational rationalization in the post-merger process.

This study is an initial step for a systematic empirical analysis of the employment effects of M&A in Japan. There seem to be several remaining issues to be addressed further. First, it might be preferable that the estimation reflects more various aspects of M&A activities. For instance, different aspects of the M&A, such as whether it is related or unrelated, friendly or hostile, etc. might produce different employment impacts. Second, analysis of M&A can take the next step by examining its wage impact as well as its employment impact, and comparing these impacts. It seems to be usual that company behaviors such as rationalization and restructuring accompany wage adjustments, as well as employment ones.

Figure 1. M&A Developments in Number

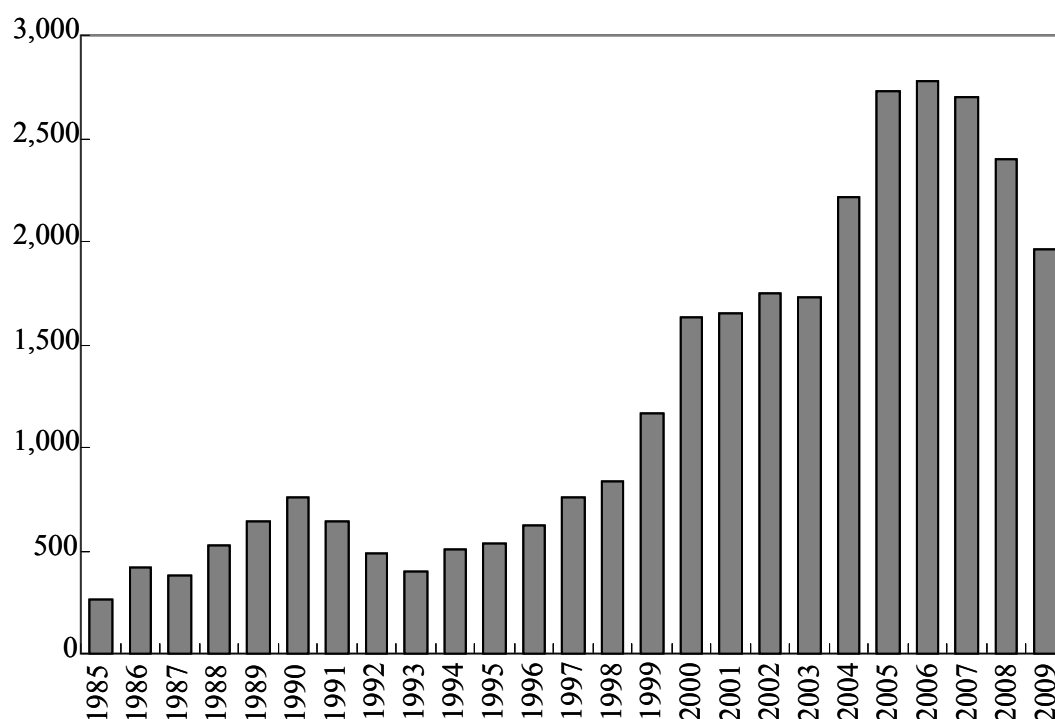


Table 1. M&A Developments in Number Classified into Market Entry Style

	IN-IN		IN-OUT		OUT-IN		Total Number
	Number	Portion %	Number	Portion %	Number	Portion %	
1985	161	61.9	78	30.0	21	8.1	260
1986	223	53.3	181	43.3	14	3.3	418
1987	206	53.9	158	41.4	18	4.7	382
1988	218	41.7	291	55.6	14	2.7	523
1989	245	38.0	388	60.2	12	1.9	645
1990	268	35.5	463	61.4	23	3.1	754
1991	309	48.4	301	47.2	28	4.4	638
1992	253	52.4	186	38.5	44	9.1	483
1993	234	58.9	120	30.2	43	10.8	397
1994	249	49.3	196	38.8	60	11.9	505
1995	255	48.0	222	41.8	54	10.2	531
1996	320	51.5	239	38.5	62	10.0	621
1997	453	60.2	224	29.7	76	10.1	753
1998	488	58.5	236	28.3	110	13.2	834
1999	721	61.7	266	22.8	182	15.6	1,169
2000	1,066	65.2	368	22.5	201	12.3	1,635
2001	1,190	72.0	289	17.5	174	10.5	1,653
2002	1,352	77.2	264	15.1	136	7.8	1,752
2003	1,352	78.2	213	12.3	163	9.4	1,728
2004	1,680	76.0	320	14.5	211	9.5	2,211
2005	2,129	78.1	411	15.1	185	6.8	2,725
2006	2,174	78.3	421	15.2	180	6.5	2,775
2007	2,020	74.9	367	13.6	309	11.5	2,696
2008	1,824	76.0	377	15.7	198	8.3	2,399
2009	1,520	77.7	299	15.3	138	7.1	1,957

Note) M&A inside the same group is excluded.

Source) MARR M&A Database presented by the RECOF.

Table 2. Number of the cases of M&A and observed firms

	Firm Acquisitions ①		Capital Particip. ②		Capital Increase ③		Mergers ④		①+②+③				①+②+③+④	
	M.	Non-M.	M.	Non-M.	M.	Non-M.	M.	Non-M.	In-in		Out-in		M&A Total	Observed Firms
									M.	Non-M.	M.	Non-M.		
1995	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,936
1996	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	9	23	0	0	1	0	6,135
1997	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	16	22	1	0	0	0	6,293
1998	3	1	0	1	1	0	0	29	34	3	2	0	0	6,300
1999	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	50	62	1	1	0	0	6,342
2000	8	4	8	15	23	4	3	44	71	14	10	2	1	6,372
2001	16	21	13	18	31	5	8	53	85	24	20	5	2	6,407
2002	18	27	15	33	48	13	9	65	88	38	40	4	1	6,551
2003	22	21	18	47	65	15	13	69	107	34	41	1	6	6,424
2004	13	66	25	79	104	25	26	81	102	49	99	3	11	6,370
2005	24	70	34	106	140	23	29	91	127	57	138	10	15	6,370
2006	35	82	27	102	129	30	54	69	139	65	119	5	11	6,175
2007	34	68	41	80	121	26	59	87	153	33	97	11	11	5,949
2008	19	71	21	57	78	24	55	89	139	47	83	8	4	5,697
Total	192	434	205	538	743	166	257	752	1,152	366	650	50	62	9,880 ²⁾

Note: 1) M: Manufacturing sector, Non-M: Non-Manufacturing sector

2) The total number is the one of firms observed between 1995 and 2008.

Table 3a. Results of Baseline Estimations

E_t	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Const.	-1.014 ***	-1.161 ***	-1.029 ***	-1.161 ***	-1.140 ***
E_{t-1}	0.966 ***	0.965 ***	0.967 ***	0.965 ***	0.968 ***
Q_t	0.257 ***	0.256 ***	0.258 ***	0.262 ***	0.258 ***
Q_{t-1}	-0.134 ***	-0.133 ***	-0.134 ***	-0.134 ***	-0.136 ***
W_t	-0.208 ***	-0.202 ***	-0.204 ***	-0.205 ***	-0.204 ***
W_{t-1}	0.207 ***	0.209 ***	0.209 ***	0.209 ***	0.210 ***
C_t	0.011 ***	0.011 ***	0.011 ***	0.010 ***	0.010 ***
C_{t-1}	-0.004	-0.005 *	-0.005	-0.004	-0.005
DA _t	-0.022				-0.019
DA _{t-1}	-0.190				-0.019
DA _{t-2}	0.021				0.023
DA _{t-3}	0.049				0.048
DA _{t-4}	0.063				0.067 *
DA _{t-5}	0.098 **				0.106 **
DA _{t-6}	0.130 ***				0.131 ***
DA _{t-7}	0.126 **				0.129 **
DA _{t-8}	0.020				0.047
DA _{t-9}	0.501				0.076
DA _{t-10}	0.038				0.065
DCP _t		-0.014			-0.018
DCP _{t-1}		-0.017			-0.020
DCP _{t-2}		0.020			0.017
DCP _{t-3}		-0.009			-0.015
DCP _{t-4}		0.014			0.015
DCP _{t-5}		0.035			0.035
DCP _{t-6}		-0.042			-0.044
DCP _{t-7}		-0.057			-0.058
DCP _{t-8}		-0.006			-0.024
DCP _{t-9}		0.024			0.028
DCP _{t-10}		-0.056			-0.056
DCI _t			0.021		0.022
DCI _{t-1}			-0.030		-0.022
DCI _{t-2}			0.010		0.019
DCI _{t-3}			0.013		0.026
DCI _{t-4}			-0.018		-0.014
DCI _{t-5}			0.019		0.018
DCI _{t-6}			-0.062		-0.060
DCI _{t-7}			0.009		0.022
DCI _{t-8}			0.104		0.097
DCI _{t-9}			collinearity		collinearity
DCI _{t-10}			collinearity		collinearity
DM _t				0.056 ***	0.055 ***
DM _{t-1}				0.003	0.002
DM _{t-2}				-0.013	-0.015
DM _{t-3}				-0.022 *	-0.024 **
DM _{t-4}				-0.021 *	-0.022 *
DM _{t-5}				-0.020	-0.020
DM _{t-6}				0.003	0.003
DM _{t-7}				-0.030 *	-0.031 *
DM _{t-8}				0.020	0.020
DM _{t-9}				0.031	0.000
DM _{t-10}				0.008	0.005
Industry D.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
AR(1)	-14.432 ***	-14.396 ***	-14.408 ***	-14.403 ***	-14.357 ***
AR(2)	0.334	0.339	0.325	0.365	0.348

(Notes)

i) ***, **, and * indicate rejection at the 1 percent, 5 percent, and 10 percent significant levels.

ii) AR(k) signify the coefficients in the test that the average autocovariance in residuals of order k is zero.

Figure 2a. Trends in Coefficients: Baseline Estimation

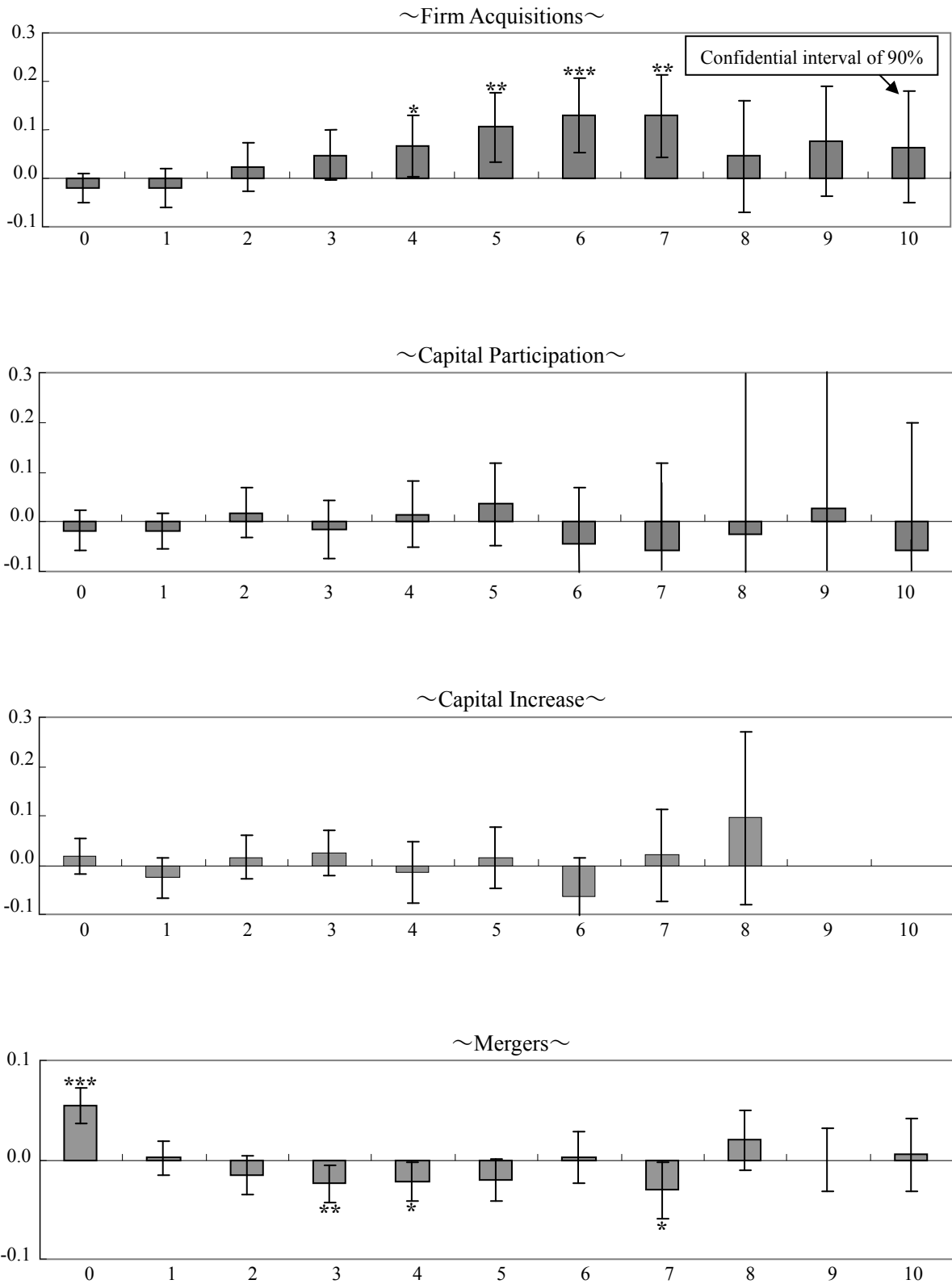


Table 3b. Results of Estimations by Sector

<i>E</i> t			
Const.	-0.890	***	
<i>E</i> t-1	0.968	***	
<i>Q</i> t	0.266	***	
<i>Q</i> t-1	-0.155	***	
<i>W</i> t	-0.238	***	
<i>W</i> t-1	0.200	***	
<i>C</i> t	0.010	***	
<i>C</i> t-1	-0.003		
DA m t	-0.013		DA nm t
DA m t-1	-0.029		DA nm t-1
DA m t-2	0.126	***	DA nm t-2
DA m t-3	0.150	***	DA nm t-3
DA m t-4	0.156	***	DA nm t-4
DA m t-5	0.173	***	DA nm t-5
DA m t-6	0.228	***	DA nm t-6
DA m t-7	0.169	**	DA nm t-7
DA m t-8	0.086		DA nm t-8
DA m t-9	collinearity		DA nm t-9
DA m t-10	collinearity		DA nm t-10
DCP m t	-0.001		DCP nm t
DCP m t-1	0.008		DCP nm t-1
DCP m t-2	0.075	*	DCP nm t-2
DCP m t-3	0.071	**	DCP nm t-3
DCP m t-4	0.022		DCP nm t-4
DCP m t-5	0.030		DCP nm t-5
DCP m t-6	-0.116		DCP nm t-6
DCP m t-7	-0.051		DCP nm t-7
DCP m t-8	-0.085		DCP nm t-8
DCP m t-9	0.157		DCP nm t-9
DCP m t-10	0.005		DCP nm t-10
DCI m t	0.006		DCI nm t
DCI m t-1	-0.007		DCI nm t-1
DCI m t-2	0.031		DCI nm t-2
DCI m t-3	0.046		DCI nm t-3
DCI m t-4	0.039		DCI nm t-4
DCI m t-5	0.048		DCI nm t-5
DCI m t-6	-0.013		DCI nm t-6
DCI m t-7	0.069		DCI nm t-7
DCI m t-8	0.100		DCI nm t-8
DCI m t-9	collinearity		DCI nm t-9
DCI m t-10	collinearity		DCI nm t-10
DM m t	0.079	***	DM nm t
DM m t-1	0.014		DM nm t-1
DM m t-2	-0.026	*	DM nm t-2
DM m t-3	0.000		DM nm t-3
DM m t-4	0.005		DM nm t-4
DM m t-5	0.002		DM nm t-5
DM m t-6	0.033	**	DM nm t-6
DM m t-7	0.009		DM nm t-7
DM m t-8	0.034		DM nm t-8
DM m t-9	0.034		DM nm t-9
DM m t-10	0.041		DM nm t-10
AR(1)	-15.269	***	
AR(2)	0.675		

Figure 2b. Trends in Coefficients: Estimation by Sector

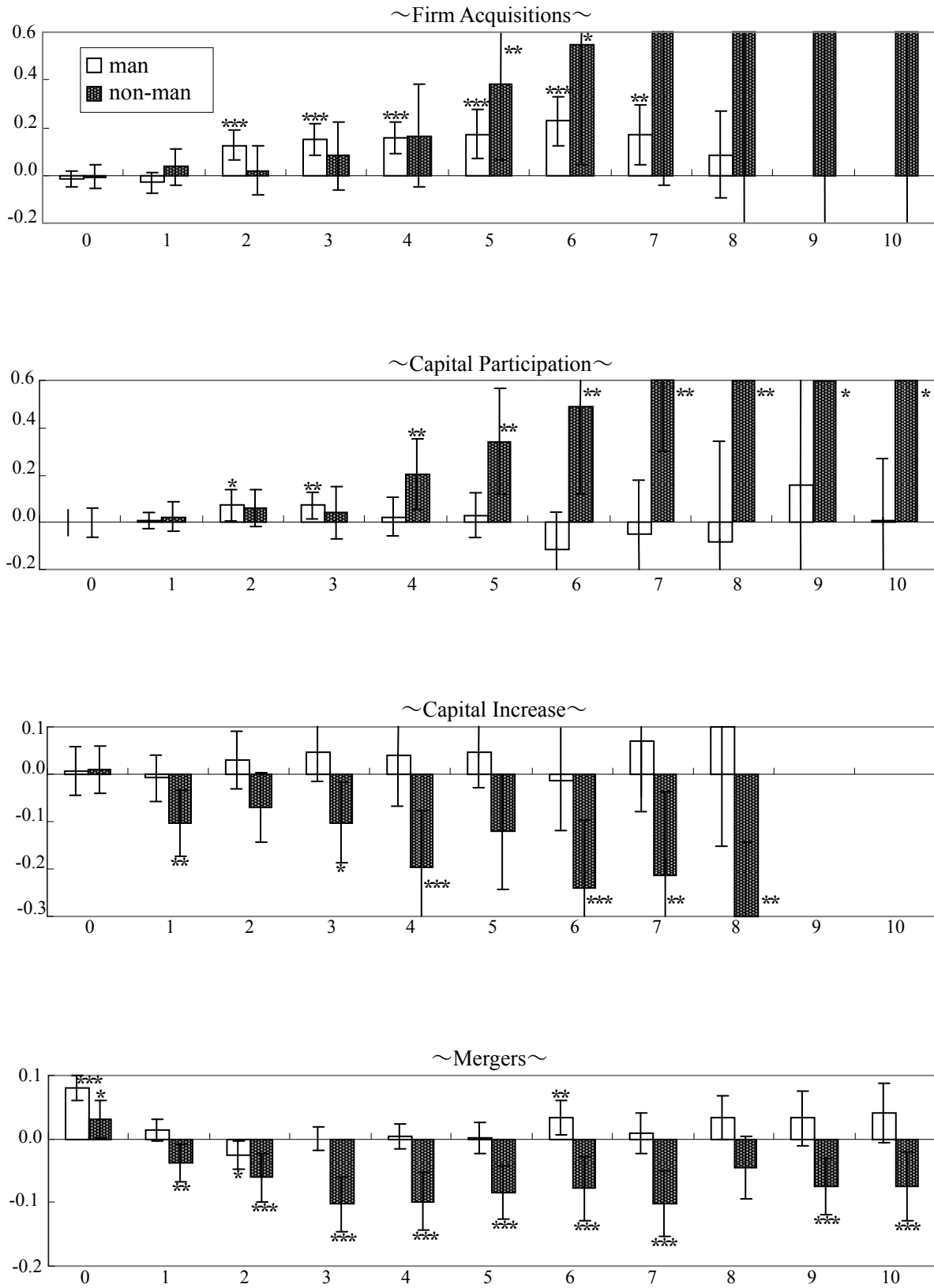
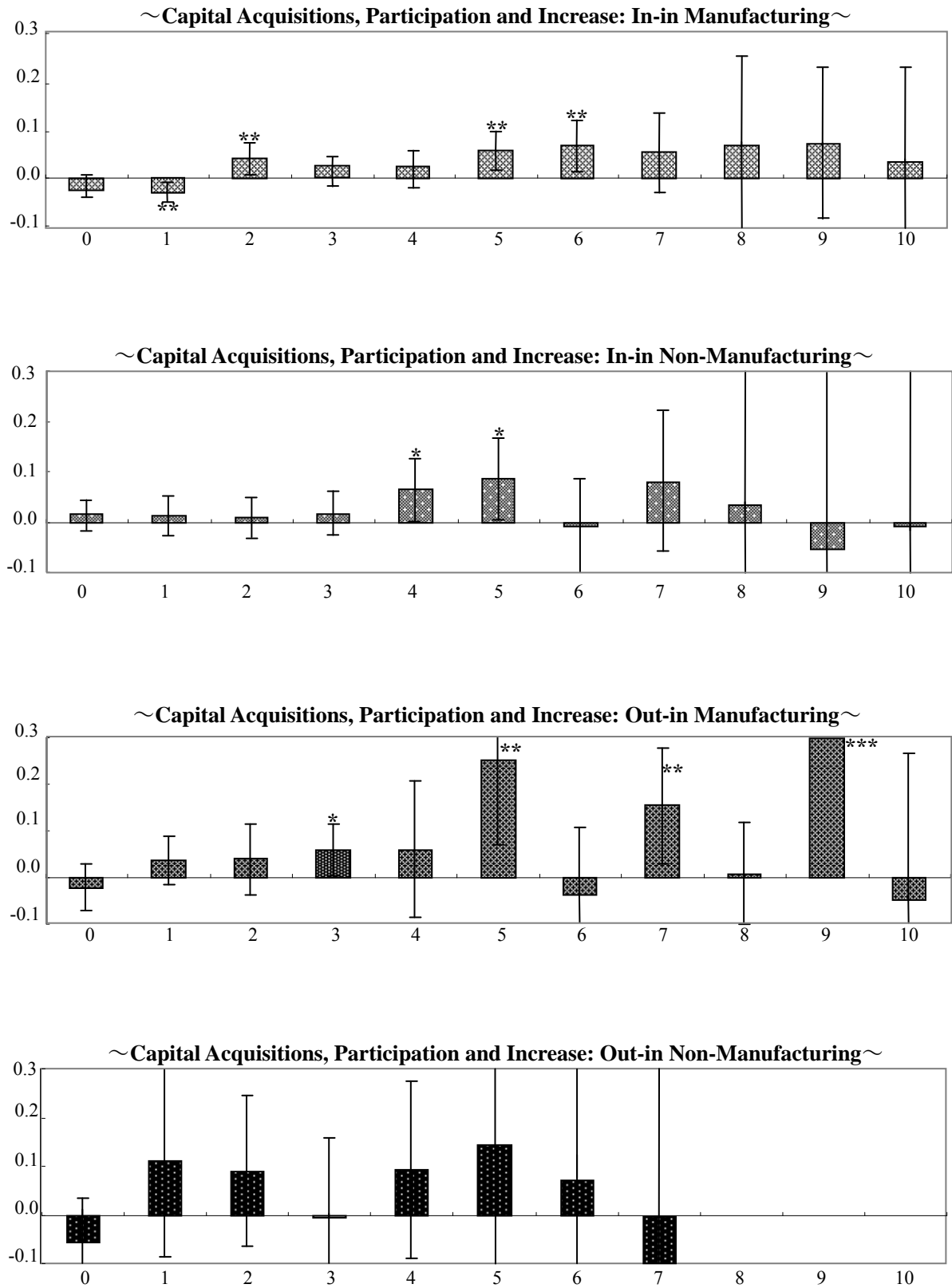


Table 3c. Results of Estimations of In-in and Out-in Cases

<i>E</i> _t			
Const.	-1.019	***	
<i>E</i> _{t-1}	0.988	***	
<i>Q</i> _t	0.265	***	
<i>Q</i> _{t-1}	-0.153	***	
<i>W</i> _t	-0.190	***	
<i>W</i> _{t-1}	0.194	***	
DACPCI_in_m_t	-0.017		DACPCI_in_nm_t 0.015
DACPCI_in_m_t-1	-0.030	**	DACPCI_in_nm_t-1 0.012
DACPCI_in_m_t-2	0.042	**	DACPCI_in_nm_t-2 0.009
DACPCI_in_m_t-3	0.013		DACPCI_in_nm_t-3 0.017
DACPCI_in_m_t-4	0.019		DACPCI_in_nm_t-4 0.064 *
DACPCI_in_m_t-5	0.058	**	DACPCI_in_nm_t-5 0.087 *
DACPCI_in_m_t-6	0.069	**	DACPCI_in_nm_t-6 -0.009
DACPCI_in_m_t-7	0.054		DACPCI_in_nm_t-7 0.080
DACPCI_in_m_t-8	0.069		DACPCI_in_nm_t-8 0.033
DACPCI_in_m_t-9	0.073		DACPCI_in_nm_t-9 -0.054
DACPCI_in_m_t-10	0.035		DACPCI_in_nm_t-10 -0.008
DACPCI_out_m_t	-0.021		DACPCI_out_nm_t -0.055
DACPCI_out_m_t-1	0.037		DACPCI_out_nm_t-1 0.109
DACPCI_out_m_t-2	0.039		DACPCI_out_nm_t-2 0.090
DACPCI_out_m_t-3	0.059	*	DACPCI_out_nm_t-3 -0.005
DACPCI_out_m_t-4	0.060		DACPCI_out_nm_t-4 0.092
DACPCI_out_m_t-5	0.251	**	DACPCI_out_nm_t-5 0.144
DACPCI_out_m_t-6	-0.035		DACPCI_out_nm_t-6 0.072
DACPCI_out_m_t-7	0.155	**	DACPCI_out_nm_t-7 -0.353
DACPCI_out_m_t-8	0.009		DACPCI_out_nm_t-8 collinearity
DACPCI_out_m_t-9	0.814	***	DACPCI_out_nm_t-9 collinearity
DACPCI_out_m_t-10	-0.047		DACPCI_out_nm_t-10 collinearity
DM_m_t	0.073	***	DM_nm_t 0.036 **
DM_m_t-1	0.017		DM_nm_t-1 -0.020
DM_m_t-2	-0.030	**	DM_nm_t-2 -0.048 **
DM_m_t-3	-0.015		DM_nm_t-3 -0.075 ***
DM_m_t-4	0.005		DM_nm_t-4 -0.071 ***
DM_m_t-5	0.004		DM_nm_t-5 -0.060 **
DM_m_t-6	0.026	*	DM_nm_t-6 -0.084 ***
DM_m_t-7	-0.043	**	DM_nm_t-7 -0.088 ***
DM_m_t-8	0.002		DM_nm_t-8 -0.023
DM_m_t-9	-0.004		DM_nm_t-9 -0.050 *
DM_m_t-10	0.024		DM_nm_t-10 -0.014
AR(1)	-15.137	***	
AR(2)	0.080		

Figure 2c. Trends in Coefficients: Estimation of In-in and Out-in Cases



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