



CORPORATE  
GOVERNANCE  
MATTERS

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A CLOSER LOOK AT ORGANIZATIONAL  
CHOICES AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES

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DAVID LARCKER  
BRIAN TAYAN

## Praise for *Corporate Governance Matters*

“No board of directors ought to be without Larcker and Tayan’s *Corporate Governance Matters*. In today’s increasingly regulated environment, this comprehensive book is not only an important reference manual, but also an interesting read and a valuable roadmap.”

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“*Corporate Governance Matters* is by far and away the most useful, fact-based book on corporate governance available. It is essential reading for all current and prospective board members, anyone interested in how boards work, and for students of corporate governance. Its chapters on executive and equity pay, in particular, shine a bright light on a topic too often discussed without substance and context.”

—**Mark H. Edwards**, Chairman and CEO, Compensia

“The complexity of corporate governance often lies in its propensity to become highly subjective. David and Brian’s objective and unbiased approach to this important subject is very refreshing. This book reflects the meticulous and thorough manner in which the authors have approached corporate governance systems. They have an eye for detail and present every statement and observation with a firm factual foundation. Extensively researched, with highly relevant insights, this book serves as an ideal and practical reference for corporate executives and students of business administration.”

—**Narayana N.R. Murthy**, Infosys Technologies Limited

“*Corporate Governance Matters* should be on the reading list for any public or private company director. The authors present comprehensive coverage of current topics using both research and real-world examples to drive home the issues and uncover the best practices. I found their survey of foreign practices and cultural differences to be particularly fascinating and helpful as I work with one of my companies on an offshore partnership. Fascinating, engaging, and full of useful information—a must-read!”

—**Heidi Roizen**, Founder, CEO and Chief Lyrical Officer, Skinny Songs

“A tour de force. David Larcker and Brian Tayan have written an easy-to-read, crucial-to-know overview of corporate governance today. Powerfully blending real-world cases with the newest scientific research, *Corporate Governance Matters* identifies fundamental governance concerns that every board and shareholder needs to know about. The book also provides a valuable, real-world discussion of succession planning and the labor market for executives. If you really want to know about corporate governance (as opposed to following media pundits and governance rating firms), you must read this book!”

—**Stephen A. Miles**, Vice Chairman, Heidrick & Struggles

“Larcker and Tayan have written a first-rate book on corporate governance. Their analysis is unique in its logic, balance, and insistence on rigorous empirical evidence. This book should be required reading for directors, shareholders, and legislators.”

—**Steven N. Kaplan**, Neubauer Family Professor of Entrepreneurship and Finance, University of Chicago Graduate School of Business

“David Larcker has long been recognized by practitioners and researchers alike for his exceptional empirical analysis of key factors in corporate governance. With this new book, Larcker builds on what he has taught us through his research over the years and masterfully weaves together the range of key issues that investors, managements, and boards must grapple with in order to achieve the corporate governance balance required for optimal outcomes today.

In plain language and with examples that bring to life the key points that every investor or board member should care about and that every student of corporate governance would want to understand, Larcker and Tayan walk us step by step through the most important factors in building and protecting long-term sustainable value in public companies. Recognizing, as good research has shown over the years, that one size does not fit all, this book provides thought-provoking questions and offers insights based on experience and history to help guide readers to their own conclusions about how to apply its lessons to the specific situations they may face in their own companies. *Corporate Governance Matters* is sure to become required reading for director education and an essential desk reference for all corporate governance practitioners.”

—**Abe M. Friedman**, Managing Director, Global Head of Corporate Governance & Responsible Investment, BlackRock

“Through a careful and comprehensive examination of organizational considerations, choices, and consequences, David Larcker and Brian Tayan have produced a valuable resource for anyone with an interest in the functions of corporate governance, or whose goal is to enhance their organization’s governance system.”

—**Cindy Fornelli**, Executive Director, Center for Audit Quality

“David Larcker and Brian Tayan are the premier students and among the most thoughtful authorities on corporate governance. They have written extensively on the subject with keen insight into the problems and possible solutions, and this book is the culmination of those efforts. It should be read by anyone interested in how corporations can be better governed.”

—**Arthur Rock**, Principal of Arthur Rock & Co., former Chairman Intel and former Board Member Apple

“*Corporate Governance Matters* is a comprehensive, objective, and insightful analysis of academic and professional research on corporate governance. In contrast to legal treatments, these authors take an organizational perspective and present a fact-based, business-oriented, and long overdue reconsideration of how certain corporate governance features actually function.”

—**Professor Katherine Schipper**, Thomas Keller Professor of Business Administration, Duke University, and former member of the Financial Accounting Standards Board

“They did it! Larcker and Tayan have cracked the code on the connections between corporate governance and corporate performance. Debunking lots of myths along the way, they give practical advice on what works and what doesn’t. Their chapters on board composition and executive pay capture the challenge to directors to manage corporations in the best interests of shareholders. This is a must-read for anyone who is interested in improving the performance of corporations.”

—**Ira Kay**, Managing Partner, Pay Governance

“When it comes to corporate governance, it seems that everyone has an opinion. David Larcker and Brian Tayan, however, have the facts. This refreshing, hard-headed review describes what we do and don’t know about corporate governance. It lays bare assumptions about governance that simply aren’t correct and is destined to become a central reference for anyone interested in how corporate America governs itself.”

—**Professor Joseph A. Grundfest**, The William A. Franke Professor of Law and Business, Senior Faculty, Rock Center on Corporate Governance, Stanford Law School

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# **Corporate Governance Matters**

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# **Corporate Governance Matters**

**A Closer Look at Organizational Choices  
and Their Consequences**

**David Larcker  
Brian Tayan**



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***To Sally, Sarah, and Daniel,  
Jack, Louise, and Brad***

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# Contents

	Preface . . . . .	.xv
Chapter 1	Introduction to Corporate Governance . . . . .	.1
Chapter 2	International Corporate Governance . . . . .	.23
Chapter 3	Board of Directors: Duties and Liability . . . . .	.67
Chapter 4	Board of Directors: Selection, Compensation, and Removal . . . . .	.93
Chapter 5	Board of Directors: Structure and Consequences . . . . .	.127
Chapter 6	Organizational Strategy, Business Models, and Risk Management . . . . .	.169
Chapter 7	Labor Market for Executives and CEO Succession Planning . . . . .	.203
Chapter 8	Executive Compensation and Incentives . . . . .	.237
Chapter 9	Executive Equity Ownership . . . . .	.287
Chapter 10	Financial Reporting and External Audit . . . . .	.325
Chapter 11	The Market for Corporate Control . . . . .	.361
Chapter 12	Institutional Shareholders and Activist Investors . . . . .	.393
Chapter 13	Corporate Governance Ratings . . . . .	.433
Chapter 14	Summary and Conclusions . . . . .	.459
	Index . . . . .	.467

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Additional resources and supporting material for this book are available at:

Stanford Graduate School of Business  
The Corporate Governance Research Program  
[www.gsb.stanford.edu/cgrp/](http://www.gsb.stanford.edu/cgrp/)

# Preface

This is a book about corporate governance, written from an organizational perspective. It is intended for practitioners and aspiring practitioners who are interested in improving governance systems in their organizations. Unlike many books on governance, this book is *not* written primarily from a legal perspective. Although we describe the legal obligations of selected organizational participants, our objective is not to rehash legal constructs. Books written by trained lawyers are much better for that purpose, and many fine works explain these obligations for the practitioner. Instead, our purpose is to examine the choices that organizations can make in designing governance systems and the impact those choices have on executive decision-making and the organization's performance. This book is therefore relevant to corporate directors, executives, institutional investors, lawyers, and regulators who make organizational decisions.

Corporate governance is a topic that suffers from considerable rhetoric. In writing this book, we have attempted to correct many misconceptions. Rather than write a book that is based on opinion, we use the knowledge contained in the extensive body of professional and scholarly research to guide our discussion and justify our conclusions. This approach does not always lead to simple recommendations, but it has the advantage of being grounded in factual evidence. As you will see, not every governance question has been the subject of rigorous empirical study, nor is every question amenable to a simple solution. There are gaps in our knowledge that will need to be addressed by further study. Still, we hope this book provides a framework that enables practitioners to make sound decisions that are well supported by careful research.

In each chapter, we focus on a particular governance feature, describe its potential benefits and costs, review the research evidence, and then draw conclusions. Although the book is written so that it can be read from cover to cover, each chapter also stands on its own; readers can select the chapters that are most relevant to their interests, (strategic oversight and risk management, CEO succession planning, executive compensation, and so on). This book—along with our set of associated



case studies and teaching materials—is also suitable for undergraduate and graduate university courses and executive education programs.

We believe it is important for organizations to take a deliberate approach in designing governance systems. We believe this book provides the information that allows them to do so.

# 1

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## Introduction to Corporate Governance

Corporate governance has become a well-discussed and controversial topic in both the popular and business press. Newspapers produce detailed accounts of corporate fraud, accounting scandals, insider trading, excessive compensation, and other perceived organizational failures—many of which culminate in lawsuits, resignations, and bankruptcy. The stories have run the gamut from the shocking and instructive (epitomized by Enron and the elaborate use of special-purpose entities and aggressive accounting to distort its financial condition) to the shocking and outrageous (epitomized by Tyco partially funding a \$2.1 million birthday party in 2002 for the wife of Chief Executive Officer [CEO] Dennis Kozlowski that included a vodka-dispensing replica of the statue *David*). Central to these stories is the assumption that somehow *corporate governance* is to blame—that is, the system of checks and balances meant to prevent abuse by executives failed (see the following sidebar).<sup>1</sup>

### A Breakdown in Corporate Governance: HealthSouth

Consider HealthSouth Corp., the once high-flying healthcare service provider based in Birmingham, Alabama.<sup>2</sup>

- CEO Richard Scrushy and other corporate officers were accused of overstating earnings by at least \$1.4 billion between 1999 and 2002 to meet analyst expectations.<sup>3</sup>
- The CEO was paid a salary of \$4.0 million, awarded a cash bonus of \$6.5 million, and granted 1.2 million stock options during fiscal 2001, the year before the manipulation was uncovered.<sup>4</sup>

- The CEO sold back 2.5 million shares to the company—94 percent of his total holdings—just weeks before the firm revealed that regulatory changes would significantly hurt earnings, causing the company’s share price to plummet.<sup>5</sup>
- Former Chief Financial Officer (CFO) Weston L. Smith and other senior executives pleaded guilty to a scheme to artificially inflate financial results.<sup>6</sup>
- The CEO was found guilty of civil charges brought by shareholders in a derivative lawsuit and ordered to pay the company \$2.88 billion in restitution.<sup>7</sup>

What was the board of directors doing during this period?

- The compensation committee met only *once* during 2001.<sup>8</sup>
- *Forbes* wrote that the CEO has “provided subpar returns to shareholders while earning huge sums for [himself]. Still, the board doesn’t toss [him] out.”<sup>9</sup>

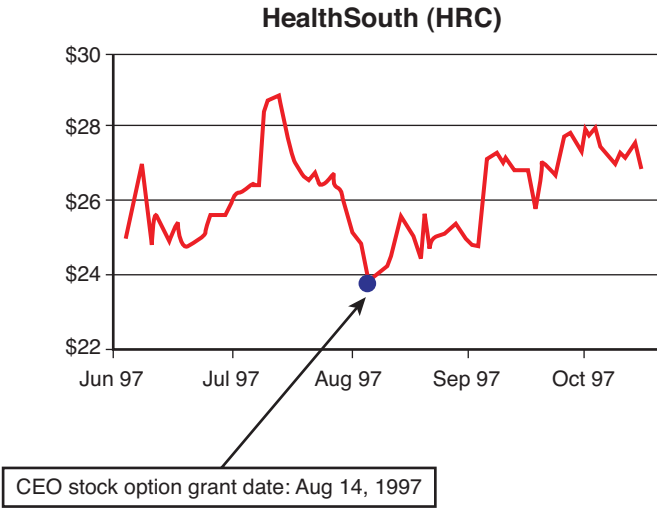
What was the external auditor (Ernst & Young) doing?

- The audit committee met only *once* during 2001.<sup>10</sup>
- The president and CFO both previously were employed as auditors for Ernst & Young.
- The company paid Ernst & Young \$2.5 million in consulting and other fees while also paying \$1.2 million for auditing services.<sup>11</sup>

What were the analysts doing?

- A UBS analyst had a “strong buy” recommendation on HealthSouth.
- UBS earned \$7 million in investment banking fees for services provided to the company.<sup>12</sup>

Perhaps not surprisingly, the CEO also received backdated stock options during his tenure—stock options whose grant dates were retroactively changed to coincide with low points in the company’s stock price (see Figure 1.1).



Source: Chart prepared by David F. Larcker and Brian Tayan (2010).

Figure 1.1 HealthSouth: CEO stock option grant date.

Interestingly, Scrushy was not convicted of accounting manipulations in a criminal trial brought by the U.S. Justice Department. However, he was ordered to pay \$2.9 billion in a civil suit and, separately, was sentenced to seven years in prison for bribing a former Alabama governor.

As the case of HealthSouth illustrates, the system of checks and balances meant to prevent abuse by senior executives does not always function properly. Unfortunately, governance failures are not isolated instances. In recent years, several corporations have collapsed in prominent fashion, including American International Group, Adelphia, Bear Stearns, Enron, Global Crossing, Lehman Brothers, Tyco, and WorldCom. This list does not even include the dozens of lesser-known companies that did not make the front page of the *Wall Street Journal* or *Financial Times*, but whose owners also suffered. Furthermore, this problem is not limited to U.S. corporations. Major international companies such as Ahold, Parmalat, Royal Dutch/Shell, Satyam, and Siemens were all plagued by scandal that involved a breakdown of management oversight. Foreign companies listed on U.S. exchanges are as likely to restate their financial results as domestic companies, indicating that governance is a global issue.

## Self-Interested Executives

What is the root cause of these failures? Reports suggest that these companies suffered from a “breakdown in corporate governance.” What does that mean? What is corporate governance, and what is it expected to prevent?

In theory, the need for corporate governance rests on the idea that when separation exists between the ownership of a company and its management, self-interested executives have the opportunity to take actions that benefit themselves, with shareholders and stakeholders bearing the cost of these actions.<sup>13</sup> This scenario is typically referred to as the **agency problem**, with the costs resulting from this problem described as **agency costs**. Executives make investment, financing, and operating decisions that better themselves at the expense of other parties related to the firm.<sup>14</sup> To lessen agency costs, some type of control or monitoring system is put in place in the organization. That system of checks and balances is called **corporate governance**.

Behavioral psychology and other social sciences have provided evidence that individuals are self-interested. In *The Economic Approach to Human Behavior*, Gary Becker (1976) applies a theory of “rational self-interest” to economics to explain human tendencies, including one to commit crime or fraud.<sup>15</sup> He demonstrates that, in a wide variety of settings, individuals can take actions to benefit themselves without detection and, therefore, avoid the cost of punishment. Control mechanisms are put in place in society to deter such behavior by increasing the probability of detection and shifting the risk–reward balance so that the expected payoff from crime is decreased.

Before we rely on this theory too heavily, it is important to highlight that individuals are not always uniformly and completely self-interested. Many people exhibit self-restraint on moral grounds that have little to do with economic rewards. Not all employees who are unobserved in front of an open cash box will steal from it, and not all executives knowingly make decisions that better themselves at the expense of shareholders. This is known as **moral salience**, the knowledge that certain actions are inherently wrong even if they are undetected and left unpunished. Individuals exhibit varying degrees of moral salience, depending on their personality, religious convictions,

and personal and financial circumstances. Moral salience also depends on the company involved, the country of business, and the cultural norms.<sup>16</sup>

The need for a governance control mechanism to discourage costly, self-interested behavior therefore depends on the size of the potential agency costs, the ability of the control mechanism to mitigate agency costs, and the cost of implementing the control mechanism (see the following sidebar).

### Evidence of Self-Interested Behavior

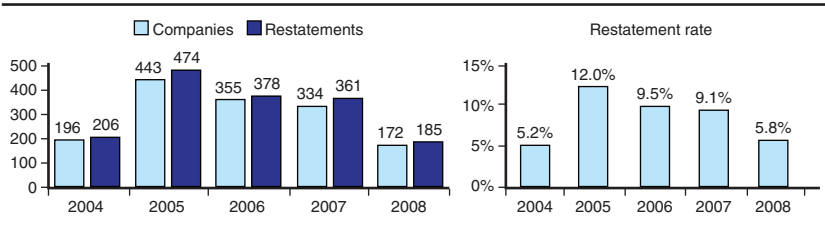
How prevalent are agency problems? Are they outlier events or an epidemic affecting the broad population? How severe are agency costs? Are they chronic and frictional or terminal and catastrophic?

To gain some insight into these questions, it is useful to consider the frequency of negative corporate events that, in whole or in part, are correlated with agency problems. However, before looking at the statistics, we also need to highlight that not all bad outcomes are caused by self-seeking behavior. A bad outcome might well occur even though the managerial decision was appropriate (that is, other management might have made the same decision when provided with the same information). With that important caveat, consider the following descriptive statistics:

- **Bankruptcy**—Between 2000 and 2005, 1,009 publicly traded companies filed for Chapter 11 bankruptcy protection in the United States.<sup>17</sup> Of these, approximately 10 percent were subject to a Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) enforcement action for violating SEC or federal rules, implying that some form of fraud played a part in the bankruptcy.<sup>18</sup> Bankruptcies linked to fraud are a severe case of agency problems, usually resulting in a complete loss of capital for shareholders and a significant loss for creditors.
- **Financial restatement**—Between 2004 and 2008, approximately 8 percent of publicly traded companies in the United States had to restate their financial results.<sup>19</sup> Although some financial restatements result from honest procedural errors in

applying accounting standards, financial restatements also can occur when senior management manipulates reported earnings for personal gain. According to Glass Lewis, the average market-adjusted two-day return for companies announcing a restatement was approximately  $-0.5$  percent. In the case of “severe restatements” (classified as those affecting revenue recognition, core earnings, or involving fraud), share losses were  $-1.5$  percent to  $-2.0$  percent. Losses persist well beyond the announcement period, suggesting a material long-term impairment of shareholder value (see Figure 1.2).

Number of U.S.-listed companies that restated, restatements and restatement rate

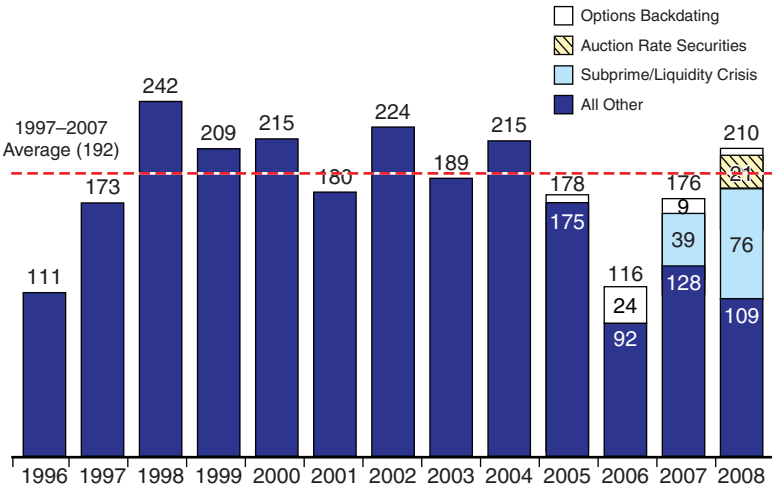


Source: Mark Grothe and Poonam Goyal (2009).

Figure 1.2 Restatements in the United States

- Class action lawsuits**—Between 1996 and 2008, almost 200 class-action lawsuits were filed annually against corporate officers and directors for securities fraud. No doubt, some of this litigation was frivolous. However, market capitalization losses for defendant firms totaled approximately \$130 billion each year (measured as the change in market capitalization during the class period). Although this is a somewhat crude approximation, this averages \$677 million per company (see Figure 1.3).

### CAF Index™ – Annual Number of Class Action Filings 1996–2008



Source: *Securities Class Action Filings 2008: A Year in Review*, Cornerstone Research.

Figure 1.3 Annual number of class action filings (1996–2008)

- Foreign Corrupt Practices Act violations**—The Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA) of 1977 makes it illegal for a company to offer payments to foreign officials for the purpose of obtaining or retaining business, to fail to keep accurate records of transactions, or to fail to maintain effective controls to detect potential violations of the FCPA. Between 2004 and 2008, the SEC and the U.S. Department of Justice filed approximately 20 enforcement actions per year against U.S. listed corporations for alleged FCPA violations. Notably, this figure has trended upward. Violations are settled through a disgorgement of profits and other penalties. In 2008, the SEC enforced more than \$380 million in disgorgements, a record amount.<sup>20</sup>
- Stock option backdating**—Backdated stock options are those whose grant dates have been retroactively changed to coincide with a relative low in the company's share price. This practice reduces the strike price of the option and increases the potential payoff to its recipient. The *Wall Street Journal*



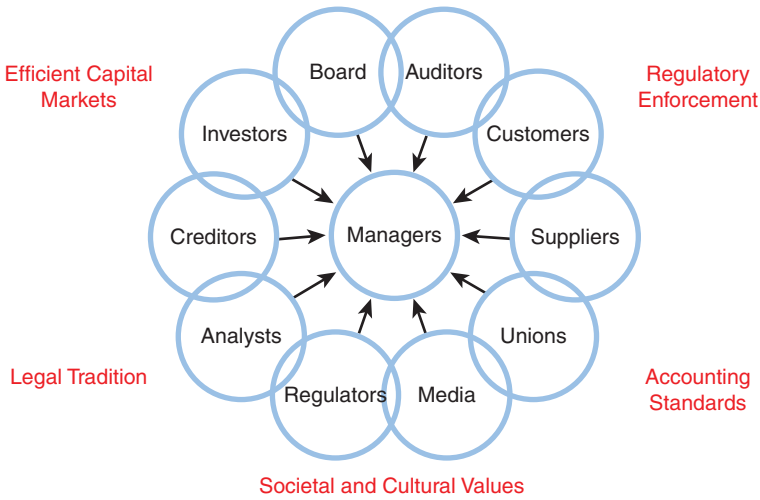
has identified 167 companies that have engaged in backdating.<sup>21</sup> Research suggests that the practice might have been even more pervasive.<sup>22</sup> Bernile and Jarrell (2009) found that the average abnormal stock market return for the first announcement that a company engaged in backdating is  $-7$  percent.<sup>23</sup>

- **“Massaging” earnings**—Senior executives are under considerable pressure from the investment community to forecast future earnings and then to deliver on those targets. In a survey of senior financial executives, Graham, Harvey, and Rajgopal (2006) found that a majority are willing to massage the company’s earnings to meet quarterly forecasts.<sup>24</sup> For example, 55 percent state that they would delay starting a new project, even if the project is expected to create long-term value. Separately, respondents were given a scenario in which initiating a new project would cause earnings per share in the current quarter to come in \$0.10 lower. The respondents reported an 80 percent probability that they would accept the project if doing so enabled them to still meet their earnings target, but only a 60 percent probability if the project caused them to miss their earnings target.

These statistics suggest that agency problems caused by self-interested executives are likely to be quite prevalent, and the cost of managerial self-interest can be substantial.

## Defining Corporate Governance

We define **corporate governance** as the collection of control mechanisms that an organization adopts to prevent or dissuade potentially self-interested managers from engaging in activities detrimental to the welfare of shareholders and stakeholders. At a minimum, the monitoring system consists of a board of directors to oversee management and an external auditor to express an opinion on the reliability of financial statements. In most cases, however, governance systems are influenced by a much broader group of constituents, including owners of the firm, creditors, labor unions, customers, suppliers, investment analysts, the media, and regulators (see Figure 1.4).



Source: Chart prepared by David F. Larcker and Brian Tayan (2011).

Figure 1.4 Selected determinants and participants in corporate governance systems.

For a governance system to be economically efficient, it should decrease agency costs more than the costs of implementation. However, because implementation costs are greater than zero, even the best corporate governance system will not make the cost of the agency problem disappear completely.

The structure of the governance system also depends on the fundamental orientation of the firm and the role that the firm plays in society. From a **shareholder perspective** (the viewpoint that the primary obligation of the organization is to maximize shareholder value), effective corporate governance should increase the value of equity holders by better aligning incentives between management and shareholders. From a **stakeholder perspective** (the viewpoint that the organization has a societal obligation beyond increasing shareholder value), effective governance should support policies that produce stable and safe employment, provide an acceptable standard of living to workers, mitigate risk for debt holders, and improve the community and environment.<sup>25</sup> Obviously, the governance system that maximizes shareholder value might not be the same as the one that maximizes stakeholder value.

A broad set of external forces that vary across nations also influence the structure of the governance system. These include the efficiency of local capital markets, legal tradition, reliability of accounting standards, regulatory enforcement, and societal and cultural values. These forces serve as an external disciplining mechanism on managerial behavior. Their relative effectiveness determines the extent to which additional monitoring mechanisms are required.

Finally, any system of corporate governance involves third parties that are linked with the company but do not have a direct ownership stake. These include regulators (such as the SEC), politicians, the external auditor, security analysts, external legal counsel, employees and unions, proxy advisory firms, customers, suppliers, and other similar participants. Third parties might be subject to their own agency issues that compromise their ability to work solely in the interest of the company. For example, the external auditor is employed by an accounting firm that seeks to improve its own financial condition; when the accounting firm also provides non-audit services, the auditor *might* be confronted with conflicting objectives. Likewise, security analysts are employed by investment firms that serve both institutional and retail clients; when the analyst covers a company that is also a client of the investment firm, the analyst might face added pressure by his firm to publish positive comments about the company that are misleading to shareholders. These types of conflicts can contribute to a breakdown in oversight of management activity.

## Corporate Governance Standards

There are no universally agreed-upon standards that determine good governance. Still, this has not stopped blue-ribbon panels from recommending uniform standards to market participants. For example, in December 1992, the Cadbury Committee—commissioned by the British government “to help raise the standards of corporate governance and the level of confidence in financial reporting and auditing”—issued a *Code of Best Practices* that, in many ways, provided a benchmark set of recommendations on governance.<sup>26</sup> Key recommendations included separating the chairman and chief executive officer titles, appointing independent directors, reducing conflicts of interest at the board level because of business or other relationships,

convening an independent audit committee, and reviewing the effectiveness of the company's internal controls. These standards set the basis for listing requirements on the London Stock Exchange and were largely adopted by the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE). However, compliance with these standards has not always translated into effective governance. For example, Enron was compliant with NYSE requirements, including requirements to have a majority of independent directors and fully independent audit and compensation committees, yet it still failed along many legal and ethical dimensions.

Over time, a series of formal regulations and informal guidelines has been proposed to address perceived shortcomings in governance systems as they are exposed. One of the most important pieces of formal legislation relating to governance is the Sarbanes–Oxley Act of 2002 (SOX). Primarily a reaction to the failures of Enron and others, SOX mandated a series of requirements to improve corporate controls and reduce conflicts of interest. Importantly, CEOs and CFOs found to have made material misrepresentations in the financial statements are now subject to criminal penalties. Despite these efforts, corporate failures stemming from deficient governance systems continue. In 2005, Refco, a large U.S.-based foreign exchange and commodity broker, filed for bankruptcy after revealing that it had hidden \$430 million in loans made to its CEO.<sup>27</sup> The disclosure came just two months after the firm raised \$583 million in an initial public offering. That same year, mortgage guarantor Fannie Mae announced that it had overstated earnings by \$6.3 billion because it had misapplied more than 20 accounting standards relating to loans, investment securities, and derivatives. Insufficient capital levels eventually led the company to seek conservatorship by the U.S. government.<sup>28</sup>

In 2009, Sen. Charles Schumer of New York proposed new legislation to stem the tide of governance collapses. Known as the Shareholder's Bill of Rights, the legislation stipulated that companies adopt procedural changes designed to give shareholders greater influence over director elections and compensation. Requirements included a shift toward annual elections for all directors (thereby disallowing staggered or classified boards), a standard of majority voting for director elections (instead of plurality voting) in which directors in uncontested elections must resign if they do not receive a majority vote, the right for

certain institutional shareholders to directly nominate board candidates on the company proxy (proxy access), the separation of the chairman and CEO roles, and the right for shareholders to have an advisory vote on executive compensation (say-on-pay). The 2010 Dodd–Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act subsequently adopted several of these recommendations, including proxy access and say-on-pay. The interesting question is whether this legislation is a product of political expediency or actually is based on rigorous theory and empirical research.<sup>29</sup>

Several third-party organizations, such as The Corporate Library and Risk Metrics Group/Institutional Shareholder Services (ISS), attempt to protect investors from inadequate corporate governance by publishing governance ratings on individual companies. These rating agencies use alphanumeric or numeric systems that rank companies according to a set of criteria that they believe measure governance effectiveness. Companies with high ratings are considered less risky and most likely to grow shareholder value. Companies with low ratings are considered more risky and have the highest potential for failure or fraud. However, the accuracy and predictive power of these ratings has not been clearly demonstrated. Critics allege that ratings encourage a “check-the-box” approach to governance that overlooks important context. The potential shortcomings of these ratings were spotlighted in the case of HealthSouth. Before evidence of earnings manipulation was brought to light, the company had a RiskMetrics/ISS rating that placed it in the top 35 percent of Standard & Poor’s 500 companies and the top 8 percent of its industry peers.<sup>30</sup>

Changes in the business environment further complicate attempts to identify uniform standards of governance. Some recent trends include the increased prominence of private equity, activist investors, and proxy advisory firms in the governance space.

- **Private equity**—Private equity firms implement governance systems that are considerably different from those at most public companies. Publicly owned companies must demonstrate independence at the board level, but private equity–owned companies operate with very low levels of independence (almost everyone on the board has a relationship to the company and has a vested interest in its operations). Private equity

companies also offer extremely high compensation to senior executives, a practice that is criticized among public companies but one that is strictly tied to the creation of economic value. Should public companies adopt certain aspects from the private equity model of governance? Would this produce more or less shareholder value?

- **Activist investors**—Institutional investors, hedge funds, and pension funds have become considerably more active in attempting to influence management and the board through the annual proxy voting process. Are the interests of these parties consistent with those of individual shareholders? Does public debate between these parties reflect a movement toward improved dialogue about corporate objectives and strategy? Or does it constitute an unnecessary intrusion by activists who have their own self-interested agendas?
- **Proxy advisory firms**—Recent SEC rules require that mutual funds disclose how they vote their annual proxies.<sup>31</sup> These rules have coincided with increased media attention on the voting process, which was previously considered a formality of little interest. Has the disclosure of voting improved corporate governance? At the same time, these rules have stimulated demand for commercial firms—such as RiskMetrics/ISS and Glass Lewis—to provide recommendations on how to vote on proxy proposals. What is the impact of shareholders relying on third parties to inform their voting decisions? Are the recommendations of these firms consistent with good governance?

## Best Practice or Best Practices? Does “One Size Fit All?”

It is highly unlikely that a single set of best practices exists for all firms, despite the attempts of some to impose uniform standards. Governance is a complex and dynamic system that involves the interaction of a diverse set of constituents, all of whom play a role in monitoring executive behavior. Because of this complexity, it is difficult to assess the impact of a single component. Focusing an analysis on one or two mechanisms without considering the broader context can be a prescription for failure. For example, is it sufficient to insist that a

company separate the chairman and CEO positions without considering who the CEO is and other structural, cultural, and governance features of the company?

Applying a “one-size-fits-all” approach to governance can lead to incorrect conclusions and is unlikely to substantially improve corporate performance. The standards most often associated with good governance might appear to be good ideas, but when applied universally, they can result in failure as often as success. For example, consider the idea of board independence. Is a board consisting primarily of independent directors superior to a board comprised entirely of internal directors? How should individual attributes such as their business acumen, professional background, ethical standards of responsibility, level of engagement, relationship with the CEO, and reliance on director fees to maintain their standard of living factor into our analysis?<sup>32</sup> Personal attributes might influence independence of perspective more than predetermined standards.<sup>33</sup> However, these elements are rarely captured in regulatory requirements.<sup>34</sup>

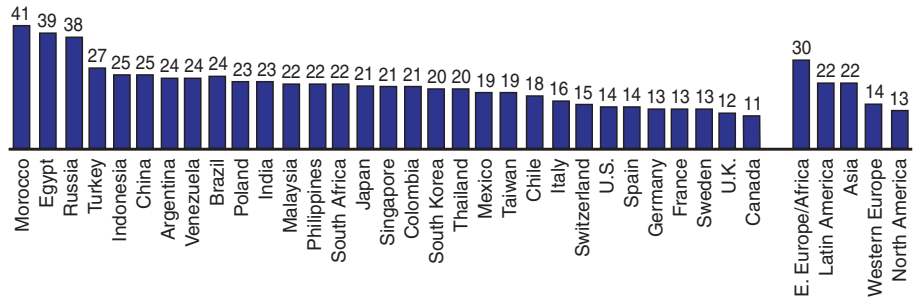
In governance, context matters. A set of governance mechanisms that works well in one setting might prove disastrous in another. This situation becomes apparent when considering international governance systems. For example, Germany requires labor union representation on many corporate boards. How effective would such a system be in the United States? Japanese boards have few outside directors, and many of those who are outside directors come from banks that provide capital to the firm or key customers and suppliers. What would be the impact on Japanese companies if they were required to adopt the independence standards of the United States? These are difficult questions, but ones that investors must consider when deciding where to allocate their investment dollars.

## **Relationship between Corporate Governance and Firm Performance**

According to a 2002 survey by McKinsey & Company, nearly 80 percent of institutional investors responded that they would pay a premium for a well-governed company. The size of the premium varied

by market, ranging from 11 percent for a company in Canada to around 40 percent for a company in Morocco, Egypt, or Russia (see Figure 1.5).<sup>35</sup> These results imply that investors perceive well-governed companies to be better investments than poorly governed companies.<sup>36</sup> They are also consistent with the idea that governance systems are more important in certain countries than in others.

Premium in 2002



Source: Paul Coombes and Mark Watson (2002). "Global Investor Opinion Survey 2002: Key Findings." McKinsey & Company.

Figure 1.5 Indicated premiums for good corporate governance, by country.

As we will see throughout this book, many studies link measures of corporate governance with firm operating and stock price performance. Perhaps the most widely cited study was done by Gompers, Ishii, and Metrick (2003).<sup>37</sup> They found that companies that employ "shareholder-friendly" governance features significantly outperform companies that employ "shareholder unfriendly" governance features. This is an important research study, but as we will see in Chapter 13, these results are not completely definitive. Currently, researchers have not produced a reliable litmus test that measures overall governance quality.

The purpose of this book is to provide the basis for constructive debate among executives, directors, investors, regulators, and other constituents that have an important stake in the success of corporations. This book focuses on corporate governance from an *organizational* instead of purely *legal* perspective, with an emphasis on exploring the



relationships between control mechanisms and their impact on mitigating agency costs and improving shareholder and stakeholder outcomes.

Each chapter examines a specific component of corporate governance and summarizes what is known and what remains unknown about the topic. We have taken an agnostic approach, with no agenda other than to “get the story straight.” In each chapter, we provide an overview of the specific topic, a synthesis of the relevant research, and concrete examples that illustrate key points.<sup>38</sup> Sometimes the evidence is inconclusive (see the following sidebar). We hope that the combination of materials will help you arrive at intelligent insights. In particular, we hope to benefit the individuals who participate in corporate governance processes so that they can make informed decisions that benefit the organizations they serve.

### Interpreting Empirical Research

Oliver Williamson, winner of the 2009 Nobel Prize in Economics, observed the following:

“I have no doubt that the economics of governance is influential in significant measure because it does speak to real-world phenomena and invites *empirical testing* .... All feasible forms of organizations are flawed, and ... we need to understand the trade-offs that are going on, the factors that are responsible for using one form of governance rather than another, and the strengths and weaknesses that are associated with each of them.”<sup>39</sup>

Still, the interpretation of empirical tests (academic, consulting, or other) requires some understanding of their limitations:

1. The results cited in **empirical tests** are typically average results generated from the statistical analysis of large samples of firms. Large samples enable a researcher to identify trends that are generally prevalent across companies. However, they do not tell us what we can expect to find at a specific company. Case or field studies can help answer firm-specific questions, but their results are difficult to generalize because they are based on only a handful of firms that may not be typical of the general population of firms.

2. Empirical tests can identify associations between variables, but they do not demonstrate causality. This is a recurring problem in nonexperimental social science. If we observe a negative stock price return when a company adopts a governance change, it does not tell us that the change caused the stock price decline. It is possible that another (exogenous) factor might have been the cause. Ideally, we would control for this by observing what would have happened had another action been taken (the counterfactual outcome); however, this is impossible to observe. In corporate governance, we do not have the luxury of controlled samples. Still, empirical results are superior to guesswork or intuition.
3. The performance metrics that governance researchers typically use fall into two broad categories: operating metrics and stock price metrics. Operating metrics (such as return on assets and operating cash flow) are somewhat backward looking but are generally considered to provide insight into value changes within the firm. Stock price metrics are typically based on **abnormal** or **excess** returns (the so-called **alpha**, calculated as observed returns minus the expected returns, given the risk of the stock). Assuming reasonably efficient markets, excess returns provide a measure of change in economic value for shareholders. The researcher must determine which metric is better for evaluating the question at hand. The choice will depend on whether the market should be able to anticipate the impact of interest.
4. Another metric that is commonly used in governance research is the ratio of market-to-book value (sometimes referred to as **Tobin's Q** or simply **Q**). **Q** is based on the theory that a firm with superior performance will trade in the market at a valuation that is higher than the accounting value of its net assets. While this may be true, we view **Q** to be an ambiguous measure of firm performance and inferior to traditional operating metrics and excess stock price returns.

5. We sometimes refer to **event studies**. Event studies measure the stock market's reaction to news or events. These studies have validity only to the extent that the reader believes that markets are at least partly efficient. Even if so, event studies cannot easily control for confounding events (such as other news released by the company during the measurement period). Moreover, event studies require the researcher to make important risk adjustments when computing excess stock returns. Although several risk adjustments have become "accepted," their computation is complex, and it is difficult to know whether the researcher made them properly.

## Endnotes

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# INDEX

8-K forms, 330  
2010 Dodd–Frank Wall Street  
Reform and Consumer Protection  
Act, 12

## A

A-shares, 51  
AAAA (Associated Actors and Artists  
Association), 411  
ABI (Association of British  
Insurers), 352  
abnormal accruals, 339  
abuses by executives, checks and  
balances system, 1-8  
academic researchers, 448-453  
accountability, board evaluations, 116  
Accounting and Governance Risk  
(AGR) scores, 339  
accounting  
audit committee responsibilities, 327  
equity ownership, 292-293  
fraud, decentralized organizations,  
337-338  
models for detecting manipulations,  
338-341  
standards, influence on governance  
system, 28-31  
accredited investors, 416  
accrual accounting, 339  
acquirers (company making offer), 362  
acquisitions  
antitakeover protections. *See*  
antitakeover protections  
friendly, 362  
hostile takeovers, 362  
impact on corporate performance,  
367-372  
Active Advisor (CEO), 220  
active investors, 394  
activist investors, 13, 394, 406-410  
hedge funds, 416-419  
institutional funds with a social  
mission, 414-416  
pension funds, 413  
shareholder democracy, 419-424  
advantages (corporate strategy), 171  
advisory capacity (board of  
directors), 67  
advisory directors, 99  
Aetna, changes in CGQ, 447  
AFL-CIO (American Federation of  
Labor and Congress of Industrial  
Organizations), 411  
agencies  
costs, equity ownership, 292  
statistics, 5-6, 8  
Aggressor (CEO), 221  
AGR (Accounting and Governance  
Risk) scores, 339  
AICPA (American Institute of  
Certified Public Accountants),  
348, 352  
AIG (American International Group),  
governance rating error, 444-445  
Airline Pilots Association (ALPA), 411  
AirNet Systems  
hedging policies and disclosure,  
310-311  
pledging policies and disclosure, 313  
ALPA (Airline Pilots Association), 411  
American Electric Power, 228  
American Federation of Labor and  
Congress of Industrial  
Organizations (AFL-CIO), 411



American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), 348, 352  
 American International Group (AIG), governance rating error, 444-445  
 Ameriprise Financial, 268  
 Amgen, 276  
 Analog Devices, 104  
 Anglo-Saxon model of governance, 38  
 annual bonuses, executive compensation, 241  
 annual incentives, executive compensation, 262-264  
 annual salaries, executive compensation, 241  
 antitakeover defenses, 363  
 antitakeover protections, 363, 373  
   dual-class stocks, 374, 382-384  
   poison pills, 374-379  
   rank by level of protectiveness, 384-386  
   staggered boards, 375, 379-380  
   state of incorporation, 380-382  
 assets under management (AUM), 180  
 Associated Actors and Artists Association (AAAA), 411  
 Association of British Insurers (ABI), 352  
 audit committees, 72  
   financial reporting quality, 329-330  
   responsibilities, 326-329  
 audits. *See* external audits; quality audits  
 AUM (assets under management), 180  
 average employee, pay inequity, 257-259

## B

B-shares, 51  
 Bank of America, 134  
 Bankers, as members of board of directors, 147-148  
 bankruptcy statistics, 5  
 BASF versus Engelhard Corporation, 371-372  
 behavior (executives), relationship to equity ownership, 287  
   accounting manipulation, 292-293  
   agency costs, 292  
   CEOs, 287-288  
   equity sales and hedging, 298-299  
   firm performance, 288-291  
   hedging, 306-312  
   insider trading, 300-302  
   manipulation of equity grants, 294-298  
   pledging shares, 312-314  
   repricing/exchange offers, 314-317  
   Rule 10b5-1, 302-306  
   target ownership plans, 291-292  
 benchmarking executive compensation, 247-250  
 benefits, executive compensation, 245, 268-269  
 best practices, 13-14  
   Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 10  
   governance reform, 39-40  
   insufficient testing, 460-461  
 bidders, 362  
 Big Four (audit industry), 345-347  
 black swans (unpredictable events), 188  
 blackout period, 301  
 BlackRock, 394  
 blockholders, 395-398  
 board classification, 379-380  
 board committees, 72-76  
 board evaluation, directors, 115-117  
 board of directors, 66-67  
   board observers, 100-101  
   Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 40  
   compensation, 108-117  
   disclosure requirements for qualifications, 103-105  
   duration of director terms, 76-77  
   elections, 77-79  
   executive compensation, 240-247  
   independence, 69  
   legal duties. *See* legal duties  
   market for directors, 93-102  
   operations, 70-76  
   recruitment process, 105-107  
   removal of directors, 79, 117-121  
   responsibilities  
     *business model development*, 175-180  
     *identification of KPIs*, 180-186  
     *organizational strategy*, 170-172  
     *risk management*, 186-198  
     *strategic guidance of company*, 169  
     *strategy implementation*, 173-175

- structure, 127-128, 160-161
    - bankers*, 147-148
    - busy directors*, 151-154
    - chairman of the board*, 129, 133, 136
    - diversity*, 157-158
    - employee representation*, 149-151
    - female directors*, 158-160
    - financial experts*, 148
    - independent committees*, 146-147
    - independent directors*, 142-145
    - interlocked boards*, 154-155
    - lead independent directors*, 136-139
    - outside directors*, 139-142
    - politically connected directors*, 149
    - size*, 155-156
  - Toyota, 47
  - Bombay Stock Exchange, 54
  - Bostock, Roy, 386
  - Bovespa (São Paulo Stock Exchange), 55
  - Brazil, governance structure, 55-56
  - British model of governance, 38
  - broker nonvotes, shareholder democracy, 421
  - Buffett, Warren, 402
  - bullet-dodging options, 298
  - burn rate in equity-based compensation, 405
  - business judgment rule, 84
  - business model development, 175-180
  - busy directors
    - board of directors, 151-154
    - interlocked boards, 154-155
- C**
- Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 10, 40-42
  - The Cadbury Report* (1992), 39-40
  - Calhoun, David, 205
  - capital market efficiency
    - Brazil, 55
    - influence on governance system, 24-27
  - Capitulator (CEO), 221
  - cash from operations, 263
  - causal business model, 174
  - CD&A (Compensation Discussion & Analysis), 240, 274
  - CEOs. *See also* executives
    - active, market for directors, 97-98
    - compensation. *See* compensation, executives
    - equity ownership, 287-288
    - labor market, 203-213
    - models for succession, 213-218
    - outgoing, 107
    - separation from the chairman of the board, 132-136
    - severance agreements, 228, 230
    - succession-planning process, 218-230
    - turnover, 208
  - CGQ (Corporate Governance Quotient), 437-439
  - chaebol structure (South Korea), 49
  - chairman of the board, 70, 129-136
  - charter provisions, 375
  - checks and balances system, 1-8
  - Chesapeake Energy, 314
  - China, governance structure, 51-53
  - China National Petroleum Corp. (CNPC), 53
  - CII (Confederation of Indian Industries), 53
  - Cisco Systems, 75
  - Citadel Broadcasting, 315
  - Citigroup, 246
  - civil-code tradition, Germany, 44
  - claims and payments, D&O insurance, 87
  - class action lawsuits, 6
  - classified boards, 76, 375-380
  - Clause 49 (India), 53
  - clawbacks, 245-247
  - CNPC (China National Petroleum Corp.), 53
  - Coca-Cola Company, 112
  - Code of Best Practices* (Cadbury Committee), 10, 40-42
  - codetermination, 34
  - commercial bankers, 147
  - committee fees, 109
  - Committee of Sponsoring Organizations (COSO) framework, 190-192
  - committees
    - board, 72-76
    - independent, 146-147
  - common shares, 55
  - Companies Act 1985, 39
  - Companies Act 2006, 83
  - Company Law of the People's Republic of China, 52

**compensation**

- committee fees, 73, 109
- components of, 240-247
- directors, 108-117
- equity-based, 405-406
- executives, 238
  - benefits and perquisites*, 268-269
  - components of*, 240-247
  - consultants*, 250-252
  - determining level of*, 247-250
  - incentives*, 260-266
  - levels of*, 252-254
  - package structure*, 259
  - pay for performance contracts*, 269-274
  - pay inequity*, 254-259
  - reform efforts*, 274-278
  - risk disclosure*, 267-268
  - shareholder say-on-pay*, 276
  - United States*, 38
- incentives, 365-367
- lead independent directors, 110
- nonexecutive chairmen, 110
- reform, 43

**Compensation Discussion & Analysis (CD&A), 240, 274*****Competitive Strategy*, 172****compliance risk, 189****comply or explain practice, United Kingdom, 42****components of compensation, 240-247****composition, board evaluations, 116****Confederation of Indian Industries (CII), 53****consultants, 250-252****contested elections, 78****context, governance systems, 464-465****contracts, executive compensation, 245-246****control activities (COSO risk management framework), 191****controls, Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 42****conventionally independent directors, 144****corporate control, 361-365****acquisitions, 367-386****corporate governance**

- defined, 8-9
- standards, 10-13

**Corporate Governance Code**

- Germany, 44
- India, 53

**Corporate Governance Quotient (CGQ), 437-439****Corporate Governance Rules (NYSE), 36****The Corporate Library, 12****corporate strategy**

- aspects, 171
- business model development, 175-180
- identification of key performance measures, 180-186
- identification of mission, 170-172
- implementation process, 173-175
- risk management, 186-193

**corporations**

- chaebol structure (South Korea), 49
- Chinese model of governance, 51

**COSO (Committee of Sponsoring Organizations) framework, 190-192****cost, performance measures, 183****country-specific accounting standards, 29****Coviden, 104****credit ratings, 434-437****credit-rating agencies, 434****creditworthiness, 434****Crimson Exploration, 301****CRM (customer resource management), 175****culture**

- influence on governance system, 32-35
- risk, 191

**cumulative pay consideration,****executive compensation reform, 277****cumulative voting procedures, 77-78****customer resource management (CRM), 175****D****D&O (directors' and officers')****insurance**

- board of directors, 86-88
- claims and payments, 87

**Datalink Corporation, 303****decentralization, internal controls, 337-338****defense mechanisms, poison pills, 49****deferred payout provisions, 245-247****defining corporate governance, 8-10****democracy, shareholders, 419****broker nonvotes, 421****majority voting, 420**

proxy access, 422-423  
 proxy voting, 424  
**detecting accounting manipulations, models, 338-341**  
   accrual accounting, 339  
   AGR scores, 339  
   linguistic-based analysis, 340  
**determinants (corporate governance systems), 8**  
**dimension, performance measures, 183**  
**director indemnification, 86-88**  
**directors**  
   advisory, 99  
   busy, 151-154  
   compensation, 108-117  
   disclosure requirements for  
     qualifications, 103-105  
   female, 158-160  
   independent, 142-145  
   lead independent, 136-139  
   mandatory retirement age, 128  
   market for, 93-102  
   observer, 99-101  
   outside, 139-142  
   politically connected, 149  
   recruitment process, 105-107  
   removal of, 117-121  
**Directors' Remuneration Report Regulations, 43**  
**disclosure**  
   10b5-1 plans, 303-304  
   board of directors, 83-84  
   Brazilian board members, 55  
   compensation consultants, 251-252  
   Dodd-Frank Financial Reform Act of 2010, 37  
   executive compensation and risk, 267-268  
   hedging, 310-311  
   pledging shares, 313-314  
   requirements for director qualifications, 103-105  
**discount to fair value, exchange offers, 315**  
**dismissals, 353**  
**Disney case, 85**  
**diverse directors, 101**  
**diversification, 363**  
   board of directors, 157-158  
   executive portfolio, 298-299  
**Dodd-Frank Financial Reform Act of 2010, 37, 79**  
**Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (2010), 12**

**Doyle, David, 308**  
**dual-class stocks, 374, 382-384**  
**dual-class structure, 77**  
**duration, board of directors' terms, 76-77**  
**duties**  
   audit committee, 326-329  
   board of directors, 67-68  
     *business model development, 175-180*  
     *candor, 81*  
     *care, 80*  
     *identification of KPIs, 180-186*  
     *loyalty, 81*  
     *organizational strategy, 170-172*  
     *risk management, 186-198*  
     *strategic guidance of the company, 169*  
     *strategy implementation, 173-175*

## E

**economic value added (EVA), 113**  
**EFAA (European Federation of Accountants and Auditors), 353**  
**elections, board of directors, 77-79**  
**empire building, 365**  
**empirical tests, 16-18**  
**employee representation, board of directors, 149-151**  
**employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs), 150**  
**enforcement actions (SEC), 86**  
**enforcement**  
   regulations, 31-32  
   securities laws, 85-86  
   state corporate law, 84-85  
**Engelhard Corporation versus BASF, 371-372**  
**enterprise resource programs (ERPs), 175**  
**environment**  
   corporate strategy, 171  
   factors influencing governance system, 23-35  
**equal to fair value, exchange offers, 315**  
**equity grants, 294-298**  
**equity ownership (executives), 287**  
   accounting manipulation, 292-293  
   agency costs, 292  
   CEOs, 287-288  
   equity sales and hedging, 298-299  
   firm performance, 288-291

hedging, 306-312  
 insider trading, 300-302  
 manipulation of equity grants, 294-298  
 pledging shares, 312-314  
 repricing/exchange offers, 314-317  
 Rule 10b5-1, 302-306  
 target ownership plans, 291-292  
 equity sales, 298-299  
 equity-based compensation plans, 405-406  
 ERPs (enterprise resource programs), 175  
 errors, financial restatements, 330  
 ESOPs (employee stock ownership plans), 150  
 European Federation of Accountants and Auditors (EFAA), 353  
 EVA (economic value added), 113  
 evaluations  
   board of directors, 115-117  
   designing, 116  
 event identification (COSO risk management framework), 191  
 event studies, 18  
 evidence of self-interested behaviors, 5  
 excessive risk taking, 266  
 exchange offers, equity ownership, 314-317  
 Excite, 100  
 executive directors  
   Brazil, 55  
   Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 41  
 executive sessions, 71, 136  
 executives  
   checks and balances system, 1-8  
   compensation. *See* compensation, executives  
   equity ownership. *See* equity ownership (executives)  
   portfolio diversification, 298-299  
 exercise backdating options, 298  
 expanded constituency, 82  
 expense recognition errors, financial restatements, 331-333  
 expertise, market for directors, 99  
 expressed opinion, external audits, 343  
 external auditors  
   CFO as, 350-352  
   fraud, 344-345  
 external audits, 325-326, 341-343  
   assessment of internal controls, 342  
   audit preparation, 341

  communication with audit committee, 343  
   expressed opinion, 343  
   fraud evaluation, 342  
   review of estimates and disclosures, 341  
 external candidates, CEO succession model, 213  
 external succession (CEOs) versus internal, 214  
 ExxonMobil, 246

## F

factors, governance system influences, 23-24  
   accounting standards, 28-31  
   capital market efficiency, 24-27  
   country's legal tradition, 27-28  
   enforcement of regulations, 31-32  
   societal and cultural values, 32-35  
 families, shareholders, 398-399  
 family-controlled business groups, 25  
 Fannie Mae, 11  
 FASB (Financial Accounting Standards Board), 35, 327  
 FCPA (Foreign Corrupt Practices Act) violations, 7  
 FEE (Fédération des Experts Comptable Européens), 353  
 female directors, 158-160  
 fiduciary duties, board of directors, 80-83  
 Fifth Third Bancorp, Risk and Compliance Committee, 75  
 Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB), 35, 327  
 financial experts, 148, 326  
 financial KPIs, 181  
 financial reporting, 325-326  
   audit committee, 326-330  
   audit quality, 345-354  
   external audits, 325-326, 341-343  
   financial restatements, 330-337  
   models for detecting accounting manipulations, 338-341  
 financial restatements, 330-337  
   Krispy Kreme Doughnuts, 335-336  
   statistics, 5  
 financial risk, 189  
 Financial Services Authority (Japan), 49  
 financial synergies, 363

firm performance  
 relationship to corporate  
 governance, 14-18  
 relationship to equity ownership,  
 288-291  
 focus on functions of governance,  
 461-462  
 Ford, William, Jr., 219  
 Foreign Corrupt Practices Act, 7, 328  
 Form 8-K, 330  
 founders, shareholders, 398-399  
 fraud  
   decentralized organizations, 337-338  
   external auditors, 344-345  
   evaluations, 342  
 freerider problem, 395  
 friendly acquisitions, 362  
 functions of governance, 461-462

## G

G-Index (governance index), 450  
 GAAP (generally accepted accounting  
 principles), 29  
 GAAS (Generally Accepted Auditing  
 Standards), 348  
 GAO (General Accounting Office), 353  
 General Mills, Public Responsibility  
 Committee, 76  
 General Motors, 134  
 Gephardt, Richard, 219  
 Germany, governance structure, 44-46  
 Glass Lewis, 401  
 GMI (GovernanceMetrics  
 International), 441  
 golden parachutes, 228-230  
 good faith (board of directors), 84  
 governance committees, 73  
 governance index (G-Index), 450  
 governance ratings. *See* ratings  
 Governance Risk Indicators (GRiD),  
 439-440  
 GovernanceMetrics International  
 (GMI), 441  
 Greenberg, Hank, 445  
 The Greenbury Report (1995), 39  
 GRiD (Governance Risk Indicators),  
 439-440  
 groupthink, 157  
 guidelines, stock ownership, 245

## H

H-shares, 51  
 The Hampel Report (1998), 39  
 harmonization, accounting standards,  
 29-30  
 HealthSouth Corp., breakdown in  
 corporate governance, 1-3  
 hedge funds, 416-419  
 hedging  
   equity ownership, 298-299, 306-312  
   transactions, 311  
 Heinz Company, 192-193  
 herding behavior, 365-366  
 The Higgs Report (2003), 40  
 high water marks, 417  
 Hill, Bonnie, 138  
 Hockaday, Irvine, Jr., 152  
 Hofstede model of cultural  
 dimensions, 33  
 Hofstede, Geert, 33  
 Home Depot  
   lead independent director, 138  
   severance agreements, 229  
 Hopeful Savior (CEO), 221  
 horse race, CEO succession model,  
 216-217  
 hostile takeovers, 362  
 hot money, 417  
 hubris, 365-366

## I

IAB (International Advisory Board), 47  
 IASB (International Accounting  
 Standards Board), 29, 327  
 IBEW (International Brotherhood of  
 Electrical Workers), 411  
 Icahn, Carl, 386  
 identification of mission,  
 organizational strategy, 170-172  
 IDW (Institut der Wirtschaftsprüfer),  
 353  
 IFRS (International Financial  
 Reporting Standard), 29  
 illegal insider trading, 300  
 implementation process,  
 organizational strategy, 173-175  
 incentives. *See* compensation  
 incorporated states, 380-382  
 indemnification, board of directors,  
 86-88

- independence, board of directors, 69
  - independent chairman, 132-133
  - independent committees, 146-147
  - independent directors, 142-145
  - India, governance structure, 53-55
  - indirect influence of shareholders, 395
  - individual structures, national
    - governance, 35
      - Brazil, 55-56
      - China, 51-53
      - Germany, 44-46
      - India, 53-55
      - Japan, 46-49
      - Russia, 57-59
      - South Korea, 49-51
      - United Kingdom, 38-44
      - United States, 35-38
  - individualism (cultural attribute), 33
  - information and communication
    - (COSO risk management framework), 191
  - information gap, 133, 139
  - inside-outside model, CEO
    - succession model, 217-218
  - insider trading
    - equity ownership, 300-302
      - Rule 10b5-1, 302-305
    - trading window, 301
  - Institut der Wirtschaftsprüfer (IDW), 353
  - institutional funds with a social mission, 414-416
  - institutional shareholders, 393
    - activist investors, 406-410, 413-424
    - blockholders, 395-398
    - founders and families, 398-399
    - proxy advisory firms, 401-404
    - proxy voting, 399-401
    - roles, 393-395
    - shareholder proposal, 407
  - insufficient testing, 460-461
  - insurance, D&O (directors' and officers'), 86-88
  - interlocked boards, 154-155
  - internal control monitoring, 328
  - internal controls
    - assessment of external audits, 342
    - decentralized organizations, 337-338
  - internal environment consideration
    - (COSO risk management framework), 191
  - internal succession (CEOs) versus external, 214
  - International Accounting Board (IAB), 327
  - International Accounting Standards Board (IASB), 29
  - International Accounting Standards Committee, 29
  - International Advisory Board (IAB), 47
  - International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (IBEW), 411
  - International Brotherhood of Teamsters, 411
  - international corporate governance
    - factors influencing system, 23-24
      - accounting standards*, 28-31
      - capital market efficiency*, 24-27
      - country's legal tradition*, 27-28
      - enforcement of regulations*, 31-32
      - societal and cultural values*, 32-35
    - individual structures. *See* individual structures, national governance
  - International Financial Reporting Standard (IFRS), 29
  - interpretation
    - empirical testing, 16-18
    - performance measures, 183
  - Intuit, 100
  - Investment and Finance Committee (Cisco Systems), 75
  - investment bankers, as members of board of directors, 148
  - Investor AB, 25
  - investors
    - accredited, 416
    - active, 394, 406-410, 413-424
    - passive, 394
  - ISS/RiskMetrics, 399-401
- ## J–K
- Japan, governance structure, 46-49
  - Jeffries, Michael, 255
  - keiretsu, 46
  - Kerr, Sir John, 138
  - key performance indicators (KPIs), 180-186
  - Kilts, James, 205
  - King Report (1994), 83
  - King Report II (2001), 83
  - King Report III (2009), 83
  - Knight, Phil, 214

KPIs (key performance indicators), 180-186  
 Krispy Kreme Doughnuts, 335-336  
 Kroger, 249-250  
 Kumarmangalam Birla Committee, 53

## L

labor market for CEOs, 203-206  
   newly appointed CEOs, 211-213  
   pool of talent, 206-207  
   turnover rate, 208-211  
 LBO (leveraged buyout), 362  
 lead independent directors, 136-139  
   compensation, 110  
   Home Depot, 138  
   Royal Dutch Shell, 138  
 lean manufacturing, 184  
 legal duties, board of directors, 79  
   D&O insurance, 86-88  
   director indemnification, 86-88  
   disclosure obligations under securities laws, 83-84  
   enforcement of securities laws, 85-86  
   enforcement of state corporate law, 84-85  
   fiduciary duties, 80-83  
 legal tradition, influence on governance system, 27-28  
 Lehman Brothers, 140  
 levels of compensation, 252-254  
 leveraged buyout (LBO), 362  
 liabilities, board of directors, 67-68  
 Lilly, 267  
 limits on compensation, 277  
 linguistic-based analysis, 340  
 Lockheed Martin, 170  
 long-term incentives, executive compensation, 264-266  
 long-term orientation (cultural attribute), 33

## M

majority voting  
   procedures, 77  
   shareholder democracy, 420  
 management board, 44  
 management entrenchment, 256, 373  
 mandatory retirement age, 128  
 manipulation of accounts  
   equity ownership, 292-293  
   models for detection, 338-341  
 manipulation of equity grants, 294-298  
 Manne, Henry, 362

market for corporate control, 361-365  
   acquisitions, 367  
     *antitakeover protections*, 373-386  
     *value in a takeover*, 370-372  
     *who gets acquired*, 367-368  
 market for directors, 93-95  
   active CEOs, 97-98  
   diverse directors, 101  
   international experience, 98-99  
   professional directors, 102  
   special expertise, 99  
 market for labor (CEOs), 203-206  
   newly appointed CEOs, 211-213  
   pool of talent, 206-207  
   turnover rate, 208-211  
 market standard of performance, 24  
 market-to-book value, 17  
 markets (corporate strategy), 171  
 Marshall, Ric, 443  
 masculinity (cultural attribute), 33  
 material information (SEC filings), 84  
 Maytag, 443  
 McAdam, Lowell, 216  
 McClendon, Aubrey, 314  
 McDATA Corporation, 304  
 McKesson, 246  
 Merck & Co. Research Committee, 75  
 mergers, 363  
   compensation incentives, 367  
   empire building, 365  
   herding behavior, 366  
   hubris, 366  
 Microsoft versus Yahoo!, 385  
 Miller, James, 119  
 Ministry of Justice (Japan), 48  
 misclassification errors, financial restatements, 331-333  
 mission identification, organizational strategy, 170-172  
 monitoring  
   COSO risk management framework, 191  
   internal controls, 328  
 Moog, 267  
 moral salience, 4  
 Mulally, Alan, 219  
 Murthy, N. R. Narayana, 53

## N

NACD (National Association of Corporate Directors), 169, 329  
 named executive officers (NEOs), 254-257



Nardelli, Robert, 138  
 National Association of Corporate Directors (NACD), 169, 329  
 National Stock Exchange of India, 54  
 NEOs (named executive officers), 254-257  
 net present value (NPV), 264  
 New York Stock Exchange (NYSE), 36, 69  
 newly appointed CEOs, 211-213  
 Nike, 214-215  
 Nivel 1 market (Brazil), 56  
 Nivel 2 market (Brazil), 56  
 nominating committees, 73  
 nonexecutive chairmen, 110  
 nonexecutive directors, 139-142  
   Brazil, 55  
   Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 41  
   Lehman Brothers, 140  
 nonfinancial KPIs, 181  
 nonshareholder constituency, 82  
 Northrop Grumman, 262-264  
 Novo Mercado market, 56  
 NPV (net present value), 264  
 NYSE (New York Stock Exchange), 36, 69

## O

objective setting (COSO risk management framework), 191  
 objectivity, performance measures, 183  
 observer directors, 99-101  
 OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development), 67  
 Office of Risk Management (Heinz Company), 192  
 “one-size-fits-all” approach to governance, 14  
 operating metrics, 17  
 operational risk, 189  
 operations, board of directors, 70-76  
 opinion shopping, 353  
 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 67  
 organizational strategy, 169  
   business model development, 175-180  
   identification of key performance measures, 180-186  
   identification of mission, 170-172  
   implementation process, 173-175  
   risk management, 186-193

organizational variables, impact on governance quality, 462-464  
 outgoing CEOs, 107  
 outliers (unpredictable events), 188  
 outside directors, 139-142  
 oversight  
   organizational strategy. *See* organizational strategy  
   risk management, 193-198  
 oversight capacity, board of directors, 68  
 Ovitz, Michael, 69  
 ownership guidelines, 113-115

## P

PA-SB 1310 (Pennsylvania Senate Bill), 381  
 package structure, executive compensation, 259  
 Parker, Mark, 215  
 participants (corporate governance systems), 8  
 Passive Aggressor (CEO), 221  
 passive investors, 394  
 pay for failure, 229  
 pay for performance  
   equity-based compensation, 405  
   executive compensation contracts, 269-274  
 pay inequity  
   average employee, 257-259  
   executive compensation, 254-257  
 PCAOB (Public Company Accounting Oversight Board), 348  
 peer groups, 247  
 Pennsylvania Senate Bill (PA-SB 1310), 381  
 pension funds, 410-413  
 pension-adjusted operating margin, 263  
 Perez, William, 214  
 performance  
   CEO turnover, 208-211  
   impact of acquisitions, 367-372  
   market standards, 24  
   measures, 180-186  
   metrics, 17  
   relationship to equity ownership, 288-291  
   shares, 244  
 performance-vested stock options, 243  
 prerequisites, executive compensation, 245, 268-269

pledging shares, 312-314  
 plurality of votes, 77  
 poison pills, 49, 374-379  
 policies  
   hedging, 310-311  
   pledging shares, 313-314  
 politically connected directors, 149  
 poor pay practice in equity-based compensation, 406  
 portfolio diversification, 298-299  
 Power Blocker (CEO), 221  
 power distance (cultural attribute), 33  
 precision, performance measures, 183  
 predictability, governance ratings, 442-448  
 preferred shares, 55  
 premium stock options, 242  
 premium to fair value, exchange offers, 315  
 prepaid-variable forward (PVF)  
   contracts, 307-308  
 presiding directors, 136  
 Principles of Corporate Governance (OECD), 67  
 principles-based accounting systems, 29-30  
 private equity, 205, 364-365  
 private equity firms, 12  
 private lawsuits, 86  
 private pension funds, 411  
 professional directors, 102  
 protection, antitakeover, 373  
   dual-class stocks, 374, 382-384  
   poison pills, 374-379  
   rank by level of protectiveness, 384-386  
   staggered boards, 375-380  
   state of incorporation, 380-382  
 provisions  
   Dodd-Frank Financial Reform Act of 2010, 37  
   Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002, 37  
 proxy access  
   Dodd-Frank Financial Reform Act of 2010, 37  
   shareholder democracy, 422-423  
 proxy advisory firms, 13, 401-404  
 proxy contests, 363  
 proxy disclosure, 274  
 proxy voting  
   institutional shareholders, 399-401  
   shareholder democracy, 424  
 Public Company Accounting Oversight Board (PCAOB), 348

public pension funds, 410  
 Public Responsibility Committee (General Mills), 76  
 public-traded options, 310  
 PVF (prepaid-variable forward)  
   contracts, 307-308

## Q-R

Q (market-to-book value), 17  
 qualifications, board of directors members, 103-105  
 qualified opinions, 343  
 quality accounting, 327  
 quality audits, 345  
   external auditor as CFO, 350-352  
   impact of Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002, 348-350  
   rotation of auditors, 352-354  
   structure of audit industry, 345-348  
 quality financial reporting, 329-330  
 Qwest, 300, 308  
 ratcheting effect, executive compensation, 248  
 ratings, 433  
   academic researchers, 448-453  
   credit ratings, 434-437  
   GMI (GovernanceMetrics International), 441  
   RiskMetrics/ISS, 437-440  
   TCL (The Corporate Library), 441-442  
   testing predictability, 442-448  
   third-party ratings, 433-434  
   viability, 453-454  
 recruitment process, directors, 105-107  
 Refco, 11  
 reform  
   chaebol structure, 50  
   compensation, 43  
   executive compensation, 274-278  
   governance, 39-40  
   Indian governance standards, 53  
 Regulation N-SX (SEC), 401  
 Regulation S-K (SEC), 103  
 regulations, influence on governance system, 31-32  
 removal of directors, 117-121  
   board of directors, 79  
   resignations, 118-120  
 reports, Cadbury Committee Code of Best Practices, 42

repricing offers, equity ownership, 314-317

reputational risk, 189

Research Committee (Merck & Co.), 75

research evidence, factors influencing governance systems

- accounting standards, 28-31
- capital market efficiency, 24-27
- country's legal tradition, 27-28
- enforcement of regulations, 31-32
- societal and cultural values, 32-35

resignations, directors, 118-120

resources (corporate strategy), 171

responsibilities

- audit committee, 326-329
- board of directors. *See* board of directors, responsibilities

restatements, financial, 330, 334-337

restricted stock, 244

restriction of payouts, compensation reform, 278

retention approaches, 291

revenue recognition errors, financial restatements, 331-333

Revised Combined Code of Best Practices, 40-42

right of codetermination, 149

risk, 188

- assessment (COSO risk management framework), 191
- culture, 191
- disclosure on executive compensation, 267-268
- management, 186
- COSO framework*, 190-192
- Heinz Company*, 192-193
- oversight by board of directors*, 193-198
- risk*, 188
- succession*, 225-226
- types of risk*, 189-190
- response (COSO risk management framework), 191

Risk and Compliance Committee (Fifth Third Bancorp), 75

Risk Council (Heinz Company), 192

Risk Metrics/Institutional Shareholder Services (ISS), 12, 399

- burn rate in equity-based compensation, 405
- equity-based compensation plans, 405-406

- pay for performance in equity-based compensation, 405
- poor pay practice in equity-based compensation, 406
- ratings, 437-440
- shareholder value transfer in equity-based compensation, 405

roles

- corporation in society, 33
- shareholders, 393-395

rotation of auditors, 352-354

Rowe, John W., 447

Royal Dutch Shell, 138

Rule 10b5-1, 302-306

rules-based accounting systems, 29

Russia, governance structure, 57-59

## S

Safeway, 249-250

salaries, executive compensation, 241

Sanderson, Robert (Fair Isaac), 118

São Paulo Stock Exchange (Bovespa), 55

Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 (SOX), 11, 37, 70, 128, 146, 348-350

say-on-pay

- compensation reform, 43
- Dodd-Frank Financial Reform Act of 2010, 37
- shareholders, 274-276

scheduled option grants, 295

Schumer, Sen. Charles, 11

scope (corporate strategy), 171

Scrusby, Richard, 1

SEBI (Securities and Exchange Board of India), 53

SEC (Securities and Exchange Commission), 35

- Regulation N-SX, 401
- Regulation S-K, 103

Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI), 53

securities laws

- disclosure, 83-84
- legal enforcement, 85-86

securities regulation, influence on governance system, 31-32

Seidenberg, Ivan, 216

self-interested executives, 4-8

sensitivity, performance measures, 183

SERPs (supplemental executive retirement plans), 239

**Service Employees International Union, 411**

severance agreements, 228-230

**Shareholder's Bill of Rights, 11**

shareholder-centric view, 33

shareholders, 393

activist investors, 406-410, 413-424

blockholders, 395-398

founders and families, 398-399

management decisions based on

accounting statements, 28

proxy advisory firms, 401-404

proxy voting, 399-401

roles, 393-395

say-on-pay, 274-276

shares

Chinese companies, 51

executive compensation, 244

pledging, 312-314

short sales, 310

short-term incentives, executive

compensation, 260-262

short-term trading, 310

Side A (D&O insurance policies), 87

Side B (D&O insurance policies), 87

Side C (D&O insurance policies), 87

Smith, Weston L., 2

socially independent directors, 144

socially responsible investors, 414-416

societal values, influence on

governance system, 32-35

South Korea, governance structure,

49-51

SOX (Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002),

11, 37, 70, 128, 146, 348-350

specialized board committees, 74-76

spring-loading options, 298

SPX Corporation, 113

staggered boards, 76, 375-380

standardization of governance

systems, 464-465

standards

accounting, 28-31

audit committee responsibilities, 328

corporate governance, 12-13

governance reform, 39-40

independent directors, 143-145

standing orders, 311

state corporate law, 84-85

state laws, 381

state of incorporation, 380-382

statistical data analysis, 175-177

statistics

agency problems, 5-8

bankruptcy, 5

class action lawsuits, 6

FCPA violations, 7

financial restatement, 5

massaged earnings, 8

stock option backdating, 7

**stock market, acquisitions**

assessment, 367

value in a takeover, 370-372

who gets acquired, 367-368

**stock options**

backdating, 7, 295-297

executive compensation, 241

performance-vested, 243

premium, 242

**stock ownership, 245**

**stock price metrics, 17**

*Strategic Management, 172*

**strategy development, 169**

business model development, 175-180

identification of key performance

measures, 180-186

identification of mission, 170-172

implementation process, 173-175

risk management, 186-193

**structure**

audit industry, 345-348

board of directors. *See* board of

directors, structure

corporate governance system, 9

executive compensation

packages, 259

individual international systems. *See*

individual structures, national

governance

**succession models (CEOs), 213**

external candidates, 213

horse race, 216-217

inside-outsider model, 217-218

promotion of candidate to president

or COO, 215-216

**succession process (CEOs), 218**

evaluation of boards, 223-225, 230

external searches, 226-228

outgoing CEO behaviors, 220-222

risk management, 225-226

**supermajority provisions, 379**

**supervisory boards, 44**

**supplemental executive retirement**

plans (SERPs), 239

**supply and demand, 205**

**T**

takeovers, hostile, 362  
 talent pool (CEOs), 206-207  
 target (company subject to offer), 362  
 target awards, 260  
 target ownership plans, 291-292  
 TARP (Troubled Asset Relief Program), 132  
 Tata Group, 54  
 tax accounting errors, financial restatements, 331-333  
 Taylor, Alexander, III, 308  
 TCL (The Corporate Library), 441-442  
 tender offers, 363  
 terms, boards of directors, 76-77  
 testing practices, 460-461  
 testing predictability, governance ratings, 442-448  
 The Corporate Library (TCL), 441-442  
 third-party ratings, 433-434  
 Thornton, John, 219  
 tin parachutes, 386  
 Tobin's Q, 17  
 tokenism, 159  
*Too Big to Fail*, 197  
 total quality management (TQM), 184  
 total shareholder returns (TSR), 173  
 tournament theory, 256  
 Toyota, 47  
 TQM (total quality management), 184  
 trading by insiders, 300-302  
 trading window, 301  
 transparency standards, 328  
 Troubled Asset Relief Program (TARP), 132  
 TSR (total shareholder returns), 173  
 The Turnbull Report (1999), 40  
 turnover rates (CEOs), 208-211  
 two-tiered board structure, 44

**U-V**

UAW (United Auto Workers), 411  
 UBS, 247  
 uncertainty avoidance (cultural attribute), 33  
 United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, 411  
 United Kingdom, governance structure, 38-44  
 United States, governance structure, 35-38  
 unpredictable events (black swans), 188  
 unqualified opinions, 343  
 unscheduled option grants, 295  
 values (societal and cultural), influence on governance system, 32-35  
 values statements, 170  
 verifiability, performance measures, 183  
 viability, governance ratings, 453-454

**W-Z**

Wallenberg family, 25  
 warranted equity value (WEV), 263  
 wedge, 382  
 WEV (warranted equity value), 263  
 Williamson, Oliver, 16  
 Write Express, 251  
 written consents, board of directors, 70  
 Yahoo! versus Microsoft, 385  
 Yang, Jerry, 386  
 Yukos to Gazprom, 58  
 zero-cost collars, 307-308