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Renewable Governance: Good for the Environment?

ALEXANDER DYCK,* KARL V. LINS,† LUKAS ROTH,‡
MITCH TOWNER,§ AND HANNES F. WAGNER**

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ABSTRACT

We conjecture that board renewal mechanisms—those substantive enough to renew the thinking of the board—are required before investors can address the mismatch between their preferences regarding environmental sustainability and what insiders at firms are actually doing. We identify the adoption of majority voting for directors and the introduction of a female director as two corporate governance mechanisms potentially strong enough to

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^{*}University of Toronto; †University of Utah; ‡University of Alberta; [§]University of Arizona; **Bocconi University

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renew a board's thinking on sustainability. Using a sample of 3,293 firms from 41 countries, along with quasi-exogenous shocks to board renewal mechanisms in Canada and France, we find that both board renewal mechanisms are associated with significantly higher future environmental performance. Further tests provide suggestive evidence that board renewal is more strongly associated with environmental performance in settings with better institutions and more motivated institutional investors. These results suggest the importance of board renewal for alignment of firm policies with investor preferences around the world.

JEL codes: G15, G23, G32, M49, Q50

Keywords: environmental performance; ownership structure; sustainability; corporate social responsibility; ESG; corporate governance

"Given the groundwork we have already laid engaging on disclosure, and the growing investment risks surrounding sustainability, we will be increasingly disposed to vote against management and board directors when companies are not making sufficient progress on sustainability-related disclosures and the business practices and plans underlying them."

—Larry Fink, CEO of Blackrock, January 14, 2020

1. Introduction

Institutional investors are increasingly concerned about environmental sustainability and a lack of action by some firms to address it. In the institutional investor survey of Krueger, Sautner, and Starks [2020], investors state that environmental risks have financial implications for their portfolio firms and that these risks have begun to materialize. These investors also state that engagement is important to address these risks, and more so than divestment. This gap between the thinking of investors and boards is further highlighted in a KPMG survey of board members and executives from 41 countries, which finds that although major investors continue to emphasize the link between Environmental, Social, and Governance (ESG) issues and long-term firm performance, less than half of those surveyed believed that a focus on ESG issues improves company performance, and only 11% said their board oversight of ESG-related risks and opportunities was robust (KPMG [2018], p. 2).

A typical investor approach to improve sustainability is to request improvements in environmental performance directly and/or improvements in environmental disclosures (see Christensen, Hail, and Leuz [2021] for a comprehensive literature review). However, both the quotation cited above by the world's largest investor and the extensive international corporate governance literature show that such an approach may not be enough. Although better information allows outsiders to be more focused in the specific actions they demand, investors need effective governance mechanisms before boards will act on their requests.

We conjecture that board renewal mechanisms—those substantive enough to renew the thinking of the board—are required before investors can address the mismatch between their preferences regarding sustainability and what insiders at firms are actually doing. Replacing existing board members with new board members that reflect the mindset of a firm's investors is an integral component of activist campaigns (e.g., Brav et al. [2008], Becht et al. [2017]). Also, as noted by Bebchuk and Hamdani [2017], investor-friendly changes to the voting process force existing board members to pay greater attention to investors' preferences, as investors can more easily vote them out. In these papers, the demanded governance changes are driven by general investor desires to fix suboptimal firm policies, rather than specific concerns about environmental performance.

In our paper, we use a sample of 3,293 firms from 41 countries to test the hypothesis that board renewal is fundamental for improving environmental performance. We focus on two mechanisms powerful enough to renew the thinking of the board for which enough data are available globally and quasi-exogenous variation is available in our sample period.

The first mechanism is the adoption of majority voting rules. With majority voting, a board member needs to receive more than 50% of the votes cast to be elected, giving outside investors the power to prevent insiders' candidates from joining the board. This increase in investor power to shape firms' decisions is associated with improved financial performance (e.g., Cuñat, Gine, and Guadalupe [2012], Ertimur, Ferri, and Oesch [2015], Doidge et al. [2019]). Absent majority voting rules, plurality voting rules generally apply. Under plurality voting, investors only vote "for" directors or "withhold" their vote. Thus, the opening quotation from Blackrock would have little impact absent majority voting, as they and other investors could not vote "against" directors, and if they "withhold" their votes, such votes simply would not be counted.

Our second mechanism is a proxy for forced board renewal, coming from regulators, investors, or societal pressures. A significant example of forced board renewal around the world is the concerted effort to increase female board representation. Using Norwegian data, Ahern and Dittmar [2012] find that female board members are less likely than male board members to be insiders (and thus more independent). Several countries imposed minimum quotas for female board representation during our sample period.

To test whether board renewal mechanisms are related to future environmental performance, we use ASSET4 ESG (now Refinitiv ESG), which offers comprehensive coverage of firms worldwide for a long time series. The line items in ASSET4 include CO₂ emissions, renewable energy use, waste recycling ratios, and so forth. Given extant measurement

¹The majority voting rule we study is distinct from a majority-of-minority voting standard that has been studied within China by Chen, Ke, and Yang [2013] and within India by Li [2021].

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concerns with environmental scores, in all our tests, we use both the proprietary-weighted ASSET4 z-score and an equal-weighted score that we construct from the line items. Further, we confirm that our results hold if we use an environmental performance score built using only line items for financially material issues for a company's particular industry as determined by the Sustainability Accounting Standards Board (SASB), as well as alternative environmental performance scores from other data providers (SAM S&P Global and Sustainalytics/Morningstar).

We find that board renewal is indeed positively associated with environmental sustainability. In panel regressions with ASSET4 Environmental z-Scores as the dependent variable, we find that firms with majority voting provisions have 8% higher environmental scores and firms with female directors have 15% higher environmental scores. Traditional good-governance line items (such as board independence) are also associated with better environmental performance, but their economic effect is about one quarter of our board renewal mechanisms. To account for the impact of time-invariant firm characteristics, we estimate firm fixed effect specifications. These models also show a positive and significant association of board renewal—firms with majority voting or female directors have between 3% and 4% higher environmental performance.

To further help with identification, we utilize country-level examples of quasi-exogenous variation in board renewal. In France, we identify legislation that mandated quotas for female board representation, and in Canada, we examine outside pressure that forced the adoption of majority voting rules. Importantly, we verify that these external pressures were not related to concurrent environmental concerns and, hence, are quasi-exogenous to our dependent variables. Additionally, for female board representation, we find examples of external activism for a larger sample of nine countries (we do not find similar shocks for majority voting outside Canada).

We employ difference-in-differences specifications using firm fixed effects comparing the subsequent environmental performance of firms affected by the "treatment" to otherwise similar unaffected firms. All of these quasi-exogenous shock tests find that board renewal is positively and significantly related to environmental performance. In terms of economic significance, the female director tests using the nine-country sample imply 8% greater environmental performance following the addition of the first female director, comparing the average environmental performance in the three years before the board renewal year to the environmental performance in the three years after.

We proceed to test whether the positive relationship between board renewal and future environmental performance continues to hold when we control for specific board member characteristics that themselves may be positively correlated with a commitment to environmental performance (e.g., age, experience, and education). Ahern and Dittmar [2012], for example, test six characteristics and find that, compared with existing male directors, new female directors have significantly less CEO experience, are

younger, and are more highly educated. When we control for these six board-member characteristics, we obtain coefficient estimates for board renewal that are essentially unaltered in both significance and magnitude.

We make use of our international data to investigate whether board renewal mechanisms are more strongly associated with environmental performance in certain settings. Extant research shows that traditional governance mechanisms are more effective where country-level disclosure and investor protection rules are stronger (e.g., Hail and Leuz [2006], Doidge, Karolyi, and Stulz [2007], Lel and Miller [2019])—but whether the institutional environment influences board renewal has not been studied. We segment our sample based on the strength of disclosure and investor protection at the country level, and test whether the relationship between board renewal and environmental performance depends on a country's institutions, while also controlling for traditional governance. The crosscountry comparisons provide modest evidence that board renewal is more strongly associated with environmental performance in settings with better institutions.

Next, we test whether the relationship between board renewal and environmental performance is stronger when a firm has a greater concentration of motivated investors that have preferences for improvements in environmental performance. We use two approaches to identify motivated institutional investors: those from countries with high social norms toward the environment and those from countries that have adopted stewardship codes that encouraged investors to step up their exercise of governance. We find suggestive evidence that board renewal mechanisms are more strongly related to environmental performance in the presence of motivated investors.

Finally, we analyze whether the path from board renewal to improved environmental performance is associated with one or more specific actions over which the board has control: having a sustainability committee, producing annual sustainability reports, tying executive pay to sustainability targets, and disclosing how the firm engages with its stakeholders regarding sustainability. We estimate regression models using each of these four actions as dependent variables. In almost all tests, we find a significant positive relation between majority voting or having a female board member and each of these four actions. These tests provide evidence of plausible channels through which environmental performance is improved.

We note here several points our paper does not focus upon. We choose not to include U.S. firms in our tests as they would constitute 40% of the sample and make it difficult to generalize results around the world. Including U.S. firms does not alter our results. We focus on environmental performance rather than social performance for two reasons: First, for environmental performance, investors almost unequivocally state that there is a significant gap between what they want and what the board actually delivers; second, Berg, Koelbel, and Rigobon [2022] show there is greater agreement among data providers on environmental than social items.

Nevertheless, we test whether there is a relationship between board renewal and firms' future social performance and find this relationship to be similarly significant. We also do not test whether improved environmental performance is net present value enhancing. Environmental performance choices are complicated and there are at least two situations where there may be overinvestment: first, when directors' care more deeply about the environment than investors know, and those personal preferences drive their board decisions; second, when investors overestimate the importance of environmental performance for firm value.

Our findings speak to investors, analysts, and academics interested in understanding the specific reporting items that matter for both environmental and financial performance (e.g., Christensen, Hail, and Leuz [2021]). Our paper suggests that measured environmental performance is at least partly shaped by prior governance choices. Thus, for those inclined to use environmental, social, and governance measures as independent constructs, our findings show that they instead should be considered as interrelated. Our contribution is to show that board renewal is a fundamental governance mechanism associated with improved environmental performance and sustainability-oriented actions taken by firms.

Our paper also adds to a growing literature on investor preferences and environmental sustainability (Friedman and Heinle [2016], Hart and Zingales [2017], Dyck et al. [2019], Pástor, Stambaugh and Taylor [2021]). These papers take the perspective that institutional investors are fully capable of internalizing both the costs and benefits of improved environmental performance for long-run success. Many of these investors increasingly conclude that the aggregate benefits of increasing environmental performance outweigh the costs. In this light, our paper provides a roadmap for environmentally motivated investors, steering them to focus on board renewal. Further, our country subsample analysis suggests that governments can play a role. When countries with poor institutions strengthen them, this will better enable investor pressure to change the thinking of corporate boards, improving environmental sustainability and investor welfare.

Finally, our paper adds to the literature on the performance implications of majority voting rules (e.g., Cuñat, Gine, and Guadelupe [2012], Ertimur, Ferri, and Oesch [2015], Doidge et al. [2019]) and female board participation (e.g., Adams and Ferreira [2009], Adams and Funk [2012], Ahern and Dittmar [2012], Kim and Starks [2016]). Our contribution is to show that these forms of board renewal have impacts that extend beyond financial performance. Of particular note, we find that adding a female director (arising from a quota or by choice) has a significant positive relationship with future environmental performance. Because we control for nongender director characteristics, this suggests that director gender, on its own, influences a firm's environmental sustainability.

2. Theoretical Predictions

We assume the board has the ultimate authority to make environmental investments. Board members are motivated by a preference to retain their positions, which provide pecuniary and nonpecuniary benefits. We assume that board members are not perfect agents of investors. When it comes to the level of environmental investments they seek, board members balance *insiders* 'preferences for environmental investment, *investors* 'preferences for environmental investment, and because they also care about nonpecuniary factors, *board members* 'own preferences regarding environmental investments.

We characterize an environmental investment as one that requires a current cash outlay for a long-term benefit. We assume that investors in aggregate value environmental performance. This arises in the models of Friedman and Heinle [2016] and Pástor, Stambaugh, and Taylor [2021], when some proportion of investors have strong preferences for improving environmental performance (as they care about environmental externalities), while others do not. Further, based on Dyck et al. [2019], Krueger, Sautner, and Starks [2020], and KPMG [2018], we assume that investors in aggregate want greater environmental performance than is currently being provided by firms. Thus, given these assumptions, how do investors interested in achieving better environmental performance in their portfolio firms obtain it?

At its core, the key to obtaining better environmental policies is no different than the key to changing other operating and investment strategies investors find suboptimal: They need more power so they can get boards to renew their thinking. Traditional governance mechanisms, which have been around for a long time, are apparently not sufficient to get boards to internalize investors' evolving preferences for greater environmental commitments. For example, many firms have required board independence along with an independent Chairperson for decades, and nonetheless are falling short of investors' preferences regarding environmental performance, as illustrated by our opening quote. One possible reason is that board members are frequently co-opted by insiders (e.g., Shivdasani and Yermack [1999], Coles, Daniel, and Naveen [2014], Bebchuk and Hamdani [2017]). Having a co-opted board plausibly matters for environmental performance—insiders suffer from short-termism stemming from compensation and career concerns, which lead them to place a disproportionate focus on

² Sustainability concerns among investors are not restricted to firms in developed countries. Krueger, Sautner, and Starks [2020] provide evidence of sustainability preferences in some of the largest investors globally. Dyck et al. [2019] document that institutional ownership is predominantly nondomestic for firms in less-developed countries, thus, the sustainability preferences of investors from developed countries could affect environmental performance globally. In the KPMG [2018] survey, executives and board members report investor pressure to focus on ESG issues across all countries, with the greatest pressure recorded for firms in less-developed countries.

current financial performance (e.g., Stein [1989], Edmans, Gabaix, and Jenter [2017], Flammer and Bansal [2017]). Hence, via traditional governance mechanisms, investors may find it difficult to get boards to fully internalize their thinking on environmental performance.

In this paper, we focus on mechanisms powerful enough to renew the thinking of the board for which enough data are available to examine in an empirical setting. To achieve board renewal, Bebchuk and Hamdani [2017] note that investors have focused on three ways to refine the voting process for directors: nominating committees composed of independent directors, majority voting, and giving investors enhanced proxy access. Of these, we focus on the majority voting mechanism as we have available data around the world, there is significant variation in the use of this mechanism across firms, and, as described in section 4, we have variation across time in firm adoption of this mechanism driven by external factors and not environmental performance concerns.³

With majority voting, a board member must obtain more than 50% of the votes cast to be elected (compared with a simple plurality of votes cast), giving investors the ability to renew the board by having their preferred candidates elected. Thus, once majority voting rules are in place, current directors interested in keeping their jobs will become more investor attentive. In today's climate, where investors see financial or nonfinancial benefits to improved environmental performance, directors subject to majority voting will focus more on investors' preferences rather than on insiders' reluctance to invest because of short-termism.

Society-driven reforms that affect board composition also have the potential to renew the thinking of the board. The most prominent of such reforms is forced board renewal stemming from the global effort to increase female board representation. This leads to a greater focus on environmental performance if female board members are less focused on insiders' preferences.

Adams and Ferreira [2009] suggest this is likely "because they do not belong to the 'old boys club,' female directors could more closely correspond to the concept of the independent director emphasized in theory"

³ For mandatory nomination committee rule changes, we find that a mandatory nomination committee rule is positively associated with subsequent environmental scores in panel regressions, but we choose not to focus on this measure because there is minimal variation, and we cannot find quasi-exogenous shocks. A manual check of whether mandatory nomination committee rule changes are introduced during our sample period yields no cases to exploit. For example, Hong Kong strengthened its definition of independence for nomination committee members in 2011, but we do not observe any significant change in director independence at that time. Germany in 2007 introduced a requirement that nominating committees consist of at least 50% independent directors, but our coverage of German firms at that time is small. Other countries such as Denmark or Italy introduced such requirements before the beginning of our sample period, whereas Portugal introduced them subsequently. We are unable to use enhanced proxy access, as it so far remains a focus for U.S. firms and not elsewhere in the world

(p. 292). Among Norwegian firms, Ahern and Dittmar [2012] find that women added to the board are less likely than male board members to be insiders. In addition, the nonpecuniary preferences of women may align more with investors' preferences regarding environmental performance. Behavioral economics research supports this—women in general have stronger "other regarding" preferences than men, such as a stronger concern for the environment (e.g., Anderoni and Vesterlund [2001], Adams and Funk [2012], Thaler [2016], Crongvist and Yu [2017]). Practitioner surveys are consistent with this view, reporting that female directors are more likely than their male counterparts to say that ESG issues in general (60% vs. 46%) and climate change specifically (79% vs. 62%) should be incorporated in company strategy (PwC [2021]). If a newly added female director arrives to the board with innately high nonpecuniary utility from making environmental investments, and her board moves to reflect the thinking of this new director, the firm will increase its environmental Performance.

In conclusion, when boards are capable of renewing their thinking—as proxied by majority voting rules or greater female board representation—investors are able to get their environmental preferences represented on the board in a timely manner. As a result, the board's decisions going forward should better reflect the preferences of the firm's investors and, in turn, the firm invests more in environmental performance.

3. Sample and Summary Statistics

3.1 Environmental performance

At the time of writing our paper, no apparent market leader exists for ESG data. We choose the ASSET4 ESG database (now Refinitiv ESG),⁴ because it offers the broadest coverage of publicly traded firms worldwide for the longest time series. ASSET4 analysts acquire information from annual reports, corporate sustainability reports, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and news sources at annual frequency. It evaluates firms' environmental commitments in three areas: Emission Reduction, Resource Reduction, and Product Innovation. Within each area, ASSET4 analysts identify specific line items (e.g., "Are the firm's greenhouse gas emissions/sales below the industry median in that year?"), with 70 items in total (we report these in online appendix table OA-1). Consistent coverage of firms begins in 2004, with coverage for a few countries starting in 2009. We use data from 2004 through year-end 2015 for our analysis. All variable definitions and data sources are provided in the appendix.

⁴We obtained the data from ASSET4 in February 2018. At that time, the ASSET4 database was offered by Thomson Reuters. In October 2018, Blackstone bought a majority stake in Thomson Reuters' Financial and Risk unit, which was renamed Refinitiv. The ESG database is currently being offered as Refinitiv ESG.

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Our primary environmental performance measure is the proprietaryweighted aggregate scores that ASSET4 provides to investors (ASSET4 z-Scores). This is a rank-based score that ranges from 0 to 100 and measures the environmental performance relative to all other companies in a given year. We note that the weighting scheme of ASSET4 is not transparent, raising the possibility that it may not sufficiently weight real effects. To help to mitigate concerns that a particular proprietary weighting drives results, as a secondary environmental performance measure, we create a measure that equally weights raw environmental data items provided by ASSET4. For this secondary measure, we first transform all line items into indicator variables such that a "one" corresponds to better environmental performance (e.g., a below-median greenhouse gas emission firm would get a "one") and then sum up the indicator variables in each of the three environmental categories, divide by the number of available indicators, and take an average across the three environmental categories. For all analyses, we draw identical conclusions when using this secondary variable, and we report these tests in the online appendix.

Additional measurement concerns include a disagreement between ESG data providers (e.g., Gibson, Krueger, and Schmidt [2019], Berg, Koelbel, and Rigobon [2022], Christensen, Serafeim, and Sikochi [2022]) or that line items are often not material (Yang [2020]). To mitigate these potential concerns, we run a battery of tests with a variety of alternative environmental performance measures. Specifically, our alternative performance measures are a materiality-weighted environmental score, in which we weight the raw environmental data items based on the materiality for that industry as determined by the SASB (see, e.g., Khan, Serafeim, and Yoon [2016]), aggregate environmental performance scores from SAM S&P Global and Sustainalytics (now Morningstar), and subcomponent scores from ASSET4. Our results obtain with all these alternative measures.

Finally, we note that environmental performance data differ from financial performance data in that disclosure is not mandatory, not required to be audited, and information may be missing.⁶ Despite this, strong investor pressure exists to produce these data, and firms around the world are increasingly reporting against common standards and seeking external assurance that their environmental performance data are valid. Such concerns matter because Christensen, Serafeim, and Sikochi [2022] show that cross-sectional and time-series differences in disclosure standards increase

⁵The SASB industry-based Materiality Map is, to our knowledge, the most comprehensive attempt yet to consider specifically those sustainability issues that are likely to affect the financial or operating performance of firms. The SASB classification was published in November 2018. We use the prepublication online version as of December 2017 (see materiality.sasb.org).

⁶Another potential concern is that data providers may revise their historical scores. For example, Berg, Fabisik, and Sautner [2021] note a rewriting of the ASSET4 data in April of 2020. This concern does not apply to our analysis, as we obtained our ASSET4 data before the one-time methodology-related rewriting.

disagreement on ESG metrics between data providers. For robustness, we explore in online appendix table OA-2 whether missing data for environmental scores are important for our sample. We find that more than 70% of ASSET4's line items are available in each year and that these high reporting percentages are relatively stable over time and across countries. This suggests that inconsistent reporting is unlikely to drive our empirical results.

3.2 BOARD RENEWAL, TRADITIONAL GOVERNANCE, AND OWNERSHIP

A contribution of our paper is that we explore board renewal mechanisms. There is growing academic evidence that investors are pushing for environmental performance improvements (e.g., Dyck et al. [2019], Krueger, Sautner, and Starks [2020]). As discussed in section 2, we focus on two governance mechanisms powerful enough to renew the thinking of the board—majority voting rules and female board representation. We define Majority Election as an indicator variable that equals one if the company's board members are generally elected with a majority vote, and zero otherwise; and Female Director as an indicator variable that equals one if the firm has at least one female director, and zero otherwise. We obtain these data from ASSET4 and BoardEx.

Given the longstanding research that documents the impact of traditional governance mechanisms for firms' choices, it is important that an empirical assessment of board renewal allows for traditional governance to have a role as well. Following Aggarwal et al. [2008], we construct an index, Traditional Governance, based on several governance mechanisms they argued, at that time, "have received the most attention in the academic literature and from observers." These mechanisms are Board Independence: the board has more than 50% independent directors; Board Size: the board has more than 5 members but less than 16; CEO/Chairperson Separation: the roles of the CEO and Chairperson are separated; Board Structure: directors are elected individually (no staggered board); Audit Committee Independence: the audit committee is composed solely of independent directors; and Stock Classes: only one class of common stock (all shares have equal voting rights; no dual classes). We obtain these data from ASSET4 and BoardEx.

We also control for ownership, by identifying firms that are block-holder controlled. We measure blockholder control by combining detailed firm-level ownership data from ASSET4, Datastream, Orbis (Bureau van

⁷In online appendix table OA-3, we assess whether the relationship between female board members and environmental performance is more pronounced if a firm has two or more female directors on the board, and find this to be the case.

⁸ Papers that explore the relation between some form of traditional governance and CSR levels include Walls, Berrone, and Phan [2012], Krueger [2015], and Ferrell, Liang, and Renneboog [2016].

⁹We do not include a measure (Auditor Ratification: auditors are ratified at most recent annual meeting) that was in the Aggarwal et al. [2008] index, as it is not available in ASSET4.

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Dijk), and the Global Family Business Index (obtained from Center for Family Business at the University of St. Gallen, Switzerland). We group blockholder-controlled firms into two categories: firms controlled by a family and firms controlled by nonfamily blockholders. Controlling for family ownership is important, given the evidence showing that private benefits for families come from current cash flows or cash holdings. Thus, family insiders may be less willing to use current cash to make potential environmental investments, as such spending will limit their private benefits. ¹⁰

3.3 FINAL SAMPLE AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Our starting sample consists of 27,913 firm-year observations with AS-SET4 Environmental z-Score data between 2004 and 2015. We exclude 430 observations by requiring at least 10 firms per country. We lose 506 observations by merging with Worldscope financial statement data. We lose 1,834 observations after merging with Factset to obtain institutional holdings. We lose 4,397 observations after requiring majority election and traditional governance mechanism data from ASSET4. We lose 215 observations constructing Female Director from BoardEx and ASSET4. Finally, we exclude 84 singleton year-by-country or year-by-industry observations. Our final sample consists of 20,447 firm-year observations and covers 3,293 firms from 41 countries.

In panel A of table 1, we report summary statistics for firms' environmental performance, governance mechanisms, and other characteristics. Regarding firms' environmental performance, the average ASSET4 Environmental z-Score is 54.2 and the average ASSET4 Equal-weighted Environmental Score is 39.1, where a perfect score would be 100 for each of the two measures. Turning to the governance measures, firms have majority elections in 55% of our sample firm-years, and 60% of our firm-years have at least one female board member. The average firm has 3.7 out of the 6 traditional governance mechanisms (e.g., more than 50% of the board is independent, separation of Chairperson and CEO). In terms of ownership characteristics, 23% of firms are family-controlled, and 7% of firms are controlled by another type of blockholder.

In panel B of table 1, we report average environmental performance and governance measures for our sample firms by country. To facilitate comparisons across countries, we report summary statistics for the cross-section in year 2012. The countries where firms have the highest environmental performance are all European. Countries where firms' environmental scores

¹⁰ For example, markets put a lower value on corporate cash holdings when firms have entrenched insider/family control, indicating a fear that cash will be consumed for private benefits (Kalcheva and Lins [2007]). Similarly, transfer pricing schemes that involve trading between public companies overwhelmingly have private benefits created from current (rather than future) cash flows (Cheung, Rau, and Stouraitis [2006], Desai, Dyck, and Zingales [2007], Jiang, Lee, and Yue [2010]). Further, family-controlled firms have been shown to both underperform and be unwilling to make current investments particularly during periods where cash holdings are most valuable (Lemmon and Lins [2003], Lins, Volpin, and Wagner [2013]).

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics

		Desc	riptive Stat	tistics			
Panel A: Summ	nary statist	ics					
Variable				Mean	Median	SD	Obs
A. Environmen	ıtal perfor	mance measures					
ASSET4 Enviro	nmental a	z-Score		54.2	57.6	31.2	20,447
ASSET4 Equal-	weighted	Environmental So	core	39.1	36.8	21.2	20,447
B. Governance	mechanis	sms					
Majority Election	on			0.548	1.000	0.498	20,447
Female Directo	or			0.596	1.000	0.491	20,447
Traditional Go	vernance			3.650	4.000	1.431	20,447
Board Indep	endence			0.465	0.000	0.499	20,447
Board Size				0.840	1.000	0.367	20,447
CEO-Chairm	an Separa	ation		0.656	1.000	0.475	20,447
Board Struct	ure			0.331	0.000	0.470	20,447
Audit Comm	ittee Inde	ependence		0.615	1.000	0.487	20,447
Stock Classes	s			0.745	1.000	0.436	20,447
C. Firm financi	ials and ov	vnership characte	eristics				
Log (Total Asse	ets)			8.671	8.561	1.810	20,447
Cash				0.126	0.088	0.125	20,447
Tangibility				0.308	0.255	0.261	20,447
Leverage				0.236	0.221	0.173	20,447
Profitability				0.056	0.051	0.086	20,447
Family				0.225	0.000	0.418	20,447
Other Blockho	lder			0.067	0.000	0.249	20,447
Institutional O	wnership			0.241	0.197	0.176	20,447
Cross-list	•			0.109	0.000	0.311	20,447
D. Director cha	aracteristic	cs					
CEO Experience	ce			0.396	0.400	0.207	15,881
MBA				0.106	0.091	0.116	15,881
Higher Educati	ion			0.183	0.154	0.163	15,881
Same Name				0.057	0.000	0.124	15,881
Age				58.04	58.00	4.394	15,881
Tenure				6.130	5.508	3.291	15,881
Panel B: Summ	nary statist	ics by country					
		nmental Scores	Go	vernance	Variables	(Obs
		ASSET4		vernance	variables		7.00
	ACCET4		Majarit	Famala	Traditional	Year	Full
Country		Equal-weighted	,		Traditional		
Country	z-Score	Score			Governance		Sample
Australia	33.2	28.3	0.79	0.56	4.11	272	2,099
Austria	59.4	46.3	0.80	0.87	3.40	15	141
Belgium	57.2	44.3	0.71	0.83	3.13	24	242
Brazil	57.5	44.6	0.56	0.54	3.84	57	358
Canada	40.2	32.6	0.81	0.59	5.42	229	1,998
Chile	39.5	32.0	0.41	0.29	3.00	17	107
China	31.7	26.8	0.68	0.53	2.57	120	783

(Continued)

TABLE 1—(Continued)

		TABL	E 1—(Ca	mtinued)			
Panel B: Sumn	nary statist	ics by country					
	Enviro	nmental Scores	Go	vernance	Variables	(Obs
Country	ASSET4 z-Score	ASSET4 Equal-weighted Score		Female Director	Traditional Governance	Year 2012	Full Sample
Colombia	40.4	34.2	0.60	0.50	3.90	10	56
Denmark	68.3	50.7	0.96	0.88	4.00	25	186
Egypt	18.3	18.1	0.09	0.55	2.18	11	59
Finland	80.9	62.1	0.29	1.00	5.38	24	264
France	81.9	63.3	0.70	0.99	2.11	89	861
Germany	70.5	56.0	0.81	0.93	2.03	72	541
Greece	59.0	47.0	0.38	0.81	2.56	16	152
Hong Kong	36.6	30.5	0.65	0.60	2.83	106	941
India	50.2	42.3	0.41	0.53	3.05	80	529
Indonesia	46.3	36.6	0.29	0.46	3.25	28	194
Ireland	49.2	41.6	0.73	0.87	4.67	15	147
Israel	42.1	33.7	0.60	1.00	4.00	15	98
Italy	60.8	49.9	0.72	0.72	3.00	43	422
Japan	67.1	54.3	0.38	0.12	2.21	349	2,129
Luxembourg	62.6	45.6	1.00	0.57	4.00	7	64
Malaysia	41.5	33.8	0.64	0.57	3.62	42	278
Mexico	45.4	35.8	0.38	0.46	3.81	26	190
Netherlands	67.9	52.2	0.85	0.73	3.91	33	334
New Zealand	44.2	34.2	1.00	0.80	4.70	10	129
Norway	68.1	52.0	0.53	1.00	4.53	17	151
Philippines	43.9	34.9	0.26	0.37	3.32	19	126
Poland	35.9	30.9	0.78	0.78	2.83	23	149
Portugal	73.4	57.5	0.67	0.67	2.58	12	120
Russia	46.8	36.3	0.31	0.53	4.31	32	239
Singapore	41.9	35.3	0.55	0.50	4.23	44	426
South Africa	50.2	39.4	0.92	0.92	4.16	119	580
South Korea	67.4	53.2	0.36	0.10	3.27	59	305
Spain	75.4	57.3	0.79	0.88	2.26	42	427
Sweden	75.6	57.5	0.30	1.00	4.73	40	417
Switzerland	57.7	45.3	0.86	0.57	3.91	58	508
Taiwan	54.4	43.2	0.32	0.48	2.75	75	418
Thailand	53.4	42.8	0.88	0.79	3.58	24	150
Turkey	57.9	44.7	0.38	0.54	3.25	24	151
UK	60.7	46.0	0.91	0.76	5.27	276	2,978
Overall	54.2	39.1	0.55	0.60	3.65	2,599	20,447

This table shows descriptive statistics of environmental scores, measures of corporate governance, and other key variables used in our main tests. Panel A shows summary statistics for the full sample. Panel B shows country averages for the year 2012 and the number of observations for the year 2012 and the full sample. The sample period is 2004-2015. All variables are winsorized at the $1^{\rm st}$ and $99^{\rm th}$ percentiles. All variables are described in the appendix.

are lowest are concentrated in Asia and Australia. Traditional Governance is strongest in Canada, the United Kingdom, and Finland. In more than 90% of firm-years are directors elected by majority vote in Denmark, Luxembourg, New Zealand, South Africa, and the United Kingdom, whereas no

more than 30% are elected by majority vote in Egypt, Finland, Indonesia, and the Philippines. All firm-years in Finland, Israel, Norway, and Sweden have at least one female board member, whereas female board representation is lowest in Japan (12%) and South Korea (10%).

4. Is Board Renewal Related to Firms' Environmental Performance?

4.1 BASELINE TESTS

Our baseline tests in models 1 through 4 of table 2 examine the relation between corporate governance and firms' environmental performance using the following specification:

$$Log (Score_{i,t}) = \alpha + \beta' X_{i,t-1} + \gamma' Y_{i,t-1} + \Lambda + \varepsilon_{i,t},$$
 (1)

where the dependent variable is the log of one of the environmental scores of firm i in year t, $X_{i,t-1}$ are measures of board renewal or traditional governance in firm i in year t-1, $Y_{i,t-1}$ are a set of firm-level controls in year t-1, and Λ are year-by-country and year-by-industry fixed effects. Given the substantial variation over time, across country, and across industry, such fixed effects guard against the possibility that our results are driven by a particular industry or country in a given year. We use logs of environmental scores to obtain better distributional properties and to reduce the impact of outliers. We cluster standard errors by country.

For firm-level control variables, we include firm size as prior literature has shown it to be related to ownership structures, and larger firms may be subject to more external pressures. Hong, Kubik, and Scheinkman [2012] suggest that financial slack also explains adoption of sustainability-oriented policies. Following them, we include cash, asset tangibility, leverage, and profitability as control variables. We include indicators for family and other blockholder-controlled firms as blockholders may be subject to short-termism. Institutional ownership is included as Dyck et al. [2019] find that institutional investors are a factor in environmental performance around the world. Finally, we include a cross-listing indicator to capture broad governance structures.

The tests in table 2 show a significant and economically important relationship between board renewal mechanisms and firms' environmental

¹¹ Environmental variables reflect data available to ASSET4 analysts that covers the firm's fiscal year. A score for fiscal year 2010, for example, would reflect items that occurred during the 2010 fiscal year as well as information contained in the company annual report and any company sustainability reports published after the fiscal-year end early 2011. Thus, our baseline model with 2010 environmental scores would have fiscal year 2009 right-hand side variables.

 $^{^{12}}$ Results are unaffected using raw scores rather than log scores. Our results are also similar when we use industry-by-country-by-year fixed effects (although we lose 10% of the sample because of singleton observations).

TABLE 2

Are Governance Mechanisms Related to Firms' Environmental Performance?

		ASSET4	Environmenta	al z-Score	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Majority Election	0.089***			0.080***	0.032*
<i>y</i> ,	(4.06)			(3.54)	(1.79)
Female Director		0.142^{***}		0.137^{***}	0.035^{**}
		(4.64)		(4.55)	(2.43)
Traditional Governance			0.030^{**}	0.024^{**}	0.010
			(2.55)	(2.04)	(1.29)
Log (Total Assets)	0.219***	0.212***	0.221***	0.208^{***}	0.087^{**}
	(11.43)	(11.75)	(11.63)	(11.61)	(5.18)
Cash	-0.089	-0.073	-0.078	-0.077	-0.143^{**}
	(-1.30)	(-1.05)	(-1.13)	(-1.09)	(-2.55)
Tangibility	0.189^{***}	0.189^{***}	0.186^{***}	0.190^{***}	0.095
	(2.87)	(3.08)	(2.79)	(3.10)	(1.00)
Leverage	-0.156	-0.145	-0.154	-0.148	-0.105^{*}
	(-1.63)	(-1.54)	(-1.59)	(-1.55)	(-1.72)
Profitability	0.300^{**}	0.275^{**}	0.300^{**}	0.275^{**}	-0.049
	(2.20)	(2.07)	(2.19)	(2.04)	(-1.44)
Family	-0.106^{***}	-0.108^{***}	-0.100^{***}	-0.098^{***}	0.031
	(-3.56)	(-3.78)	(-3.32)	(-3.30)	(1.13)
Other Blockholder	0.063	0.063	0.067^{*}	0.068^{*}	-0.249^{*}
	(1.51)	(1.61)	(1.70)	(1.76)	(-1.95)
Institutional Ownership	0.251^{**}	0.248^{**}	0.238^{**}	0.217^{**}	0.090
	(2.48)	(2.55)	(2.30)	(2.16)	(1.02)
Cross-list	-0.064^{*}	-0.050	-0.064^{*}	-0.065^{*}	-0.061
	(-1.76)	(-1.41)	(-1.72)	(-1.78)	(-1.51)
Country × Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry × Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FÉ	No	No	No	No	Yes
Obs	20,447	20,447	20,447	20,447	13,072
Adjusted R ²	0.451	0.455	0.450	0.458	0.849

This table reports regression estimates of environmental scores on governance mechanisms and control variables. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the ASSET4 Environmental z-Score, a standardized score, calculated by and obtained from ASSET4 that measures firms' environmental performance relative to other companies. Models 1 to 4 use the full sample and model 5 includes firm fixed effects and only uses firms where Majority Election or Female Director are time-varying during the sample period. Online appendix table OA-1 describes the indicator variables used to calculate the environmental scores. All variables are described in appendix. The sample period is 2004–2015. All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and *statistics are reported in parentheses.***, ***, ** denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

performance. In model 1, we assess the importance of providing outside investors with the power to renew the thinking of the board through majority voting. We find a positive and significant coefficient on Majority Election (p-value < 1%), implying that, when investors have this power, firms have 9.3% higher environmental performance. ¹³ In model 2, we assess

 $^{^{13}}$ The coefficient is 0.089, and thus the implied economic magnitude is 9.3% (calculated as $\ell^{0.089}-1=0.093$).

the importance of board renewal through female board representation. Again, we find a positive and significant coefficient on Female Director (p-value < 1%), indicating that having a female board member is associated with 15.3% higher environmental performance.

In model 3, we use the Aggarwal et al. [2008] traditional governance index. The coefficient on Traditional Governance is positive and significant (p-value < 5%) indicating that one additional traditional governance mechanism (e.g., separating the role of CEO and Chairperson) is associated with 3.0% higher environmental performance.

In model 4, we simultaneously include the two board renewal mechanisms and the traditional governance index. Including them all in one specification helps to assess whether each mechanism has a stand-alone relationship with firms' environmental performance. We find that all governance mechanisms are independently and significantly associated with firms' environmental performance. Of particular interest, however, the board renewal mechanisms of majority voting and female directors are estimated to provide incremental improvements in environmental performance beyond traditional governance mechanisms. When investors have greater control rights arising from majority voting, environmental scores are 8.3% higher. Firms with a female director have 14.7% higher environmental scores. Compared with traditional governance, the economic effects of board renewal mechanisms are between 3.4 (majority election) and 6.0 (female directors) times higher. ¹⁴

We note here that we also obtain significant coefficients on board renewal mechanisms when we consider "materiality" and industry-specific factors. First, the results are obtained when we use the materiality-weighted environmental score based on items deemed material for an industry as determined by the SASB. Second, we partition the sample into firms from "dirty" and "clean" industries, based on their ASSET4 aggregate industry environmental scores, and find significant coefficients on board renewal mechanisms in both partitions. This suggests board renewal can provide substantial improvements where environmental performance is weakest. Finally, we find that board renewal mechanisms are also significant if we use environmental performance scores obtained from SAM S&P Global and Sustainalytics/Morningstar or we use the summary scores from the three ASSET4 subcategories. We provide these results in online appendix tables OA-5 and OA-6. Thus, although there undoubtedly remain measurement

¹⁴ The coefficient estimates on Majority Election and Female Directors are statistically different from Traditional Governance with *p*-values of 0.038 and 0.000, respectively.

¹⁵ Because not all industries in our sample have a mapping into the Materiality Map and not all line items in SASB can be matched to ASSET4, the sample size for these tests is reduced to 12,837 observations. The sample sizes for S&P Global and Sustainalytics (now Morningstar) are also smaller as these data providers cover fewer firms over a shorter time horizon. We note that, in our sample period, there are relatively higher correlations across ASSET4 and

concerns for environmental performance, such concerns are unlikely to drive the results in this paper.

An omitted factor could potentially affect both board renewal and a firm's environmental performance. The panel regressions so far address this concern by controlling for time-varying observable characteristics, including country-by-year and industry-by-year fixed effects. To further enhance identification, in model 5, we estimate firm fixed effects specifications that control for time-invariant unobservable firm characteristics. For these tests, we keep only those observations where at least one of the board renewable variables are time-varying during the sample period. We note that such a within-firm specification is relatively demanding in terms of power as governance structures are generally sticky over time.

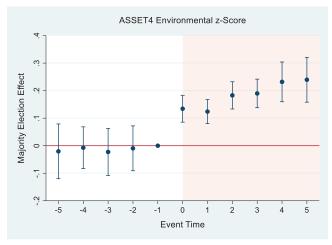
The results in model 5 confirm our prior conclusions—board renewal mechanisms continue to be associated with significant improvements in firms' environmental performance. Once we account for time-invariant unobservable firm characteristics, firms with majority elections have 3.3% higher environmental scores and firms with a female director have 3.6% higher scores. These estimates, albeit smaller than those in the previous specifications, are still economically significant and potentially have more external validity as they account for many unobserved omitted firm-type variables.

As for the control variables, we find that larger firms, more profitable firms, and firms with greater tangibility show stronger environmental performance. We also find that family-controlled firms have lower environmental performance and that firms with more institutional ownership have higher environmental performance.

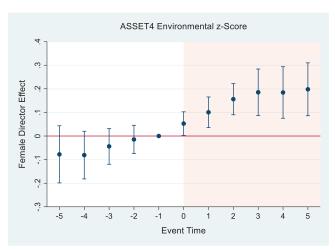
Next, we illustrate the year-by-year dynamics of the environmental performance of firms that experience changes in their board renewal mechanisms. For each firm, we introduce a set of time indicator variables for the five years before and the five years after the adoption of majority election rules and the appointment of female directors, respectively. These indicators capture the time distance from the board renewal events. We exclude the time indicator for the year before the event because of collinearity; hence, all time indicator estimates can be interpreted as changes relative to the year before the event.

We provide a graphic illustration of these coefficients in figure 1. The coefficients after adoption rise practically monotonically for five years, suggesting that, over time, there is a stronger relationship between board renewal and environmental performance. For example, three years after board renewal, firms have environmental performance levels that are about 20% greater relative to the year before board renewal. There is no indication of rising environmental performance prior to the adoption of majority

these alternative data providers' aggregate scores, ranging between 0.62 and 0.70, than those reported by Gibson, Krueger, and Schmidt [2019] and Berg, Koebel, and Rigobon [2022].



Panel (a): Majority Election



Panel (b): Female Director

Fig 1.—Event time indicator coefficients for majority election and female director. For each firm, we introduce a set of time indicator variables for the five years before and the five years after the adoption of majority election rules and the appointment of female directors, respectively. These indicators capture the time distance from the board renewal events. This figure plots the event time indicator coefficient estimates for Majority Election and Female Director with a 95% confidence interval around the point estimates using the ASSET4 Environmental z-Score. The event time indicator for the year before the board-renewal event is omitted in the regressions and is set to zero in this figure. Panel A: Majority Election; Panel B: Female Director.

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voting. There is a modest upward trend in mean environmental scores prior to the appointment of a female director. Each coefficient estimate before the adoption of majority voting or the appointment of female directors is not distinguishable from zero. After adoption, each of the coefficients are positive and increasing.

Overall, our baseline tests demonstrate a statistically significant, positive association between board renewal mechanisms and firms' future environmental performance. Moreover, this relationship obtains even when controlling for firms' traditional governance structures.

Finally, as noted in the introduction, our paper specifically focuses on environmental performance, rather than social performance. In online appendix table OA-7, we report results for the relationship between board renewal and firms' future social performance and find similarly significant coefficient estimates. ¹⁶

4.2 BOARD RENEWAL SHOCKS

To further assuage concerns about the endogeneity of board renewal, we test our predictions in settings where there are quasi-exogenous shocks to board renewal mechanisms. We seek a setting that satisfies two conditions. First, there are outside pressures forcing the adoption of majority voting rules or female board representation. Second, those outside pressures must not have had the explicit or implicit target of also changing firms' environmental performance.¹⁷ Settings that satisfy these two conditions allow for a cleaner test of the relationship between board renewal and environmental performance.

4.2.1. Female Board Quotas in France. Quotas that are mandated by legislation, and force some, but not all firms to add female directors provide an excellent opportunity for identification. The first such regulator-mandated female quota was introduced in Norway in 2003 (preceding our sample period). With a quota, firms are forced to add women to the board, independent of their beliefs regarding the importance of environmental performance. This allows us to examine whether the addition of one or more women to the board is related to subsequent improvements in environmental performance, by comparing the firms treated with the

¹⁶We note here that a substantial limitation in studying the relationship between board renewal and firms' *social* scores is that female board representation is mechanically related to several line items comprising firms' social scores. As such, any observed correlations need to be interpreted carefully.

¹⁷We could not find compelling exogenous shocks for the traditional governance mechanisms during our sample period. This is not unexpected, given that broad governance reforms across countries occurred in the late 1990s and early 2000s, and as such predate our sample period. See, for example, Fauver et al. [2017], who provide data on board reforms across 41 countries.

quota to those that were not (i.e., because they already had female board members).¹⁸

The best country in our data set to explore the impact of quotas is France. In 2011, the French government passed a legislation establishing female board quotas: a 20% minimum for both sexes by January 1, 2014, and a 40% minimum by January 1, 2016. This was a hard quota, in that firms faced significant penalties if they failed to comply. The quota was imposed in the middle of our sample period, allowing us to analyze multiple years of environmental performance data both before and after this "shock." We confirm that the regulatory change in France focused very specifically on gender—as confirmed by press coverage—and not on broader political objectives, which might otherwise mechanically link gender policies to environmental outcomes. ¹⁹

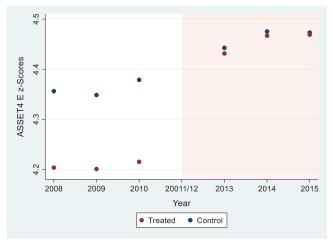
We illustrate the dynamics between the imposition of the board quota in France and improvements in environmental performance using a case study of the French oil and gas exploration and production firm Maurel et Prom SA. In 2009, the company had an entirely male board. By 2013, two out of eight board members were female, satisfying the 20% female representation rule. Coincident with the forced board renewal was significantly improved environmental performance. Maurel et Prom's ASSET4 Environmental z-Score effectively doubled over this period, including substantial reductions in its total equivalent emissions of CO₂, nitrogen oxides, sulfur oxides, volatile organic compounds, and particulate matter.

We provide more comprehensive analysis of the impact of the female board quota in France in table 3. Here, we use all French firms and conduct a difference-in-difference analysis to test whether "treated" firms like Maurel et Prom, that had no female directors from 2008 to 2010 and thus needed to move quickly to elect women to the board to meet the minimum requirement, improved their environmental performance more than "control" firms that already had at least one female director. This test allows us to control for changes that affect all firms in France, as well as changes in a set of observable firm characteristics. There are a sizable number of firms from France in our data set, allowing us to construct a treated group and a control group of sufficient size for empirical analysis in a single-country study.

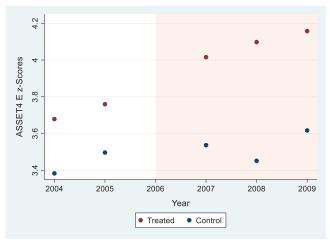
In panel A of figure 2, we plot the ASSET4 Environmental z-Scores in the three years prior to the quota and in the three years after. We define 2011 and 2012 as the treatment years because the mandate was not binding for three years and it plausibly takes time to appoint new directors. We require that treated and control firms appear in at least six out of eight years. The

¹⁸ Our paper focuses solely on environmental performance. We note here that forced board turnover can potentially have undesirable outcomes such as lower status for audit committees relative to management (e.g., Badolato, Donelson, and Ege [2014]).

¹⁹ Ginglinger and Raskopf [2021] arrive at similar conclusions in their study of French female board quotas.



Panel (a): Quotas for Female Board Representation in France



Panel (b): Majority Director Election in Canada

FIG 2.—Shocks and environmental performance: Single-country plots. This figure shows the ASSET4 Environmental z-Score for years surrounding quotas for female board representation in France and a quasi-exogenous shock to majority director election rules in Canada. The figures plot the natural log of average environmental scores for the treated and control firms for the three years before and three years after the shocks (panel B shows one preyear less as our sample starts in 2004). In panel A, treated firms had no female board members in 2008 to 2010 and at least one female board member in 2013. Control firms already had a female board member (treatment years are 2011 and 2012). In panel B, treated firms adopted majority voting by 2007. Control firms did not change majority voting policies during the 2004 to 2009 period (treatment year is 2006).

Panel A: Quotas for female board representation in France; Panel B: Majority director election in Canada.

 ${\bf TABLE~3}$ Governance Mechanisms and Firms' Environmental Performance: Evidence from Outside Shocks

D 1 /	A . C	· 1 -	4		4
Panel A	1: 5	ıngıe-	country	exper	ments
		0			

	ASSET4 Envir	conmental z-Score
	Female Board Quota Introduction in France (1)	Majority Director Elections in Canada (2)
		<u> </u>
$Post \times Treated$	0.130^{*}	0.235^{**}
	(1.72)	(2.55)
Post	0.075***	-0.045
	(2.96)	(-0.55)
Log (Total Assets)	0.076	0.152^{*}
_	(0.68)	(1.99)
Cash	-0.517^{**}	0.255
	(-2.17)	(0.52)
Tangibility	1.469**	0.901
,	(2.70)	(1.61)
Leverage	-0.358	-0.394^{*}
o .	(-1.08)	(-2.00)
Profitability	-0.810	-0.058
,	(-1.60)	(-0.24)
Institutional Ownership	0.230	0.322
1	(1.30)	(1.43)
Firm FE	Yes	Yes
Obs	533	275
Adjusted R^2	0.776	0.810

Panel B: Female board quotas for broad country samples

	, 1	
	ASSET4 Enviro	nmental z-Score
	Countries with Mandatory Female Board Quotas Through Legislation	Countries with Mandatory Female Board Quotas Through Legislation or Outside Pressure to Increase Female Board Representation
	(1)	(2)
Post × Treated	0.078**	0.078^{***}
	(2.41)	(2.97)
Log (Total Assets)	0.077^{**}	0.070^{***}
_	(2.64)	(3.54)
Cash	-0.179	-0.125
	(-1.40)	(-1.09)
Tangibility	0.000	0.043
,	(0.00)	(0.50)
Leverage	-0.018	-0.055
<u>o</u>	(-0.16)	(-0.72)
Profitability	-0.087	-0.139
,	(-0.77)	(-1.38)

(Continued)

TABLE 3—(Continued)

Panel B: Female board quotas for broad country samples

	ASSET4 Enviro	nmental z-Score
	Countries with Mandatory	Countries with Mandatory
	Female Board Quotas Through	Female Board Quotas Through
	Legislation	Legislation or Outside Pressure
		to Increase Female Board
		Representation
	(1)	(2)
Institutional Ownership	-0.145	-0.081
	(-1.12)	(-0.64)
Firm FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
Obs	2,576	4,443
Adjusted R^2	0.902	0.888

This table reports regression estimates of environmental scores for years surrounding quotas for female board representation and a quasi-exogenous shock to majority director election rules. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the ASSET4 Environmental z-Score. Panel A shows results for single-country experiences. Model 1 focuses on female board quotas in France. Treated firms had no female board members in 2008 to 2010 and at least one female board member in 2013. Control firms already had a female board member. The sample period covers the three years before and three years after the treatment years of 2011/12. Model 2 focuses on the quasi-exogenous shocks to majority director elections in Canada. Treated firms adopted majority voting by 2007. Control firms did not change majority voting policies during the 2004 to 2009 period. The sample period covers the two years before and three years after the treatment year of 2006 (one preyear less as our sample starts in 2004). Panel B shows results for countries with female board quotas or for which there was significant outside pressure for greater female board representation. Model 1 includes all countries with legislated quotas for female board representation. Model 2 supplements countries with mandated quotas with Germany and the United Kingdom, which faced substantial outside pressure for more female board representation in 2011. Treated firms had no female board members in the three years leading up to the quota and had a female board member after the quota was adopted. Control firms already had a female board member. Further details for these quotas and outside pressure are in online appendix table OA-9. All specifications include three years before and three years after the event years. Firms that change family control, other-blockholder control, or cross-listing status are excluded. All variables are described in the appendix. All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the 2-digit SIC level and t-statistics are reported in parentheses.****, ** denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

figure provides no indication of differences in pretrends for environmental performance across these two groups, and the treated firms have worse environmental performance ex ante. Treated firms consequently have a larger increase in environmental performance than control firms post-treatment.

In panel A of table 3, we use difference-in-differences specifications to test whether treated firms experience a significantly larger increase in environmental performance compared to control firms. These tests mitigate the impact of other potentially confounding factors by limiting attention to a window centered around the quota event, by controlling for time-invariant firm characteristics with firm fixed effects, by controlling for time-varying firm characteristics using the same variables employed in our prior regressions, and by controlling for overall differences in environmental scores in the pre- and postquota periods using a post-quota time dummy. We exclude firms in which there was a change in family control, other-

blockholder control, or cross-listing status to make sure the results are not driven by other major firm changes. Standard errors are clustered at the two-digit SIC level.

The positive and significant coefficients on the $Post \times Treated$ interaction in model 1 shows that treatment is related to increases in environmental performance. The coefficient indicates that firms without any women on the board increase their environmental performance by 14% more than firms that already had women on the board. These results from the mandated quota in France support our argument that board renewal through the appointment of female directors leads to subsequent increases in firms' environmental performance. 20

4.2.2. Canadian Coalition for Good Governance (CCGG). We find no similar legislated mandates for the adoption of majority voting provisions. Fortunately, Canada provides a good example of investor activism that we can use as a quasi-exogenous shock that leads to majority voting adoption. As detailed in Doidge et al. [2019], the majority voting shock was the creation of the CCGG, an investor group whose first major campaign was a demand for firms to adopt majority voting as very few Canadian firms had this at year-end 2004. In 2005 and 2006, the CCGG contacted, through letters and phone calls, all publicly traded firms that had not already adopted majority voting, requesting that they do so. Over the next two years, Doidge et al. [2019] report substantial increases in firm adoption and provide results that support a causal interpretation that majority voting adoption was driven by the CCGG. Doidge et al. [2019] document that the CCGG investor group at this time made no requests for firms to increase their environmental performance.²¹

As a case example of the dynamics between changes in majority voting and improvements in environmental performance in Canadian firms, we use Shoppers Drug Mart, a full-service retail drug service chain. This was one of the Canadian firms targeted by CCGG. In March 2006, Shoppers Drug Mart announced that, to enhance director accountability, they would provide shareholders with the right to vote for individual directors rather than for a slate. Effective February 2007, they announced that to further enhance director accountability, they were adopting a majority voting policy that called for directors to submit their resignation to the Governance

²⁰ We note that the magnitude of change implied by this French quota test may not be readily generalizable: Treated firms had lower initial environmental performance than control firms and thus had a greater scope to improve their environmental performance. We also note that we use a Post dummy rather than year fixed effects because it gives us more power with the smaller number of observations in panel A compared with panel B. Results are qualitatively similar if we use year fixed effects, albeit with less statistical significance on the Post × Treated interaction.

²¹ The first public indication the investor group took in environmental engagement was a process that began more than a decade later in 2016, to develop E&S guidelines, published in 2018, outside of our sample period, https://www.ccgg.ca/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/The-Directors-ES-Guidebook-2018.pdf.

Committee if a majority of votes are "withheld." In the presence of these board renewal policies, the company improved both traditional governance (e.g., appointing an independent chair in March 2007), and environmental performance. In the 2007 Annual Report, published in March of 2008, for the first time, they moved beyond their typical boilerplate statements of "compliance with applicable environmental laws and regulations" to include a specific section on corporate social responsibility. This section reports new environmental initiatives including benchmarking studies and specific actions to address waste reduction and diversion, energy efficiency, and environmentally friendly products. Their ASSET4 Environmental z-Score more than tripled over this period.

To explore whether this positive dynamic between majority voting and subsequent environmental improvements is widespread in Canadian firms, panel B of figure 2 plots the environmental performance of treated firms and control firms. We define treated firms as those that adopted majority voting either in 2006 or 2007, and control firms as those that had already adopted majority voting or did not adopt majority voting in the 2004 to 2009 period. Treated firms that adopted majority voting start with higher initial environmental performance, but trends appear parallel across treated and control firms prior to adoption. Post adoption we see a substantial increase in environmental performance for treated firms and, more importantly, we see that the gap between treated and control firm grows.²²

In addition, we note that in the France example (figure 2, panel A), the treated firms had worse environmental performance prior to the shock, and the shock narrowed the gap between the treated and control firms. On the contrary, in the Canada example (figure 2, panel B), the treated firms had better environmental performance prior to the shock, and the shock further widened the gap between the treated and control firms. The two distinct patterns bolster the inference that it is the board renewal mechanisms, and not the prior conditions, that improved firms' environmental performance.

We test whether the shock that increased majority voting adoption is related to subsequent increases in environmental performance in model 2 of table 3, where we use a difference-in-difference specification spanning the 2004 to 2009 period, that is, two years before and three years after the initiative to push firms to adopt majority voting policies.²³ We require

²² Figure 2 features quasi-exogenous shocks to firms in Canada and France. Because the quasi-exogenous shocks happened for all firms at the same time in each country, we can identify treated and control firms, and thus present graphs of trends for both sets of firms. In contrast, figure 1 uses the full sample of firms and countries where firms adopt in different years, and it also does not feature exogenous treatment. This figure shows control-firm adjusted dynamic effects, where the control firms are the firms that have not adopted majority elections/female directors.

²³ Our sample starts in 2004 requiring an unbalanced panel if we want to include three years post adoption.

that treated and control firms have at least one observation before and after the adoption years. As before, we exclude firms in which there was a change in family control, other-blockholder control, or cross-listing status, we include firm fixed effects in all specifications as well as the control variables employed in our prior regressions and a postadoption time dummy. Again, we find a positive and significant coefficient on the $Post \times Treated$ interaction. The coefficients indicate that firms that adopt majority voting increase their environmental performance by 26%. Again, these results support our interpretation that board renewal via majority voting leads to increases in firms' environmental performance.

4.2.3. Female Board Quotas/Pressure. To increase confidence that these results are generalizable, we search for similar shocks or pressures across all countries in our sample. In nine countries, we find examples of external activism pushing for female board representation (online appendix table OA-9).²⁵ These include some legislated mandates very similar to hard quotas, quotas that are softer as they are less binding, as well as pressure coming from investor groups. For example, in the United Kingdom in 2011, Lord Davies published his Women on Boards review that made 10 recommendations regarding disclosure and policies on diversity, including a recommendation that FTSE 100 firms should have 25% female board representation no later than the year 2015. The effort was supported by investor groups such as the Association of British Insurers, which disclosed that it would now start monitoring female board representation.

We use these female board representation "shocks" from multiple countries to conduct similar difference-in-differences analyses in panel B of table 3. Model 1 focuses exclusively on the seven countries that legislated a quota for female board representation. Model 2 additionally includes Germany and the United Kingdom where there was substantial pressure from large investor groups. Our empirical approach is the same as in the France single-country example. Treated firms are those without female board representation prior to the mandate. We include firm fixed effects, the control variables employed in our prior regressions, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered by industry (two-digit SIC code).

We find that board renewal via adding a female director is related to improved environmental performance across all countries with an identifiable shock. In both specifications, we find a positive and significant coefficient on the $Post \times Treated$ interaction. In terms of economic significance,

²⁴ These economic magnitudes may not be generalizable: In 2005, Canadian firms had environmental scores (controlling for industry and size) ranked in the lowest quintile across all countries and thus both treated and control firms had abnormal scope to improve their environmental performance; additionally, there was outside pressure but no mandate to adopt majority voting, leaving open the possibility that treated firms were already more likely to respond to pressure for improved governance.

 $^{^{25}}$ In our sample period, we do not find any countries that had majority voting shocks other than Canada.

the ASSET4 Environmental z-scores for the female director tests using the nine-country sample imply 8% greater environmental performance following the addition of the first female director, comparing the average environmental performance in the three years before the board renewal year to the environmental performance in the three years after.

4.3 director characteristics

In this section, we explore the extent to which director characteristics account for the observed effects of board renewal mechanisms on firms' environmental performance. First, we consider our result that majority voting rules are related to environmental performance. With majority voting rules in place, directors will focus more on investors' demands for investment to improve environmental performance rather than on insiders' reluctance to invest because of short-termism. But although majority voting rules will make current directors care more about investors' preferences, they could also lead to the introduction of directors with characteristics that correlate positively with a commitment to environmental performance (e.g., age, experience, and education). We wish to identify which effect is at play.

Second, we consider the positive relation between female board representation and firms' environmental performance. This result could be driven by gender itself, and/or it could be obtained because the introduction of new (female) directors with characteristics that, again, correlate positively with a commitment to environmental performance. Ahern and Dittmar [2012], for example, document that new female directors have significantly less CEO experience, are younger, and are more highly educated.

In table 4, we estimate regression models that include director characteristics for each firm. If firms that adopt majority voting or appoint a female director exhibit systematically different board characteristics, which in turn are related to environmental performance, those characteristics should subsume the direct effect of the change in governance. For these tests, we obtain director characteristics for each director in our sample from BoardEx. The requirement to have board characteristic data from BoardEx lowers the sample size from 20,447 to 15,881 observations. Following Ahern and Dittmar [2012], we explore six director characteristics: whether the director has CEO experience, if the director has a higher education degree other than an MBA, if the director has an MBA degree, director age, tenure as a board member, and whether the director shares a last name with someone else on the board (a rough measure of whether a firm has family members on the board). We then average the director characteristics at the firm-year level.

Model 1 explores the effect of director characteristics alone. Greater director CEO experience and attainment of higher education other than an MBA are associated with significantly stronger environmental performance. None of the other director characteristics matter for environmental performance. We report baseline estimates for board renewal in this

TABLE 4

Director Characteristics, Board Renewal, and Environmental Performance

			ASSET4	Environi	mental z-	Score	
Female Characteristics Grouping Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	CEO Experience (6)	Higher Education (7)
Majority Election		0.073** (2.69)	0.039* (1.95)	0.072* (2.56)	* 0.039*	0.073** (2.64)	0.074*** (2.71)
Female Director		0.141*** (5.08)			**0.045***	, ,	(2.71)
CEO Experience	0.211* (3.15)		(0.11)	. ,	**0.035	0.214*** (3.39)	0.206*** (3.48)
Higher Education	0.117* (1.70)	:		. ,	0.007	0.092	0.125
MBA	-0.014 (-0.11)			-0.056 (-0.46)	0.040	-0.058 (-0.47)	-0.051 (-0.42)
Age	0.004			0.005	0.006**	0.005	0.005
Tenure	-0.002 (-0.44)			. ,	0.002	-0.000 (-0.00)	-0.000 (-0.02)
Same Name	-0.065 (-0.53)			-0.062 (-0.50)	0.010	-0.067 (-0.53)	-0.064 (-0.51)
Female Characteristics Below Median Group	,			, ,	,	0.136***	0.141***
Above Median Group						(5.51) 0.072***	(5.20) 0.044**
Traditional Governance		0.032** (2.70)	0.013* (1.71)	0.024* (2.18)	* 0.012 (1.52)	(3.82) 0.023** (2.16)	(2.29) 0.023** (2.13)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry × Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FÉ	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
Obs	15,881	15,881	10,819	15,881	10,819	15,881	15,881
Adjusted R^2	0.454	0.499	0.889	0.465	0.856	0.465	0.465

This table reports regression estimates of environmental scores on board characteristics, governance mechanisms, and control variables. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the ASSET4 Environmental z-Score. The board characteristics (CEO Experience, Higher Education, MBA, Age, Tenure, and Same Name) are the means across all board members in a given firm-year. The below (above) median female characteristics are indicator variables equal to one if there is a female board member in a given year whose characteristics are equal to or less (greater) than the average of all board members in that year, and zero otherwise. All variables are described in the appendix. Control variables are included but not reported. The sample period is 2004–2015. All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and **estatistics are reported in parentheses.****, ****, ***, *** denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

smaller subsample in models 2 and 3, without and with firm fixed effects (corresponding to models 4 and 5 of table 2, respectively).

Our key findings are provided in models 4 and 5 that additionally include director characteristics alongside the board renewal variables. We find that director characteristics do not in any way subsume the stand-alone board renewal effects of Majority Voting and Female Director, and this is true

both without and with firm fixed effects. The coefficients on board renewal in models 4 and 5 are positive and significant, and virtually identical to those in models 2 and 3 that are estimated without director characteristics.

These results suggest that majority voting is related to environmental performance specifically through changing the incentives for directors to consider investors' preferences, rather than through changing the characteristics of those directors. Further, the results suggest that female directors affect environmental performance for reasons related specifically to their gender, rather than based on other characteristics in which female directors differ from male directors. Additionally, because our tests show that many observable director characteristics do not affect our baseline results, this mitigates a concern that our results are driven by selection on unobservables correlated with the observable variables.

We further explore the role of gender for environmental performance in models 6 and 7. Because more CEO experience and higher education other than an MBA are associated with higher environmental performance, we focus specifically on those female directors that have *low* levels of CEO experience and *low* levels of higher education. We use below-median (above-median) indicator variables that are equal to one if a female director's CEO experience or higher education levels are lower (higher) than the median of all other board members in a given year, and zero otherwise. If CEO experience and higher education drive the results, gender should not have a stand-alone significance for female directors with relatively low levels of either of these. In all models, however, we find a positive and strongly significant coefficient on the *below-median* CEO experience indicator and the *below-median* higher education indicator. This suggests that a female director, independent of her other characteristics, influences a firm's environmental performance.

Based on extant research, this female effect could arise from any of three broad reasons: female directors have strong innate preference for other-regarding behavior such as making environmental investments that have positive social externalities (Adams and Funk [2012], Cronqvist and Yu [2017]); female directors as new board members shake up groupthink as discussed in Janis [1972]; or, female directors bring new corporate governance skills as suggested in the U.S. evidence from Kim and Starks [2016]. Unfortunately, existing international board data do not yet allow us to differentiate between these explanations.²⁶

²⁶ For example, outside the United States, firms are rarely required to disclose detailed director-specific skill sets similar to those required under Regulation S-K rules since 2009 (see, e.g., Adams, Akyol, and Verwijmeren [2018]).

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5. Are Board Renewal Mechanisms More Meaningful in Certain Settings?

5.1 Country-level institutions

When examining traditional governance mechanisms, extant research shows that the effectiveness of traditional governance mechanisms does depend on country-level disclosure and investor protection rules. Hail and Leuz [2006], for instance, find that firms' cost of capital is lower in countries with more extensive disclosure requirements, stronger securities regulation, and stricter enforcement mechanisms. Doidge, Karolyi, and Stulz [2007] find that traditional governance metrics improve firm valuations only in countries with strong institutions. Similarly, Lel and Miller [2019] find that directors face consequences for shareholder-unfriendly actions only when country-level investor protection is strong.

Our paper's focus is on mechanisms of board renewal. To our knowledge, no prior work has investigated whether board renewal has larger or smaller effects on corporate outcomes depending on other country-level parameters. It is plausible that, similar to the effect of traditional governance, board renewal will only be meaningful in countries with strong institutions. On the other hand, giving investors effective powers to renew the board and replace directors may result in appointments of directors that embrace investors' views, and thus could be associated with better environmental performance regardless of the strength of country institutions.

To test the role of country-level institutions, we follow the literature and use cross-country differences in securities regulation, self-dealing regulation, legal origin, and ESG disclosure rules. The securities regulation measure is taken from Hail and Leuz [2006] and incorporates both disclosure rules and supporting enforcement institutions. The self-dealing regulation measure captures the ability of investors to curb insiders' tunneling of resources out of the firm, and is obtained from Djankov et al. [2008]. The legal origin measure uses the La Porta et al. [1998] result that common law provides investors with higher quality information and stronger legal powers to protect their interests. The ESG disclosure measure captures the extent to which governmental and nongovernmental bodies mandate environmental, social, and governance disclosure, and is obtained from Amiraslani et al. [2020]. For each of these four measures, we partition the full sample into two subsamples using the median value of the measure. In table 5, panels A and B present the results, first without and then with firm fixed effects.

We generally find larger coefficients for the two board renewal measures in the high institution subsamples compared to the low institution subsamples. In panel A, we find this to be the case in seven of eight comparisons, and in all eight comparisons in panel B. Further, the relation between the two board renewal measures and environmental performance is almost always significant in the high institution subsamples, with or without firm

TABLE 5Country-Level Institutions and the Relation Between Governance and Firms' Environmental Performance

				ASSET4 Enviro	ASSET4 Environmental z-Score			
	Securities	Securities Regulation	ASDI Index	Index	Legal T	Legal Tradition	ADIK D	ADIK Disclosure
Grouped by	Low (1)	High (2)	Low (3)	High (4)	Civil (5)	Common (6)	Low (7)	High (8)
Majority Election	0.063*	0.099*	0.084***	0.076*	0.084***	0.087*	0.062**	0.088**
Female Director	0.092**	0.152^{***}	0.064	0.174***	0.055	0.186***	0.100^{***}	0.160***
	(2.26)	(3.51)	(1.75)	(4.56)	(1.56)	(4.95)	(2.80)	(4.41)
Traditional Governance	0.004	0.043**	0.008	0.034**	0.001	0.043***	0.028°	0.014
	(0.24)	(2.81)	(0.52)	(2.84)	(0.05)	(3.13)	(1.91)	(0.87)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Obs	9,238	9,826	9,544	10,753	10,002	10,293	8,359	11,932
Adjusted R^2	0.410	0.448	0.392	0.459	0.430	0.462	0.411	0.506

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TABLE 5—(Continued)

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				ASSET4 Environ	ASSET4 Environmental z-Score			
	Securities Regulation	Regulation	ASDI Index	Index	Legal T	Legal Tradition	ADIK D	ADIK Disclosure
Grouped by	Low (1)	High (2)	Low (3)	High (4)	Civil (5)	Common (6)	Low (7)	High (8)
Majority Election	-0.000	0.054°	0.018	0.044	0.008	0.048	0.005	0.049*
	(-0.00)	(1.96)	(1.48)	(1.55)	(0.64)	(1.73)	(0.29)	(1.98)
Female Director	0.015	0.045°	0.020	0.047**	0.018	0.043°	0.001	0.050***
	(0.93)	(2.07)	(1.36)	(2.47)	(1.34)	(2.01)	(0.03)	(3.84)
Traditional Governance	0.004	0.011	0.009	900.0	0.005	0.009	0.002	0.014
	(0.49)	(0.93)	(0.99)	(0.48)	(0.59)	(0.76)	(0.18)	(1.42)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Obs	5,116	7,182	5,360	7,572	5,447	7,492	5,085	7,855
Adjusted R^2	0.901	0.863	0.900	0.867	0.908	0.864	0.894	0.883

This table reports regression estimates of environmental scores on governance mechanisms and control variables for firms grouped by their countries' investor protection laws In models 1 and 2, we split the sample based on below- or above-median cutoffs on a country's strength of securities regulation as in Hail and Leuz [2006]; it is the average of the disclosure index, liability standard index, and a public enforcement index. In models 3 and 4, we employ below- or above-median cutoffs on a country's anti-self-dealing index has a code-based (civil law) or common law legal tradition (La Porta et al. [1998]). In models 7 and 8, we split the sample based on below- or above-median cutoffs on a country's and regulations. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the ASET4 Environmental z-Score. We sort firms into low and high country-level investor protection groups. (ASDI) that measures the average of ex ante and ex post private control of self-dealing (Djankov et al. [2008]). In models 5 and 6, we split the sample based on whether a country All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and 4statistics are ESG disclosure rules as in Amiraslani et al. [2020]. All variables are described in the appendix. Control variables are included but not reported. The sample period is 2004–2015. reported in parentheses. ***, **, * denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. 1475679; 0. Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/147-579X.12462 by University Of Toronto Libraries, Wiley Online Library on [2001/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons Licenses

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fixed effects (for 14 of 16 coefficients). In the low institution subsamples, board renewal is generally significant in panel A (for seven of eight coefficients), but board renewal coefficients are never significant with firm fixed effects in panel B^{27}

Taken together, these cross-country comparisons provide modest evidence that the positive relationship between board renewal and environmental performance is enhanced in settings with strong institutions.

5.2 motivated investors

As discussed earlier, survey evidence (and the assumption in our theoretical section) indicates a mismatch between investors' preferences and firms' choices regarding environmental performance. In this section, we test whether the positive relationship between board renewal and environmental performance is stronger when investors are more motivated to increase what they view as suboptimal environmental performance.

For these tests, we first build on the Dyck et al. [2019] finding that institutional investors have a greater impact on environmental performance if they have larger ownership stakes and come from countries with high social norms toward the environment. We measure a firm's motivated investors by summing up the product of each institutional investor's ownership percentage and the World Values Survey environmental norm score of the investor's headquarter-country. We define a firm as having environmentally motivated investors if its environmental-norm-weighted institutional ownership places it in the top quartile of all firm-years in our sample.

A second source of variation in motivated investors stems from the fact that several countries adopted a stewardship code during our sample period. In the presence of a stewardship code, all institutional investors from that country commit to exercise governance. Solven institutional investors latent demand for more environmental investment, when a stewardship code is introduced, investors should be more motivated to use governance to change firms suboptimal policies, one of which is underinvestment in environmental performance. We measure a firm's stewardship-motivated investors by summing up the product of each institutional investor's ownership percentage and a dummy variable equal to one if the investor's headquarter-country has adopted a stewardship code by that year. We obtain stewardship codes from national regulators and code a country as having adopted a stewardship code from the year of its publication onwards

 $^{^{27}}$ Table OA-12 provides *p*-values for tests of the differences in coefficients between institutional quality subsamples, and we note that these differences are frequently not significant.

²⁸ For example, in the U.K. stewardship code adopted in 2010, asset owners commit to "monitor and hold to account managers" and "engage with issuers" to help improve long-term returns to shareholders and the efficient exercise of governance responsibilities (see also Ilhan et al. [2021]).

(e.g., Katelouzou and Siems [2020], Ilhan et al. [2021]).²⁹ We define a firm as having stewardship-motivated institutional investors if its stewardship-code–weighted institutional ownership is in the top quartile of all firm-years in our sample.

In table 6, we test whether the relation between board renewal mechanisms and environmental performance is greater in the subsample of firms that have environmentally motivated (models 1 through 4) or stewardshipmotivated investors (models 5 through 8). These tests repeat the baseline estimation from models 4 and 5 of table 2.

Models 1 through 4 show a marginally larger coefficient on board renewal when there are more environmentally motivated investors. The coefficient on *Majority Election* is 0.120 in this subsample (model 1), whereas the coefficient is only 0.068 in the subsample without environmentally motivated investors (model 2). Similarly, the coefficient on *Female Director* is 0.224 in model 1, and only 0.111 in model 2. With firm fixed effects, we find a coefficient of 0.072 for *Majority Election* and 0.033 for *Female Director* in the environmentally motivated investor subsample (model 3), whereas each of these coefficients is insignificant in the subsample of firms that do not have an environmentally motivated investor base (model 4).

In models 5 through 8, we measure motivated investors using steward-ship codes, and find generally similar patterns. For example, in the firm fixed effect specifications in models 7 and 8, we find positive and significant coefficients of 0.035 for *Majority Election* and 0.037 for *Female Director* in the stewardship-motivated investor subsample, whereas these board renewal coefficients are insignificant in firms without stewardship-motivated investors.³⁰

In summary, table 6 provides suggestive evidence that board renewal mechanisms are more strongly associated with better environmental performance when investors are more motivated to use them.

6. Board Renewal and Actions that Target Improved Environmental Performance

In this final section of the paper, we analyze whether the path from board renewal to improved environmental performance is associated with one or more actions through which boards directly target firms' environmental

²⁹ As in other studies, we use this hard rather than soft coding of stewardship, thus ignoring nuances that codes can have built-in transition periods, that codes are not necessarily binding for (all) institutional investors, and that codes may be initiated not only by regulators, but also by other parties (for a discussion, see, e.g., Hill [2018]).

³⁰ Table OA-14 provides *p*-values for tests of the differences in coefficients between motivated investor subsamples, and we note that again these differences are frequently not significant.

TABLE 6
Motivated Institutional Investors

				ASSET4 Environmental z-Score	mental z-Score			
		World Values Survey Scores	urvey Scores			Stewardship Codes	ip Codes	
Motivated Investors Splits by	Top Quartile (1)	Bottom 3 Quartiles (2)	Top Quartile (3)	Bottom 3 Quartiles (4)	Top Quartile (5)	Bottom 3 Quartiles (6)	Top Quartile (7)	Bottom 3 Quartiles (8)
Majority Election	0.120***	0.068***	0.072**	0.014	0.074**	0.078***	0.035°	0.030
Female Director	(3.01) $0.224***$	(3.42) 0.111 ***	(2.44) $0.033***$	(0.94) 0.018	(2.52) 0.178 ***	(2.98) 0.124 ***	$(1.71) \ 0.037^*$	$(1.17) \\ 0.023$
	(4.45)	(3.75)	(3.18)	(1.16)	(7.20)	(3.68)	(1.69)	(1.23)
Traditional Governance	0.005	0.026**	0.012	0.004	0.009	0.029**	-0.003	0.003
	(0.27)	(2.21)	(1.33)	(0.51)	(0.75)	(2.28)	(-0.31)	(0.37)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Obs	4,881	15,071	3,503	600,6	4,996	15,099	3,098	9,446
Adjusted R^2	0.482	0.461	0.905	968.0	0.477	0.454	0.939	0.890

World Values Survey score; and b) the sum of the product of each institution's ownership percentage with an indicator variable that is equal to one if the institution's headquarternorms towards environmental and social issues. Stewardship codes are based on national regulators' code publications. We split the sample into high and low motivated investor Environmental 2-Score. Odd numbered models include firms that are in the top quartile of the measures within our sample. Even numbered models include firms that are in the bottom three quartiles. All variables are described in the appendix. Control variables are included but not reported. The sample period is 2004–2015. All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and Astatistics are reported in parentheses. *** , **, This table reports regression estimates of environmental scores on governance mechanisms and control variables for firms grouped by the presence of motivated institutional country has adopted a Stewardship code, and zero otherwise. The World Values Survey social norm scores are obtained from Dyck et al. [2019] and measure countries social groups by whether the measure of motivated investors is in the top quartile and bottom three quartiles, respectively. The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the ASET4 investors. We measure a firm's motivated institutional investors as: a) the sum of the product of each institution's ownership percentage with the institution's headquarter-country denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. 1475679; 0. Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/147-579X.12462 by University Of Toronto Libraries, Wiley Online Library on [2001/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons Licenses

performance. We examine four specific actions: having a sustainability committee, producing annual sustainability reports, tying executive pay to sustainability targets, and disclosing how the firm engages with its stakeholders regarding sustainability. We focus on these actions because the board controls them, some of these actions are connected to stronger environmental performance (e.g., Christensen, Hail, and Leuz [2021]), and we can construct indicator variables for each of these actions from ASSET4. If these sustainability-oriented actions accrue once board renewal happens, this can shed light on one or more plausible channels through which firms improve their environmental performance.

For these tests, we estimate linear probability models, with indicators for each of these four actions as dependent variables, and lagged board renewal variables as the independent variables of interest.³² The right-hand side variables for these tests mirror model 4 of table 2. Models 1 through 4 of table 7, panel B, include industry-by-year and country-by-year fixed effects to capture variation over time in sustainability-oriented actions, whereas models 5 through 8 include firm fixed effects in addition.

Table 7, panel A, reports summary statistics for the four sustainability-oriented actions. On average, 53% of firm-year observations have a sustainability committee, 58% produce a sustainability report, 21% tie their executives' pay to sustainability targets, and 36% disclose on their engagements with outside stakeholders.

Panel B reports the regression results. Models 1 through 4 show that there are positive and statistically significant coefficients on our board renewal measures (except the coefficient on Majority Election for Stakeholder Engagement). Models 5 through 8 use firm fixed effects. In these models, the board renewal coefficient estimates pick up the average change in sustainability-oriented action variables within firm from before to after board renewal. Thus, they test whether there is sequencing, with board renewal followed by adoption of sustainability-oriented actions.

We find that at least one of the board renewal mechanisms has a positive and significant relationship to each of the four sustainability-oriented actions, consistent with sequencing. In terms of economic magnitudes, specifications without firm fixed effects indicate that relative to the baseline means, firms with majority elections are 4% to 11% more likely to have taken one of these sustainability-oriented actions, and firms with a female director are 12% to 20% more likely to have taken one of these

³¹ We note that these data items are not part of ASSET4's environmental performance metrics; rather, they are identified in ASSET4 as ESG-specific governance items.

³² Results are similar using a logistic or probit regression. To provide economic interpretations consistent with prior tables, we report results from a linear probability model.

 ${\bf TABLE} \ 7$ Board Renewal and Actions that Target Improved Environmental Performance

Panel A: Summary statistics	S							
Variable			Mean		Median		SD	Obs
Sustainability Committee			0.534		1.000		0.499	20,253
Sustainability Nepolit Everytive Pay is Tied to Sustainability Targets	aretainability Tara	ete	0.979		0.000		0.404	20,233
Stakeholder Engagement	sommanniy raig	3	0.358		0.000		0.479	20,253
Panel B: Regression Results	£S.							
	Sustainability Committee	Sustainability Report	Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability Targets	Stakeholder Engagements	Sustainability Committee	Sustainability Report	Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability	Stakeholder Engagements
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(9)	(7)	(8)
Majority Election	0.057***	0.038***	0.017**	0.014	0.014	0.019*	0.022**	-0.003
	(4.67)	(4.58)	(2.41)	(1.15)	(1.58)	(1.96)	(2.08)	(-0.26)
Female Director	0.072^{***}	0.072***	0.041***	0.056***	0.031^{**}	0.019	0.031^{**}	0.027^{**}
	(4.59)	(4.02)	(4.13)	(3.93)	(2.46)	(1.68)	(2.46)	(2.45)
Traditional Governance	0.019^{***}	0.011^*	0.018***	0.016°	-0.002	0.012	0.004	0.014^{**}
	(2.78)	(1.75)	(3.04)	(2.02)	(-0.41)	(1.63)	(0.55)	(2.20)
Log (Total Assets)	0.1111^{***}	0.115***	0.049***	0.124***	0.057***	0.061***	0.012	0.054^{***}
	(14.63)	(9.15)	(8.77)	(19.50)	(3.76)	(4.73)	(0.90)	(4.94)
Cash	-0.018	-0.047	0.005	0.108	-0.056	-0.181***	-0.083	-0.020
	(-0.39)	(-1.21)	(0.10)	(1.49)	(-0.87)	(-3.41)	(-1.44)	(-0.33)
Tangibility	0.079**	0.138***	0.080^{***}	0.072^{**}	-0.091**	0.010	-0.065***	0.072
	(2.46)	(2.85)	(3.09)	(2.42)	(-2.10)	(0.15)	(-2.79)	(1.25)

(Continued)

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TABLE 7—(Continued)

Panel B: Regression Results	ts							
	Sustainability Committee	Sustainability Report	Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability Transfer	Stakeholder Engagements	Sustainability Committee	Sustainability Report	Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability	Stakeholder Engagements
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(9)	(7)	(8)
Leverage	-0.025	-0.158**	-0.077***	-0.089	-0.052	-0.072	-0.087*	-0.002
1	(-0.53)	(-2.55)	(-3.19)	(-1.64)	(-1.16)	(-1.52)	(-1.78)	(-0.03)
Profitability	0.067	0.264***	0.108***	0.201**	0.004	0.022	0.022	0.032
	(0.95)	(3.51)	(4.01)	(2.17)	(0.00)	(0.57)	(0.30)	(0.72)
Family	-0.058****	-0.042^{**}	-0.031**	-0.015	0.002	-0.002	-0.032	0.046°
	(-3.25)	(-2.45)	(-2.23)	(-0.83)	(0.06)	(-0.08)	(-1.46)	(1.80)
Other Blockholder	-0.005	0.045^{*}	-0.032	0.011	0.008	-0.086	0.073	0.097
	(-0.16)	(1.78)	(-1.51)	(0.42)	(0.11)	(-0.48)	(0.76)	(0.72)
Institutional Ownership	0.063	0.214***	0.059°	0.090	-0.011	0.052	-0.019	0.082
•	(1.33)	(3.27)	(1.89)	(1.58)	(-0.20)	(0.55)	(-0.34)	(1.38)
Cross-list	-0.053**	-0.051^{*}	-0.018	0.032	-0.001	-0.016	0.010	0.040
	(-2.49)	(-1.75)	(-1.08)	(0.95)	(-0.02)	(-0.65)	(0.32)	(0.82)
Country \times Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry × Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Obs	20,253	20,253	20,253	20,253	12,939	12,939	12,939	12,939
Adjusted R^2	0.339	0.406	0.309	0.320	0.754	0.757	0.555	0.765

This table reports summary statistics and regression estimates of specific actions through which boards directly target improved environmental performance mechanisms on governance mechanisms and control variables. The dependent variables are: Sustainability Committee, an indicator variable equal to one if the firm has a sustainability committee, and zero otherwise; Sustainability Report, an indicator variable equal to one if the firm publishes a separate sustainability report or publishes a section in its annual report on sustainability, and zero otherwise; Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability Targets, an indicator variable equal to one if the executives' compensation of a firm is linked to the firm's sustainability outcomes, and zero otherwise; and Stakeholder Engagement, an indicator variable equal to one if the firm explains how it engages with its stakeholders, and zero otherwise. Panel A shows summary statistics. Panel B reports regression results with models 1 to 4 using the full sample and models 5 to 8 including firm fixed effects and only All variables are winsorized at the 1st and 99th percentiles. All right-hand side variables are lagged by one year. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and 4statistics are using firms where Majority Election or Female Director are time-varying during the sample period. All variables are described in the appendix. The sample period is 2004–2015. reported in parentheses. ***, **, denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. 1475679; 0. Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/147-579X.12462 by University Of Toronto Libraries, Wiley Online Library on [2001/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons Licenses

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actions. 33 With firm fixed effects, the likelihood of taking a sustainability-oriented action after board renewal increases by 3% to 15%, in most cases.

We also note similar findings in the case studies discussed in detail in section 4. Following board renewal, the French firm (Maurel et Prom SA) added a sustainability committee and a sustainability report, whereas the Canadian firm (Shoppers Drug Mart) added a sustainability report.

Taken together, these results suggest that firms that renew the thinking of the board via majority elections or female board representation undertake real policy changes that increase the importance of their sustainability commitments. By documenting that firms commonly take specific actions targeting environmental performance once board renewal happens, we provide evidence of plausible channels through which the improved performance occurs.

7. Conclusion

Given the gap between investors' and firm insiders' preferences regarding environmental performance, we hypothesize that to change firm policies, investors will need board renewal mechanisms powerful enough to renew the thinking of the board. We identify two corporate governance mechanisms potentially strong enough to accomplish this: the adoption of majority voting and the introduction of a female director. Using a sample of firms from 41 countries, we find that board renewal is positively and significantly related to environmental sustainability around the world.

Panel regressions with firm fixed effects show that a majority voting rule or a female director correlates to 3% to 4% higher environmental performance. Using quasi-exogenous shocks in a nine-country sample, firm fixed effect regressions show that environmental performance is on average 8% higher over the three years after the addition of the first female director relative to the three years prior to adding the director. We also find suggestive evidence that the positive association between board renewal and future environmental performance is stronger in countries with better institutional environments, and when firms have a base of motivated institutional investors.

Further, we analyze whether the path from board renewal to increased environmental performance is associated with one or more actions through which boards directly target firms' environmental performance. We find

 $^{^{33}}$ For example, the coefficient estimate of 0.057 on majority election in model 1 implies that a firm with majority election would have a 11% higher likelihood of a having a sustainability committee based on the baseline mean of 0.534 (0.057 / 0.534 = 0.11).

that at least one of the board renewal mechanisms has a positive and significant relationship on four sustainability-oriented actions, consistent with sustainability-oriented actions being taken once board renewal happens. With firm fixed effects, our models suggest that board renewal increases the likelihood of taking a sustainability-oriented action by 2% to 3% in most cases.

Our results provide a roadmap for sustainability-minded investors suggesting that they should not focus on aggregate measures of ESG, or even environmental performance as a stand-alone measure. Instead, they should focus on board renewal mechanisms, such as majority voting and adding female directors, that renew the thinking of the board and align it with their own preferences.

One novel result uncovered in our tests is the strong relationship between female directors and future environmental performance, even when specific director characteristics are accounted for. A possible explanation for this result is that female directors affect environmental performance for reasons related specifically to their gender, consistent with prior behavioral economics research showing that, relative to men, women have higher levels of "other regarding" preferences, which would thus extend to environmental performance. Future research can test whether this explanation holds, should regulations change such that, around the world, there is more specificity and comparability in firm's disclosures of the skill sets of their board members.

Variables and Data Descriptions table:

Variable	Description	Source
A. Environmental	performance measures	
ASSET4 Environ-	Proprietary-weighted aggregate scores of	ASSET4
mental	environmental performance that ASSET4	
z-Score	provides to investors. These rank-based scores	
	range from 0 to 100 and measure the	
	environmental performance relative to all	
	companies in a given year.	
ASSET4 Equal-	Aggregate score based on 70 line items of	ASSET4
weighted	environmental commitments across three	
Environmen-	categories (emission reduction, resource	
tal	reduction, and product innovation). Each line item is translated into an indicator variable such	
Score		
	that a "one" corresponds to better environmental performance (e.g., a below-median greenhouse	
	gas emission firm would get a "one"). Category	
	scores are calculated as the sum of all indicator	
	variables in each category divided by the number	
	of reported items times 100. The ASSET4	
	Equal-weighted Environmental Score is the	
	average of the category scores. Online appendix	
	table OA-1 describes the indicator variables used	
	to calculate the environmental scores.	
ASSET4 Material	Follows the approach of the ASSET4	ASSET4, SASB
Environmen-	Equal-weighted Environmental Score. The score	
tal	is based only on those line items from ASSET4	
Score	that are "material" according to the SASB	
	Materiality Map, with materiality depending	
	upon industry.	100000
ASSET4 Environ-	Category scores for emission reduction, resource	ASSET4
mental	reduction, and product innovation. These scores	
Category z-Scores	are proprietary-weighted aggregate category scores that ASSET4 provides to investors. These	
z-scores	rank-based scores range from 0 to 100 and	
	measure the environmental performance relative	
	to all other companies in a given year.	
ASSET4 Equal-	Category scores for emission reduction, resource	ASSET4
weighted	reduction, and product innovation. The scores	
Environmen-	are based on line items of environmental	
tal Category	commitments across the three environmental	
Scores	categories. Each line item is translated into an	
	indicator variable such that a "one" corresponds	
	to better environmental performance (e.g., a	
	below-median greenhouse gas emission firm	
	would get a "one"). The category scores are	
	calculated as the sum of all indicator variables in	
	each category divided by the number of reported	
	items times 100. Online ppendix table OA-1	
	describes the indicator variables used to calculate	
-	the environmental scores.	

Variable	Description	Source
SAM S&P Environmental Score	SAM S&P Global environmental score. The scores are based on data obtained from an annual corporate assessment using an industry-specific questionnaire focusing on financially relevant criteria. The focus is on sustainability factors that can have an impact on companies' long-term value creation. These data are supplemented with a media and stakeholder analysis that examines more recent findings, which have surfaced via the media and other channels. To construct the environmental score, individual data items across various criterion levels are aggregated while applying a proprietary weighting scheme. The scores range between 0 and 100 and are ranked against other companies in the same industry and year. Data are available for our entire sample period.	S&P Global
Sustainalytics Environmental Score B. Governance me	Sustainalytics' overall environmental score. The scores are constructed by considering firm-level information available from annual reports, corporate sustainability reports, NGOs, and news sources, applying a proprietary weighting matrix across items. The scores range from 0 to 100 and coverage begins in 2009.	Sustainalytics
Majority Election	Indicator variable that equals one if the board members are generally elected with a majority	ASSET4
Female Director	vote, zero otherwise. Indicator variable that equals one if the firm has at least one female director, zero otherwise.	ASSET4, BoardEx
One Female Director	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm has one female director on the board, zero otherwise.	ASSET4, BoardEx
Two+ Female Dir.	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm has two or more female directors on the board, zero otherwise.	ASSET4, BoardEx
% Female	Number of female directors divided by the number of directors on the board.	ASSET4,
Directors Traditional Governance	Sum of the six indicator variables: Board Independence, Board Size, CEO-Chairman Separation, Board Structure, Audit Committee Independence, Stock Class.	BoardEx BoardEx, ASSET4
Board	Indicator variable that equals one if the board has	ASSET4,
Independence	more than 50% independent directors, zero otherwise.	BoardEx
Board Size	Indicator variable that equals one if the board has more than five but less than 16 members, zero	ASSET4, BoardEx
	otherwise.	

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Variable	Description	Source
Board Structure	Indicator variable that equals one if all board members are individually elected (no staggered board), zero otherwise.	ASSET4
Audit Committee Ind.	Indicator variable that equals one if the audit committee is composed only of independent directors, zero otherwise.	ASSET4
Stock Classes	Indicator variable that equals one if all shares of the company provide equal voting rights, zero otherwise.	ASSET4
C. Firm financials	and ownership characteristics	
Log(Total Assets)	Natural logarithm of total assets in US\$ million.	Worldscope
Cash	Cash and cash equivalents divided by total assets.	Worldscope
Tangibility	Property, plant, and equipment divided by total assets.	Worldscope
Leverage	Total debt divided by total assets.	Worldscope
Profitability	Net income plus after-tax interest expenses divide by total assets.	Worldscope
Family	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm is controlled by a family, zero otherwise. For each firm-year, we classify a firm as controlled by a family if any of the following conditions are met: (1) Orbis (Bureau van Dijk) identifies a family as the ultimate owner of the firm with a minimum controlling threshold of 25% (following Lins, Volpin, and Wagner, [2013]); (2) Orbis identifies the ultimate owner to be a Nominee, Trust, or Trustee, and the firm has dual class shares (obtained from ASSET4); (3) Datastream reports a minimum family stake of 20%, or Datastream reports a minimum family stake of 5% and the firm has dual class shares; (4) the Global Family Business Index (obtained from Center for Family Business at the University of St. Gallen, Switzerland) reports the firm as family controlled. For each firm, we impute intermittent years as family controlled if a firm is classified as family controlled in at least one earlier and one later year. We further extend family control both backwards and forwards in time if ASSET4 indicates that the votes of a firm's largest blockholder are within 5% of the year during which a firm is known to be family controlled and the largest blockholder's stake is at least 20%.	ASSET4, Datastream, Orbis, Global Family Business Index
Other Blockholder	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm is not family controlled or widely held, zero otherwise. This category includes controlling blockholders that are nonfinancial firms (themselves widely held), financial investors, governments, banks, and insurance firms.	ASSET4, Datastream, Orbis

Variable	Description	Source
Institutional Ownership	Total institutional ownership.	Factset
Cross-list	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm is cross-listed on a major U.S. exchange, zero otherwise.	ADR lists, CRSP
Motivated Investors, Stewardship	For each firm-year, we multiply each institutional investor's ownership percentage with a dummy variable that is equal to one if the investor's headquarter country has adopted a stewardship code, and zero otherwise, and compute the sum.	Factset, National Regulators
Motivated	For each firm-year, we multiply each institutional	Factset, WVS,
Investors,	investor's ownership percentage with the World	DYCK et al.
World Values Survey	Values Survey social norm score from the investor's headquarter-country and compute the	[2019]
D. Other firm cha	sum. racteristics	
CEO Experience	Fraction of board members who have prior CEO experience.	BoardEx
MBA	Fraction of board members who hold an MBA.	BoardEx
Higher Education	Fraction of board members with non-MBA graduate degrees.	BoardEx
Same Name	Fraction of board members that have the same last name.	BoardEx
Age	Average age in years of all board members.	BoardEx
Tenure	Average board tenure in years of all board members.	BoardEx
Sustainability Committee	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm has a sustainability committee, and zero otherwise.	ASSET4
Sustainability Report	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm publishes a separate sustainability report or publishes a section in its annual report on sustainability, and zero otherwise.	ASSET4
Executive Pay is Tied to Sustainability Targets	Indicator variable that equals one if the senior executives' compensation of a firm is linked to the firm's sustainability targets, and zero otherwise.	ASSET4
Stakeholder Engagement	Indicator variable that equals one if the firm explains how it engages with its stakeholders, and zero otherwise.	ASSET4
E. Social performa		A COPPET :
ASSET4 Social z-Score	Proprietary-weighted aggregate scores of social performance that ASSET4 provides to investors. These rank-based scores range from 0 to 100 and measure the social performance relative to all companies in a given year.	ASSET4

Variable	Description	Source
ASSET4 Equalweighted Social Score	Aggregate score based on 78 line items of social commitments across seven categories (community, diversity & opportunity, employment quality, health & safety, human rights, product responsibility, and training & development). Each line item is translated into an indicator variable such that a "one" corresponds to better social performance. Category scores are calculated as the sum of all indicator variables in each category divided by the number of reported items times 100. The ASSET4 Equal-weighted Social Score is the average of the category scores.	ASSET4
SAM S&P Social Score	SAM S&P Global social score. The scores are based on data obtained from an annual corporate assessment using an industry-specific questionnaire focusing on financially relevant criteria. The focus is on sustainability factors that can have an impact on companies' long-term value creation. These data are supplemented with a media and stakeholder analysis that examines more recent findings, which have surfaced via the media and other channels. To construct the social score, individual data items across various criterion levels are aggregated while applying a proprietary weighting scheme. The scores range between 0 and 100 and are ranked against other companies in the same industry and year. Data are available for our	S&P Global
Sustainalytics Social Score	entire sample period. Sustainalytics' overall social score. The scores are constructed by considering firm-level information available from annual reports, corporate sustainability reports, NGOs, and news sources, applying a proprietary weighting matrix across items. The scores range from 0 to 100 and coverage begins in 2009.	Sustainalytics

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