Firm Capital: The Obscure Organizational Assets

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Abstract
Representing the majority of business enterprises, employment, and a substantial portion of the global GDP, collectively, SMEs are significant economic engines. Individually, however, they cannot begin to match the physical and financial, hard capital, assets of their "big business" counterparts. Consequently, their potential growth and survival may depend on how well they can harness the firm capital assets available to them. Firm capital, as defined here, consists of intellectual, customer, structural, cultural, and social capital. This paper explores the sources and uses of firm capital and its role in securing competitive advantage, new income streams, successful leadership transition, and constructive training and mentoring initiatives.

Keywords: *firm capital, knowledge management, intellectual capital, human capital, SME*

Introduction

Capital represents wealth or the means for producing wealth. Traditional economics explains that it comes in three forms: physical, financial, and human. Metaphorically, the business enterprise, large or small, is a "machine" that consumes capital to generate more capital. Consequently, a large proportion of the problems and decisions confronting business operators are related to the acquisition, allocation, and disposition of capital.

Studies in both the U.S. (NFIB, 2002) and the U.K. (Bennett & Robson, 1999) confirm that the primary concerns for SMEs seeking business advice are capital-related. Seventy-three percent of those in the NFIB study solicited help on "accounting, bookkeeping, and tax" issues, 46% on "loans, financial analysis, or cash management," and 45% on "prospective purchases or business investments." Issues for which they were least likely to solicit advice were human resource and personnel issues.

Chrisman and McMullan (2000) distinguish "counseling" from "consulting" by the former being more programmatic and focusing on direction, mentoring, and feedback, whereas the latter is more task-specific and project-oriented. In the NFIB study, the majority of solicited advice came in the form of counsel with the primary source being a family member. When operators sought consulting, 58.7% used accountants, 39.1% attorneys, 30.3% insurance agents and brokers, 28.2% bankers, and 12.8% business consultants. Larger enterprises (20-249 employees) were more likely to pay for and use professional advice than were smaller firms (1-20 employees), suggesting that consultation was perceived as more valuable as enterprise complexity and, thus, the economic consequence of error increased.

The focus of SME operators on their physical and financial, *hard capital*, wellbeing is not surprising. Tangible assets are the threads from which financial statements are woven and everyone from the tax collector to the potential lender or investor wants to see the financials. Physical assets produce the product or service; financial assets pay the bills and fuel growth. *Human capital* and the intangibles, *firm capital*, do not seem to receive the same concern. This too is predictable. *Hard capital* is generally viewed an asset, *human capital* as an expense, and intangibles as an accounting machination.

Nevertheless, economists do argue that human capital is one of the three enterprise-critical forms of capital and should receive as much attention as the other two. Further, if hard capital is perceived as the only significant weapon in the SME's arsenal, reality does not paint a very bright picture. Seven of the 25 richest small business executives in the U.S. derived their wealth from five companies that, combined, had hard capital assets totaling US$1.254 billions (FSB, 2004). Big Lots, ranked 493 on the Fortune 500, had US$ 1.4 billions (BIG, 2007). This equaled 0.09% of the hard capital assets of Wal-Mart (Wal-Mart, 2007). Big Lots and the typical SME are simply outgunned if they have to rely solely on their hard capital assets to compete.

The income statement and balance sheet may be helpful scorecards, but it is unlikely that they capture the essence of enterprise strength and competitiveness. Core competence and strategic advantage lie elsewhere and to understand them requires an understanding of *firm capital*. The purpose of this study is to explore the types of *firm capital* resources and assets and their implications for the SME.

"Firm capital" defined

The term "firm capital" is used here to distinguish other forms of capital from physical and financial capital, as defined by the field of economics. Although human capital is economic, it has both hard and a firm dimensions. The hard facet of human capital is *labo*r. Operationally, labor is a production unit. It is difficult to avoid calling it a production asset because labor's contribution is not unlike any other piece of production equipment. It is applied to transform inputs to outputs. From a strict accounting perspective, however, leaseholds and rents are expenses

and not assets. And, labor, in the absence of involuntary servitude, is rented and not owned, thus payroll and related expenses are not classified as assets. On the firm side, human capital also represents a repository of *knowledge and acumen*. To the extent that both are consumed on the job, this dimension of human capital is both firm and an asset. This firm aspect of human capital comprises what much of the literature (Bontis, 1998) describes as human *intellectual capital*. One might posit from the NFIB study that small business owners are far more sensitive to the implications of the *labor* dimension of human capital than the *intellectual* dimension. There are two other forms of intellectual capital. Martin (2000) adds *custome*r and *structural* capital to the list.

The economists do not have a monopoly on the concept of capital. Sociology has also made its contribution in the forms of *cultural capital* (Bourdieu, 1983; Swidler, 1986) and *social capital* (Coleman, 1988; Burt 1997) both of which relate to the "firm side" of capital. An additional form of social capital is described in the social psychology literature as *social facilitation* (Triplett, 1898).

Firm capital

Resources are stores of inputs that lie beyond the boundaries of the enterprise. Assets are things of value that reside within the enterprise. One might, thus, conclude that all capital begins as a resource until it is imported into the enterprise, placed on the books, and employed as an asset. Although the line between firm capital resources and firm capital assets may be thin, and the two may be related, some firm capital always retains resource status while other forms are actually generated internally and, thus, are never resources.

If the discussion appears a bit abstract, consider the following example. Human capital is a resource. Labor remains a perpetual resource, but the intellect that attends labor can be an asset. Although the enterprise can never own the labor, it can lay claim to ideas that are generated by those in its employ. This intellectual capital (IC) can produce economic gain by creating profitable new products or improved processes that reduce expenses. A portion of this IC may actually be imported from the labor pool and converted to an asset. For example, an engineer may bring a knowledge set that is used to benefit the enterprise. This *explicit knowledge* (Grant, 1996) can be accumulated, enhanced, taught, and learned. Another portion may be the product of on-the-job experiences. A "flash insight" may occur simply because one is the position to experience a nexus of serendipitous events. What is learned is unique, often difficult to explain, and may not even subject to conscious recall. This *tacit knowledge* (Berman, et al, 2002), if valuable to the enterprise, was never a resource, but is an asset generated solely within the enterprise.

Tacit and explicit knowledge are also related. A fount of tacit knowledge may make the explicit knowledge more meaningful and thus facilitate its acquisition, recall, and application (Vygotsky, 1934/1987). This is why MBA programs may require "some business experience" as a prerequisite for enrollment.

On the other hand, a store of explicit knowledge may provide the foundation for extracting tacit knowledge from an event. In the "flash insight" example provided above, part of one's "position to experience" derives from what the individual already knows. This is why two people exposed to the same event may be affected differently by it. One may conclude a profound insight and the other may remain untouched. The discussion to this point is summarized in Exhibit 1.

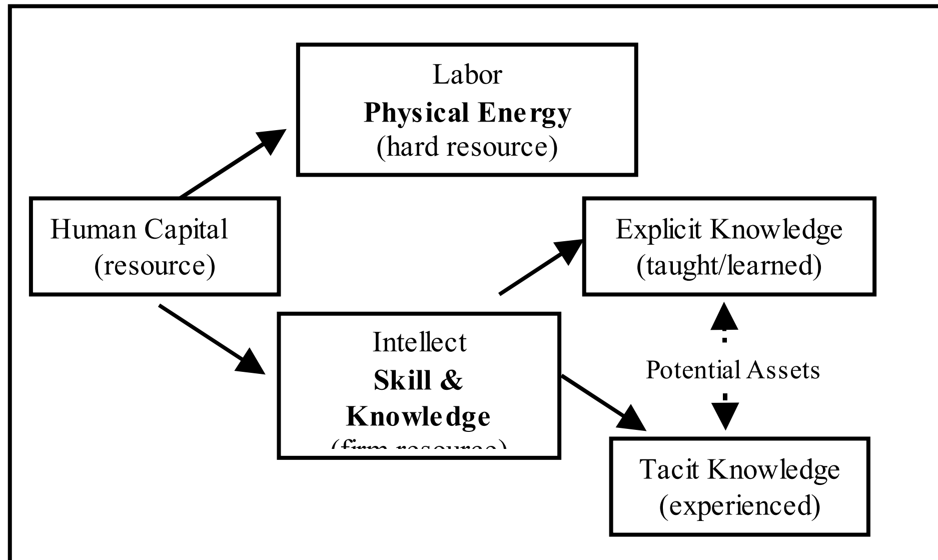

Exhibit 1 The origin of intellectual capital

Firm capital resources

In addition to human capital, firm capital also comes in the form of *social* and *cultural* capital. Social capital is created by the interaction of people. The corpus of social capital is the human networks that comprise the society as a whole (Coleman, 1988). It creates value by fostering changes in relationships that make the individual more or less valuable to the society in general and as a unit of human capital more specifically. In brief, social capital is embodied in relationships. It is created by shifts in interpersonal relations that "facilitate action."

Social capital

"Social capital is the contextual complement to human capital," notes Burt (1997), "while human capital refers to individual ability, social capital refers to opportunity," Irrespective of one's ability, a job promotion or invitation to join a coffee klatch depends on who you know, or, perhaps, who knows you. Social capital, in essence, can be measured in terms of "open doors." It determines why

every freshman in a prestigious university is not the best and brightest nor every office holder the most capable and competent. It promotes and prevents paradigm shifts; increases or reduces uncertainty and conflict; it is the “stock in trade” for every successful entrepreneur, sales person, hairdresser, and gossip.

Connection. There are three forms of social capital (Coleman, 1998): 1) obligations, expectations, and trustworthiness of structures, 2) information channels, and 3) norms and effective sanctions. The first is a form of “social contract” wherein individuals are bound together by a network of mutual obligations that they honor, and trust will be honored, by other network members. Those who have numerous obligations owed to them are rich in social capital. They can collect their debts in *quid pro quo* that, in turn, can be used to further their goals. Politicians and salespersons are generally keen on amassing this form of social capital. It bears noting that while interdependency increases social capital, self-sufficiency diminishes it.

Information. *Information channels* derive from the use of social relations to acquire and disseminate information. Relations may be developed solely for this purpose (a reporter maintaining a “stable” of sources) or such channels may arise spontaneously as an offshoot of relationships maintained for other purposes (a golf companion providing a stock tip). In either event, *connectedness* provides access to information and information is a powerful facilitator.

Conduct. *Norms and effective sanctions* are the “double-edged sword” of social capital. *Norms* are generally accepted standards and *sanctions* are punishments imposed for violating those standards. Together, they promote some actions and inhibit others. As a result, they provide consistency, predictability, and social order. By diminishing chaos, norms and effective sanctions enrich society by enabling it to function efficiently. On the distaff side they also curb spontaneity and innovation. Because of norms, Albert Einstein was considered a heretic among serious physicists when he first advanced his theory of quantum mechanics and was not taken very seriously.

Facilitation. Related to this latter issue is *social facilitation* (Triplett, 1898). Rooted in primitive survival mechanisms, some unique behaviors are elicited only in the presence of others (Guerin & Innes, 1982). Both *cooperation* and *competition* exist only within a social context. That is, the individual is incapable of manifesting either unless he or she is challenged or threatened by another (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1996). Some individuals will be “put off” by competition and others challenged to do their best. The *division of labor* is made possible by cooperation, yet some will eschew it in favor of independence. Both competition and cooperation can lead to extraordinary outcomes ranging anywhere from abject defeatism to unbridled determination; insidious conspiracy to unprecedented teamwork.

Unlike *norms and sanctions* that are social expressions of *cultural machinery*, social facilitation is an innate quality of humans that is induced or inhibited by social interactions. To the extent that socially facilitated behaviors can be leveraged to the firm's advantage, they are clearly a source of social capital. Communes thrive on their store of *cooperative capital* and free markets accelerate when they are rich in *competitive capital*. Internal cooperation reduces administrative and supervisory demands and internal competition elevates the performance of those who are disposed to respond to it and rewards the firm with a cadre of "superstars."

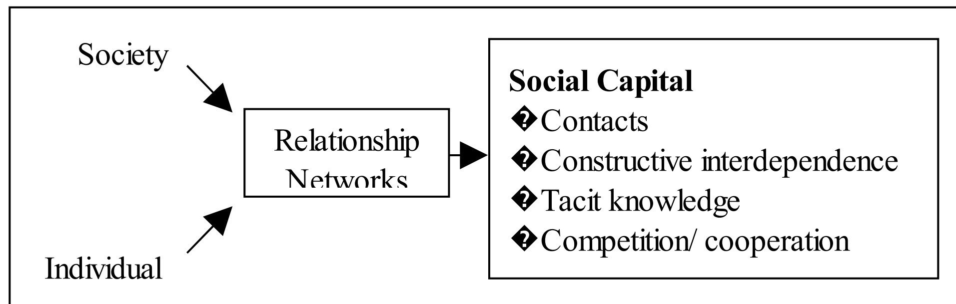

Exhibit 2 The creation and forms of social capital

Cultural capital. Like social capital, cultural capital also takes three forms: the embodied state, objectified state, and the institutionalized state (Bourdieu, 1983). It represents the skills, habits, and styles of a society (Swidler, 1986). In its embodied state, cultural capital consists of individual dispositions toward certain sentiments or actions (work, leisure, education, cooperation, use of time, physical wealth, etc.). It is acquired by socialization. That is, it is non-consciously "absorbed" from observations of or experiences with intimates — family and friends— and familiars — acquaintances and cultural heroes— and then embedded in the individual's skill and value set. Whether one uses enterprising drive and talents to produce social goods (legitimate business) or "bads" (criminal activity) is in large part determined by embodied cultural capital (Desman, 1999).

Because societies are not culturally homogeneous, nor cultures without sub-cultures, embodied cultural capital is valued differently for different reasons in disparate sectors of society. In Asian societies, a woman may be valued for being patient and dutiful because it preserves male dominance. When looking for a home, the porcine heart valve industry in the U.S. selected Southern California. The exacting and boring demands of sewing a heart valve on a wire frame, under a magnifying glass, in a sterile environment, required a stable, patient, reliable workforce with great hand-eye coordination. Asian women not only possessed the requisite demeanor, but they also had the necessary manual dexterity from using chopsticks. Southern California had one of the largest populations of Asian women in the country and, thus, was rich in the cultural capital required by the industry.

Objectified state. When embodied cultural capital is translated into "cultural goods," it exists in the *objectified state*. Much of what constitutes the objectified state is what cultural anthropologists refer to as *material culture* (art, artifacts, costumes, technology, data bases, etc.). Language is embodied and dictionaries represent *objectified language*. In his preface to *The Art of War,* Sawyer (Sun Tzu, 2. B.C.) describes how a shift from chariot to horseback warfare also fostered a change in attire from full-length robes (unsuited for sitting astride a horse) to the short tunics still popular in China today. Tracing the series of events, the cultural value – embodied state -- placed on resolving issues in battle led to a shift in tactical technology (cavalry was more versatile than chariots), which in turn produced a change in traditional costumes. The popularity of workout attire as every-day dress in contemporary society is a direct result of the high value placed on health and fitness. This, in turn, has impacted the dress codes of numerous companies.

Institutionalized state. As cultural capital becomes *institutionalized*, cultural norms become the essence of academic content. "The objectification of cultural capital in the form of academic qualifications is one way of neutralizing some of the properties it derives from the fact that, being embodied, it has the same biological limits as its bearer" (Bourdieu, 1983, p. 248). In the embodied state, the acquisition of cultural capital is subject to the vicissitudes of personal experience and that which is acquired is lost when the individual leaves or dies. When it is institutionalized it is preserved and promulgated across time and place. Once preserved, it can also be embellished and expanded.

In its institutionalized form, cultural capital is tantamount to explicit knowledge (Grant, 1996). Where explicit knowledge is prized, for example, one might expect to find considerable investment in educational institutions and research, family values that encourage formal education, and social rewards for the educated. Social capital is no longer a disposition to see or do things in a particular way, but rather, it is formalized into a craft or academic credential. Educational content, delivery, and assessment are culturally biased. Economic theory is presented differently in demand (laissez-faire) versus command (communist) economies. In highly structured societies lectures are delivered, in less-structured cultures, issues are discussed interactively. And, historically, developing countries have been biased toward emphasizing humanities, law, and medicine in higher education whereas industrialized nations place a greater emphasis on engineering and business curricula (Ball, et al, 2004).

Social and cultural capitals are imported into the enterprise via founding and employment processes. Both are attached to the organization's human capital. And, both have the potential to be harnessed as firm assets. It must be acknowledged, however, that some cultural capital can be a potential liability. Diversity comes in many forms, age, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic background, etc. and each form carries with it a different set of "cultural baggage." Honesty and work ethic are likely to vary across individuals and neither can be assumed.

Not every employee who has an educational credential has the education it is supposed to represent. Younger employees may have a different level of loyalty to an employer and respond differently to supervision than older employees. Where such issues impinge upon the smooth operation of the enterprise, they can weaken rather than strengthen the organization.

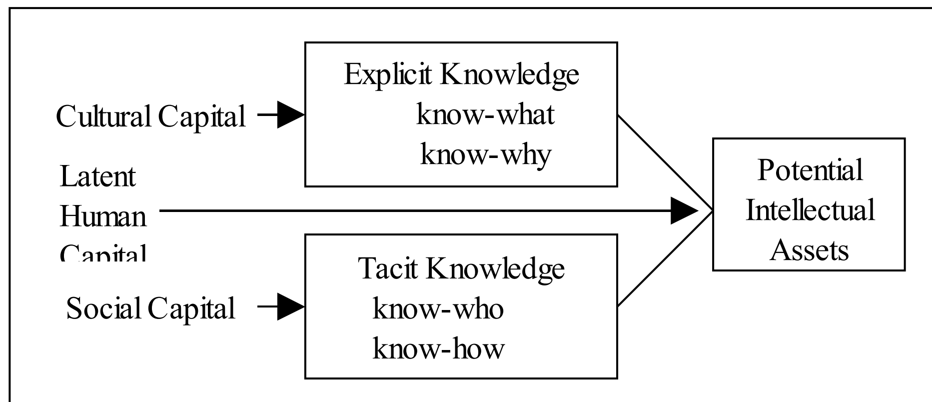

Exhibit 3 Firm capital resources

Malecki (1997) describes social and cultural resources in terms of know-why, know-what, know-how, and know-who. Beyond the "know," which is a product of previous experience, is innate ability to learn and perform, curiosity, insight, initiative, vision, charisma, and creativity all of which are capable of being harnessed for the benefit of the enterprise. These *latent* qualities are also attached to the individual, but may remain dormant unless they are stimulated and developed within the organization (see Exhibit 3 above).

Firm capital assets

A stock clerk may be hired to move merchandise from the stockroom to a display case. "Movement" applies energy to lift, load, transport, and place, thus it is a function of labor. Labor is always rented and expensed. But how does the clerk know where specific merchandise is located in the stockroom and how much of what goes to what display case? If the incumbent has previous experience he can "work it out" by applying explicit knowledge. The enterprise has, thus, imported intellectual capital (IC) and used it to its benefit. Both the labor and the knowledge are resources, but the labor remains a resource and the knowledge is converted to an asset.

But what happens if the clerk lacks salient experience? The firm has to train him. It invests its intellectual capital in the clerk to provide him the information necessary to do the job. The acquired knowledge was never a resource as it was created within the enterprise. The clerk, in turn, becomes more valuable to

the enterprise and increases its store of IC. The firm will retain the employee so long as it can profit from the labor expense and it receives a reasonable return on its investment in the intellectual capital. The process is so subtle; however, that only the payroll implications are likely to be given much consideration.

Although a stock clerk may not occupy a very prominent position in an enterprise, does not the same process apply to everyone in a firm? Each person represents a realized or potential asset and each also represents an IC investment to one degree or another. Founders leverage their IC to create enterprises and add to it as business operators. Employees, especially "knowledge workers," are hired because of their extant IC or their potential for acquiring it. Also, during their tenure, all organization members are recipients of some IC investment, be it as simple as a new-hire orientation or as complex as R&D program participation or coaching/mentoring relationships.

Social/cultural and biological conditions may contribute to the creation of firm capital, but it is at the asset level that it becomes particularly significant for the SME. Whether imported or imparted, the firm's store of internal *intellectual capital* is the "stuff" from which it will sculpt its destiny. How well the firm understands and manages its IC assets is, oftentimes, the difference between ultimate success and untimely demise; smooth succession and chaotic transition; competitive edge and also-ran existence.

Perhaps, one of the greatest strengths of SMEs over their larger rivals lies not in their hard capital, but in their IC and their flexibility to use it. Small firms can be more innovative because they are less constrained by administrative infrastructure (Cosh & Wood, 1998), entrenched paradigms, appealed or consensus decisions, and restrictive policies and procedures. They can create, initiate, and react more quickly and pursue a greater range of options than some counterparts because there is less organizational inertia to restrain them. They can gain access to customers and make doing business with them more valuable by being more personable, reliable, and consistent. What they can provide is enterprise-specific, difficult to imitate and it can be leveraged to develop new products and services or to access new markets. These qualities embody the essence of *distinctive competence* (Stewart, 1971). And, distinctive competence translates to competitive advantage when properly leveraged.

Although SMEs have the capacity to distinguish themselves, whether or not they do so depends upon how well they employ and deploy their IC. Specifically, how well they manage their *customer (relational) capital*, *structural (organizational) capital*, and *human capital* (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997, p. 146; Martin, 2000).

Customer capital: relationships

Customer capital is an asset dimension of social capital and it derives from developing strong interpersonal relationships with market "gatekeepers" and valued customers. Getting a vendor to expedite an order, move one to the top of a backorder list, or provide advance notice of a new product or market development;

securing retail exposure with additional product "facings," attractive distribution arrangements, or cooperative advertising commitments; and getting new customer leads or securing an order can be the direct result of amassed social capital and *quid pro quo*. Developing and nurturing relationships with key constituents can put as much money in the bank as a new piece of equipment, is generally less expensive, and is far more difficult for a competitor to copy.

Structural capital: organization "know-how"

When social capital assets are employed internally, they become the vehicle for disseminating tacit knowledge—know-who and know-how. Apprentices learn from journeymen, misrouting is reduced, problems are detected and resolved more quickly and smoothly, and "good ideas" are captured and enhanced in direct relation to the quality of internal social "networks." These internal networks are part of the organization's *structural capital* that also includes its amassed knowledge in databases (formal and informal), its processes, and its abilities and capacities. By investing its structural capital, the organization becomes more efficient, dependable, and unique. By investing in its structural capital, it becomes a "learning organization" (Stewart, 1997).

Human capital: person power

Human IC consists of the skills, capabilities, and knowledge available to the organization from within. As noted earlier, some of it is imported (explicit knowledge, cultural capital, and acumen) and some is developed within the organization. Martin (2000) classifies the dimensions of human IC as: 1) *commodity skills* (clearly imported) – those that can be easily acquired and employed by any enterprise, such as secretarial skills, 2) *leveraged skills* (likely imported) – those that are more unique and have situational value, like legal or engineering skills, and 3) *proprietary skills* (internally created) – those that are enterprise-specific and include such things as "familiarity," strategy, and facilitating secrets. Managing human IC demands making the best use of all three skills to the organization's advantage and preserving and increasing the store of proprietary skills because they are at the core of the firm's strength and distinctiveness.

Familiarity, to an extent, derives from internal *socialization* processes. It imbues organization members with a sense of "how things are done around here." Much has been said of *organization culture* so there is little point to belaboring the subject. Suffice it to note that a part of *familiarity*, an important part, is understanding the norms, values, roles, and *language* of the organization.

Just as ethnicities and industries develop their own language, organizations do so for much the same purposes. "Orgspeak" develops to more-quickly convey issues of central importance and to distinguish insiders from outsiders. Its conventions may sometimes seem frivolous, yet those who "speak the local tongue" are treated differently than those who do not (acceptance, credibility, deference, etc.). The meaning of common words may also be redefined

in "orgspeak." Whether a suggestion to "attend the meeting if you get a chance" is a request or a mandate depends on local meaning.

Another part of familiarity is "know-when" and "know-where." Along with "know-who" and "know-how," they constitute a large part of the tacit knowledge base that facilitates enterprise effectiveness and efficiency. Developing a good sense of "time and place" is contingent on experiences and the individual's willingness and ability to learn from them (latent human capital). Knowing whom not to engage until after the first cup of coffee, the first-aid kit is in file drawer "z", and who prizes or punishes new ideas, allows the individual to be more effective and the organization more efficient. Familiarity enables *boundary spanners* to identify "whom to tell what" and to phrase it in language that the contact understands.

The formulation process and content of the firm's growth, competitive, and functional *strategies* are part of its proprietary IC. Good strategies add value and poor strategies detract from it. Strategic awareness and execution, however, are also part of the IC. It is one thing to have a fundamentally sound strategy, another for those responsible to understand and properly prioritize it, and still another for them to properly execute it. A good strategy poorly understood and executed has no greater promise than a poor strategy that is understood and is well executed.

Perhaps the most elusive and valuable pieces of proprietary IC are *secrets*. Some information is kept confidential purposefully for reasons of security, competitive advantage, or even borderline paranoia. Contacts, customer lists, financial information, formulae, and processes could cause the enterprise harm if they fell into the wrong hands. The majority of secrets, however, remain so passively. Much of the IC wealth of the firm is retained in organization members who are not even conscious of the fact that they have it. It may be as banal as where to kick the copy machine to get it started or as exotic as how to best package a group of components or close a sale. There is a lot of "art and craft" in the organization that contributes to its wealth of IC but remains hidden.

Intellectual property. If proprietary skills can be concretized and are sufficiently original and unique, they can be protected using copyright and patent laws. Once protected, the IC becomes *intellectual property* (IP) that may be used to create additional benefits. First, as property, others cannot use it without the owner's permission. If the IP provides a competitive advantage, that advantage is secured. Second, The IP can be sold, licensed, or franchised for use by others and, thus, create new streams of income. And, third, the IP is an intangible asset (IFA, 1998) that may be used to secure debt and attract investors. In fact, of all the intangible assets identified by the SMAC (1995), IP is the most tangible and most likely to be perceived to have robust value. Finally, once IC becomes IP, its potential for conversion to hard capital is much more direct than when it is employed as a productive asset.

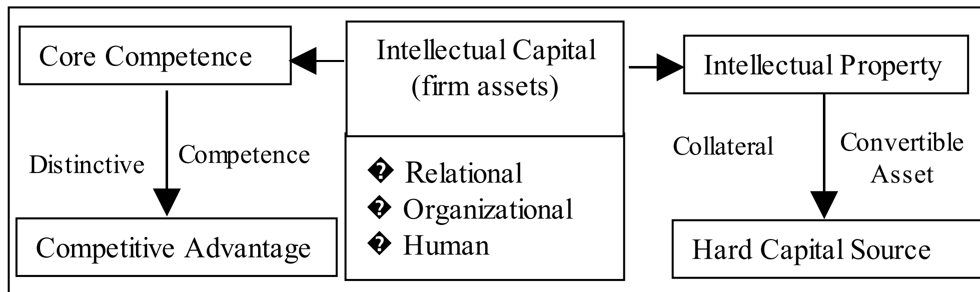

Exhibit 4 The competitive and financial value of firm capital

Discussion and conclusions

The IFA (IFAC, 1998, p.2) estimates that 50% of the value created by business enterprises derives from the management of IC. Yet the NFIB poll (NFIB, 2002) reveals that even though accountants are the primary source of business advice and that 78% of the advisees directly or indirectly pay for that advice, the vast majority of all solicited input pertains to physical and financial capital. Out of 11 categories of advice, hard capital concerns occupy 5 of the top 7; human resource/personnel matters rank 10th. Although the implications of the value of IC to SMEs has been subject of much recent research and discussion, the majority of interest seems focuses on its IP dimension (Kitching & Blackburn, 1998; WIPO, 2003).

Martin (2000) makes a compelling argument for the consideration of IC in succession planning, and expresses a concern over the IC "drain" associated with departing organization members. He opines that a large number of businesses fail after the departure of a founder/operator simply because of IC depletion. Although the loss of valuable firm capital through attrition and succession can weaken any enterprise, it may well lead to the demise of the SME. This latter issue should be of no small concern to the closely held or family business confronted with transition.

There are several other good reasons SMEs should give high priority to the management of their *firm capital* assets. Because they are not bound by the institutionalized inertia that often inhibits larger organizations, they are in a better position to capitalize on them — personable customer relations, innovative products and services, timely response, etc. Since the SME cannot begin to match the hard capital assets of larger firms, competitive advantage must be sought elsewhere—firm capital assets are likely candidates. And finally, if intellectual capital is converted to "intellectual property," the enterprise can protect its competitive position, create alternative streams of income, and increase its "book value" in the eyes of potential investors, lenders, and buyers.

How to best manage firm capital assets is as diverse an issue as the composition of the assets themselves. It touches on the acquisition of social, cultural, and latent capital through the employment process and the deployment

of these assets in job and organization design. There are implications for supervisory practices that can stimulate or impede the growth of firm capital stores and training and development initiatives that may enhance and transmit them. Looking beyond hard capital assets when assessing what is feasible for the enterprise and when to convert intellectual capital to intellectual property or pursue a "first to market" approach has strategic implications. The preservation of the organization's proprietary secrets relates to control practices and systems. And finally, a deeper appreciation of the importance of firm capital holds great promise for developing improved leadership, mentoring and coaching practices.

The literature relating to firm capital is rich with contributions from philosophy, psychology, sociology, and education. The significance of the subject has been addressed by both management and accounting scholars. Additional contributions explore the implications and management of intellectual property. What appears lacking, and seems a fertile field for further research, is a structure for actually managing *firm capital* assets that are not converted to property. Here, the literature is anecdotal at best. Another research stream that holds promise is the assessment, capture, and development of latent firm capital.

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