

**THE IMPACT OF MANAGERIAL ABILITY ON CORPORATE
FINANCIAL DECISION-MAKING: EVIDENCE FROM INDIA**

A THESIS
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
FELLOW PROGRAMME IN MANAGEMENT
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT
INDORE

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May 26, 2023

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to determine whether managerial ability is a determinant of corporate financial decision-making. Prior research demonstrates that managerial ability, or skill, has a bearing on corporate strategy and performance (Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Bertrand and Schoar, 2003).

To analyse the impact of managerial ability on firm financial policies, the first step is to define and estimate managerial ability for a large sample of firms. The first essay, titled *Measurement of Managerial Ability for Indian Firms*, focuses on estimating a managerial ability score for a wide sample of Indian firms (both publicly listed and private firms), from the financial year 2000 to 2020. Historically, widely accepted proxies of managerial ability included managerial remuneration – such as pay premiums (Carter et al., 2011) and stock options (Arya and Mittendorf, 2005); and performance based evaluations of talent – such as Return on Assets (Rajgopal et al., 2006) and stock market performance (Fee and Hadlock, 2003). Later, Demerjian et al. (2012) developed a managerial ability measure employing firm-level accounting data using a two-step procedure. The first step involves calculating firm efficiency using Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA), and the second step involves eliminating the impact of contextual firm-specific variables that may have an effect on efficiency, in order to determine the managerial contribution to firm efficiency or estimates of managerial ability.

Following Demerjian et al. (2012), this essay develops a measure of managerial ability for Indian firms. Demerjian et al. (2012) use the Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) model (Charnes et al., 1978) to estimate firm efficiency in the first step. This model has limitations because it is unable to account for the depth of inefficiency, as it fails to take input excesses and output shortfalls, or slacks, into consideration (Tone, 2001). This study uses the Slacks Based Method (SBM) proposed by Tone (2001) as the DEA model of choice. The SBM can provide a scalar measure of efficiency that is able to incorporate slacks, maximize the virtual

profit, and incorporate Variable Returns to Scale (VRS) orientation. In the second stage, the study employs the Fractional Regression Model (FRM) suggested by Ramalho et al. (2010) in addition to the Tobit regression employed by Demerjian et al. (2012), in order to generate a more methodologically appropriate assessment. The study additionally runs the second stage regression using an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) to check the robustness of the results. The essay contributes to the literature in the following two ways. First, the essay computes a more methodologically accurate measurement of managerial ability by substituting the CCR model with the SBM model as the choice of the DEA model. Second, the study adapts the managerial ability measure to the Indian market by employing contextual variables unique to the Indian context, and provides an opportunity to study the impact of managerial ability on a range of firm-level outcomes.

The second essay, titled *The Impact of Managerial Ability on Firm Investment Decision Making*, examines the impact of managerial ability on the investment levels of Indian firms, and the implications of the same for firm performance. The essay uses two competing hypotheses to identify the association between managerial ability, firm investments and firm performance. The “efficient contracting hypothesis” argues that managers evaluate long-term objectives of the organization and make efficient decisions that are consistent with the maximization of shareholder wealth. According to this view, high-ability managers make higher investments due to greater availability of investment opportunities (Lee et al., 2018), and greater ability to raise funds even in crisis periods (Andreou et al., 2017). The higher investments by high-ability managers lead to the generation of shareholder wealth, as they are able to make informed decisions (Demerjian et al., 2013), and have a greater understanding of the environment, resulting in successful outcomes (Chemmanur et al., 2009).

The alternative hypothesis, the “rent extraction hypothesis”, suggests that the manager’s primary objective is to extract rent by prioritizing their own welfare, which may result in a loss in the value of the firm. According to this perspective, higher levels of firm investment may be the outcome of managerial opportunism (Jensen, 1986) on the part of low-ability managers (Custodio and Metzger, 2014). The high investments made by low-ability managers result in a decline in shareholder wealth, which may be attributable to their propensity to make reckless decisions (Jacobsen, 2014) and engage in herding behavior (Scharfstein and Stein, 1990).

The study finds that high-ability managers invest more than low-ability managers, and investment spending is one of the channels through which high-ability managers increase the value of the firm. This verifies the conjecture of the “efficient contracting hypothesis” that high-ability managers boost shareholder value through higher investments than low-ability managers.

The third essay, *Managerial Ability and Cash Holding Motives of Indian Firms*, aims to comprehend the relationship between managerial ability and the levels of cash holdings in Indian firms. Cash on hand acts as a safety net for firms, by enhancing corporate preparedness in crisis situations (Chen et al., 2018). Further, cash-rich firms have greater growth potential, are better able to handle unforeseen shocks, have less investment sensitivity to the availability of external capital, and have a lower failure rate (Harford, 1999). The cash policy of firms is in the hands of managers (Liu and Mauer, 2011), and managerial ability may be a significant factor impacting the cash holding levels among Indian firms. In addition, this study also seeks to determine whether managerial ability influences the reasons why organisations retain larger cash reserves. The essay focuses on the two most important motives of cash holdings: the transaction motive, which asserts that firms incur transaction costs when converting non-cash

assets into cash (Baumol, 1952; Opler et al., 1999); and the precautionary motive, which suggests that cash is maintained as a hedge against adverse external shocks, so that investment is not affected by these shocks (Keynes, 1936; Almeida et al., 2004).

The study demonstrates that high-ability managers hold greater cash reserves, and there is a positive correlation between managerial ability and excess cash levels. The results also indicate that high-ability managers maintain more cash for the precautionary motive, as opposed to the transaction motive. In addition, this essay confirms the findings of past research that indicates a positive association between managerial ability and the value of excess cash holdings (Gan and Park, 2017). Further, the market value of excess cash held by high-ability managers is greater in non-Business Group (BG) firms, characterised by high transaction costs of cash conversion due to absence of network effects (Khanna and Palepu, 2005), indicating that the impact of managerial ability on the market value of cash is in firms which hold higher cash to avoid transaction costs. Similarly, the excess cash holdings by high-ability managers are valued higher in the period following the Global Financial Crisis (GFC), which is associated with an increase in risk, suggesting that the association between managerial ability and the market value of excess cash is stronger when cash is held for precautionary motives.

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Appendix 1.A Variable Definitions

The table below includes a definition of all the variables included in Essay 1.

Variable	Description
Output for Firm Efficiency – DEA Analysis	
Sales	Net Sales
Inputs for Firm Efficiency – DEA Analysis	
COGS	Costs related to raw materials, labor, packaging and other operational costs
SG&A expenses	Selling, general and administration expenses – including advertising expenses
PPE, net	Net Property, plant and equipment reported on balance sheet
Lease rent	Operating lease charges paid during the year
R&D	Capitalized Research & Development (R&D) expenses using a five-year capitalization period as: $\sum_{t=-4}^0 (1 + 0.2t) \times RDexp$
Goodwill	Addition of goodwill (from acquisitions) during the year
Other intangibles	Other intangibles including patents, copyrights – addition during the year
Firm Specific Variables Affecting Firm Efficiency	
Firm Size	Measured using log of Total Assets
Market Share	Sales by firm within industry (2-digit NIC code)
Free Cash Flow indicator	Coded as 1 when firm has non-negative FCF; 0 otherwise FCF = Earnings before depreciation–change in working capital–capital expenditures
Firm stage in life cycle	Measured by the ratio of Retained Earnings to Total Assets, according to the definition of DeAngelo et al. (2006)
Foreign Operations	Indicator coded as 1 if firm reports adjustment due to forex gain/loss; 0 otherwise
Business Segment Concentration	Sum of concentration ratio summed across segments
BG	Indicator coded as 1 if firm affiliated to Business Group; 0 otherwise
PSU	Indicator coded as 1 if firm is a Public Sector Undertaking; 0 otherwise

Appendix 1.B: List of Industry Classifications & Merged and Dropped Industries

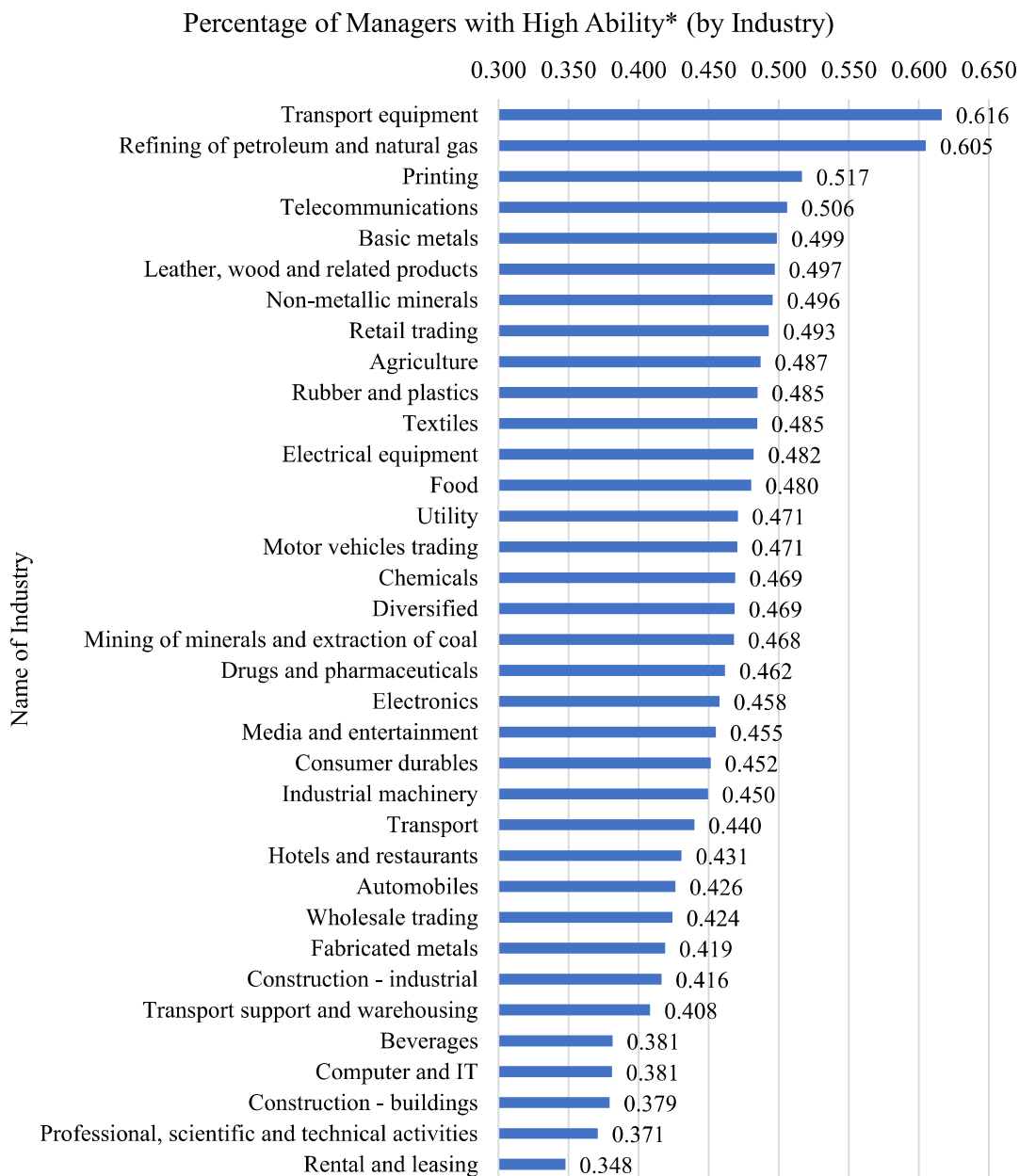
The table below presents an exhaustive list of the industry classifications in the dataset, and provides detailed names of the industry codes that have been merged or dropped. The original dataset consisted of 69 2-digit National Industrial Classification (NIC) codes, out of which 17 were dropped. Of the remaining 52, industries with similar nature were merged, and this may be observed from the table given below.

NIC Code	Original Industry Name	New Industry Name
1	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	Agriculture
2	Forestry and logging	
5	Mining and quarrying	Mining of minerals and extraction of coal
6	Extraction of crude petroleum and natural gas	
7	Mining of coal	
8	Other mining and quarrying	
10	Manufacture of food products	Food
11	Manufacture of beverages	Beverages
12	Tobacco	<i>(Dropped)</i>
13	Manufacture of textiles	Textiles
14	Manufacture of wearing apparel	
15	Manufacture of leather and related products	Leather, wood and related products
16	Manufacture of wood and products of wood and cork, except furniture; manufacture of articles of straw and plaiting materials	
17	Manufacture of paper and paper products	Paper and printing
18	Printing and reproduction of recorded media	
19	Refining of petroleum and natural gas	Refining of petroleum and natural gas
20	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	Chemicals
21	Manufacture of pharmaceuticals, medicinal chemical and botanical products	Drugs and pharmaceuticals
22	Manufacture of rubber and plastics products	Rubber and plastics
23	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	Non-metallic minerals

NIC Code	Original Industry Name	New Industry Name
24	Manufacture of basic metals	Basic metals
25	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	Fabricated metals
26	Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	Electronics
27	Manufacture of electrical equipment	Electrical equipment
28	Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	Industrial machinery
29	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	Automobiles
30	Manufacture of other transport equipment	Transport equipment
31	Manufacture of furniture	Consumer Durables
32	Other manufacturing	
34	Diversified	Diversified
35	Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Condition Supply	Utility
36	Water collection , treatment and supply	
37	Sewerage	
38	Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities materials recovery	
41	Construction of buildings	Construction - buildings
42	Civil engineering	Construction - industrial
43	Specialized construction activities	
45	Motor vehicles trading	Motor vehicles trading
46	Wholesale trading	Wholesale trading
47	Retail trading	Retail trading
49	Land transport and transport via pipelines	Transport
50	Water transport	
51	Air Transport	
52	Warehousing and support activities for transportation	Transport support and warehousing
53	Postal and courier activities	
55	Accommodation	Hotels and restaurants
56	Food and beverage service activities	

NIC Code	Original Industry Name	New Industry Name
58	Publishing activities	Media and entertainment
59	Motion picture, video and television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities	
61	Telecommunications	Telecommunications
62	Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	Computer and IT
63	Information service activities	
68	Real estate activities	Professional, scientific and technical activities
69	Legal and accounting activities	
70	Activities of head offices; management consultancy activities	
71	Architecture and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis	
72	Scientific research and development	
73	Advertising and market research	
74	Other professional, scientific and technical activities	
75	Veterinary activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
77	Rental and leasing activities	Rental and leasing
79	Travel agency, tour operator and other reservation service activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
80	Security and investigation activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
82	Office administrative, office support and other business support activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
84	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	<i>(Dropped)</i>
85	Education	<i>(Dropped)</i>
86	Human health activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
93	Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	<i>(Dropped)</i>
95	Repair of computers and personal and household goods	<i>(Dropped)</i>

Appendix 1.C: Industry-Wise Distribution of High-Ability Managers⁴



*Managers in a particular firm-year are considered high-ability if the managerial ability score is greater than zero

⁴ The industries are sorted from high to low with respect to the percentage of high-ability managers in the industry. It may be observed that the percentage of high-ability managers is higher in industries which are more efficient. This implies that there is a high correlation between managerial ability and firm efficiency, which is a logical culmination of the view that high-ability managers culminate into better efficiency levels for firms.

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Appendix 2.A: Variable Definitions

This table presents the definitions of the key variables used in Essay 2.

Variable	Description
Dependent Variable for Main Analysis	
Investment	Following the definition of <i>Blaylock (2016)</i> $Investment_t = (Capital\ Expenditure_t + Mergers\ and\ Acquisition_t + Research\ \&\ Development\ Expenditure_t - Cash\ Flow\ from\ Sale\ of\ PPE_t - Depreciation_t) / Total\ Asset_{t-1}$.
Independent Variable for Main Analysis	
MA Score	As calculated using the two-step estimation process following Demerjian (2012)
Control Variables	
MTB	Market Value of Equity _t /Book Value of Equity _t
Cash	Cash and cash equivalents _t /Total Asset _{t-1}
ROA	Net Profit _t /Total Asset _{t-1}
Leverage	Long-term Debt _t /Total Asset _{t-1}
Age	Firm Age, measured from the year of incorporation
Lag TA	Log of Total Assets, lagged by one year
Other Variables of Interest	
Tobin's Q	Market Value of Firm/Book Value of Firm
Business Group	Measured as an Indicator Variable that takes value =1 if the firm belongs is affiliated to a Business Group
EPU	Borrowed from the global EPU calculated by Davis (2016) based on Baker et al. (2016)

Appendix 2.B: Hausman Test to Check for Fixed Effects vis-à-vis Random Effects

This table presents the coefficients of the Hausman Test which is used to identify whether firm-specific heterogeneity is associated with the other independent variable. The null hypothesis states that the unique errors of the model are not correlated with the other regressors, which is consistent with a random effects model.

	(b)	(B)	(b-B)	sqrt(diag(V_b))
Investment	fixed	random	Difference	S.E.
MA Score	0.053	0.055	-0.003	0.002
MTBt-1	0.004	0.004	-0.001	0.000
ROAt-1	0.257	0.280	-0.023	0.003
Casht-1	0.141	0.096	0.045	0.006
Levt-1	0.001	0.001	-0.001	0.000
Aget-1	-0.001	0.000	-0.002	0.001
Log TAt-1	-0.036	0.004	-0.041	0.002
Investt-2	0.157	0.276	-0.119	0.002
b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtreg				
B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtreg				
Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic				
$\chi^2(26) = (b-B)'[(V_b - V_B)^{-1}](b-B)$				
= 6533.72				
Prob>chi2 = 0.0000				

Appendix 2.C: Robustness Test: To Determine if the Relationship Between Managerial Ability and Firm Investment Holds even after controlling for Macroeconomic Factors

The table below provides the robustness analysis of the regression analysis of the impact of managerial ability on firm investment decision making. The models below include the macroeconomic factors that may impact the investment levels of the firms. The models include various macroeconomic variables. Inflation is the annual Consumer Price Index (CPI), the GDP is the annual growth rate of GDP, the GFCF is the percentage of GDP spent by the government on investment activities, and the Term Spread is the difference between the yield of the 10 year government bonds and the 1 year government bonds. Investment is the dependent variable investment which is measured following the definition of Blaylock (2016) as $Investment_t = (Capital\ Expenditure_t + Mergers\ and\ Acquisition_t + Research\ \&\ Development\ Expenditure_t - Cash\ Flow\ from\ Sale\ of\ PPE_t - Depreciation_t) / Total\ Asset_{t-1}$. The independent variable is MA Score which is calculated using the two-step estimation process building along the lines of Demerjian et al. (2012). MTB is the market value of equity to the book value of equity. CASH is the cash and cash equivalents, scaled by Total Assets. ROA is the Return on Assets of the Firm, LEV is the leverage ratio, Age is the age of the firm calculated from the year of incorporation. Log TA is the log of total assets and represents the size of the firm. All the variables are winsorized at 1% levels. The table presents the coefficients of the variables from the regression analyses, and the standard error are included in the parentheses. The models control for heteroskedasticity by using robust standard errors. *, ** and *** indicate statistical significance at 99%, 95% and 90% respectively.

Model Number	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Dependent Variable	Investment	Investment	Investment	Investment	Investment
MA Score	0.0347*** (0.00648)	0.0349*** (0.00649)	0.0359*** (0.00645)	0.0361*** (0.00648)	0.0356*** (0.00646)
MTB	0.00519*** (0.000672)	0.00491*** (0.000668)	0.00472*** (0.000660)	0.00505*** (0.000670)	0.00449*** (0.000660)
CASH	0.0990*** (0.0199)	0.107*** (0.0199)	0.110*** (0.0198)	0.105*** (0.0202)	0.118*** (0.0200)
ROA	0.298*** (0.0161)	0.304*** (0.0161)	0.281*** (0.0159)	0.303*** (0.0161)	0.281*** (0.0159)
LEV	-0.0876*** (0.0102)	-0.0825*** (0.0102)	-0.0804*** (0.0101)	-0.0825*** (0.0106)	-0.0764*** (0.0104)

Model Number	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Dependent Variable	Investment	Investment	Investment	Investment	Investment
Age	0.00169***	0.00120***	0.00212***	0.00156***	0.00184***
	(0.000341)	(0.000339)	(0.000339)	(0.000337)	(0.000335)
Size	-0.0297***	-0.0263***	-0.0292***	-0.0272***	-0.0274***
	(0.00277)	(0.00275)	(0.00276)	(0.00276)	(0.00275)
Inflation (CPI)	0.00326***				-0.00171***
	(0.000447)				(0.000561)
GDP (% Annual)		0.00569***			0.00487***
		(0.000466)			(0.000459)
GFCF (% of GDP)			0.00641***		0.00733***
			(0.000469)		(0.000547)
Term Spread				0.00413***	-0.00110
				(0.00136)	(0.00145)
Constant	0.210***	0.184***	0.0162	0.213***	-0.0368
	(0.0175)	(0.0176)	(0.0222)	(0.0175)	(0.0225)
Firm Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year Fixed Effects	No	No	No	No	No
Observations	42,288	42,288	42,288	42,288	42,288
Adj. R-squared	0.079	0.079	0.079	0.079	0.079

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Appendix 3.A: Variable Definitions

This appendix defines the variables used in this study. The variables are clubbed into heads to facilitate easy identification of the models in which the variables have been used.

Variable	Measurement
Cash/TA	Cash (including bank deposits) and Cash Equivalents scaled by Total Assets
XCash/TA	Excess cash calculated by methodology used in Opler et al., (1999), and modified by Bates et al. (2009)
MA Score	Managerial Ability, calculated by building on the methodology of Demerjian et al. (2012), in Essay 1.
	Determinants of cash balances
MTB	Market Value of Equity, scaled by Book Value of Equity
CF/TA	Operating Income (EBITDA) - Interest, Tax and Dividends, scaled by Total Assets
NWC/TA	Non-cash working capital = Current Assets - Current Liabilities, scaled by Total Assets
Capex/TA	Capital expenditure, scaled by Total Assets
Lev	Long Term Debt, scaled by Total Assets
R&D/TA	Research and Development Expenses, scaled by Total Assets
DIV/TA	Dividend scaled by Total Assets
Sales Gr	Growth in Sales from year t-1 to t, however, lagged at 2 years
	<i>Excess cash is the residual from regression of cash holdings on determinants of cash holdings, using fixed effects regression and controlling for time fixed effects as well.</i>
Market Value	Market Value of Firm (Equity+ Debt-long term and short term)/Total Assets
	Transaction Motive
Firm Size	Natural Logarithm of Total Assets of Firm
BG	Dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if firm is affiliated to a BG; 0 otherwise
	Precautionary Motive

Variable	Measurement
CFO_SD	Standard Deviation of the Operating Cash Flows, scaled by Total Assets, calculated using a rolling window of 3 years following Han and Qiu (2007). It is a measure of volatility of cash flows
EPU	Economic Policy Uncertainty, downloaded from www.policyuncertainty.com
	Market Value Model
EBIT/TA	Earnings Before Interest and Taxes, scaled by Total Assets
R&D/TA	Research and Development Expenses, scaled by Total Assets;
Int/TA	Interest Expenses, scaled by Total Assets
DIV/TA	Dividend Expenses, scaled by Total Assets
dE_{t-2}	Percentage change in EBIT/TA from t-2 to t
dE_{t+2}	Percentage change in EBIT/TA from t to t+2
dA_{t-2}	Percentage change in Total Assets from t-2 to t
dA_{t+2}	Percentage change in Total Assets from t to t+2
dR_{t-2}	Percentage change in R&D/TA from t-2 to t
dR_{t+2}	Percentage change in R&D/TA from t to t+2
dI_{t-2}	Percentage change in Int/TA from t-2 to t
dI_{t+2}	Percentage change in Int/TA from t to t+2
dD_{t-2}	Percentage change in DIV/TA from t-2 to t
dD_{t+2}	Percentage change in DIV/TA from t to t+2
dV_{t+2}	Percentage change in MV/TA from t to t+2

Appendix 3.B: Estimation of Excess Cash

This table presents the average of the coefficients from the industry-wise estimations of the model used to compute excess cash. Excess cash is calculated as the deviation from the normal cash needed by the firms to continue operations. It is calculated using the modified methodology of Opler et al. (1999) as the residual from the 2SLS estimation $\frac{Cash_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \frac{Cash\ Flow_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_2 * \frac{NWC_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_3 * \frac{Capex_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_4 * Lev_{i,t} + \beta_5 * \frac{R\&D_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_6 * \frac{DIV_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_7 * \widehat{MTB}_{i,t} + YFE + FFE + e_{i,t}$, where $\widehat{MTB}_{i,t}$ is the predicted Market to Book ratio using second lag of the sales growth as the instrumental variable. The firm fixed effects component is also included in the excess cash following the literature (Dittmar and Mahrt-Smith, 2007; Bates et al., 2009). The instrumental variable – sales growth – is positively and significantly associated with the Market-to-Book ratio. The table provides the average coefficients of the industry-wise estimates. The models are performed using the FFE regressions to control for unobserved firm-level heterogeneity. Column (1) presents the results of the instrumental variable where sales growth is used as an instrument to predict the MTB ratio, and the predicted value of the MTB is used as an independent variable in the second step, and the results are presented in Column (2). The table also presents the average coefficients of the variables from the regression analyses, and the average of the standard errors is included in the parentheses. The models control for heteroskedasticity by using robust standard errors. *, ** and *** indicate statistical significance at 99%, 95% and 90% respectively.

Model Number	(1)	(2)
Regression Method	FFE	FFE
Dependent Variables	MTB _{i,t}	Cash/TA _{i,t}
$\widehat{MTB}_{i,t}$		0.0006
		(0.0043)
CF/TA _{i,t}	1.2064***	0.0505***
	(0.1520)	(0.0119)
NWC/TA _{i,t}	0.1701**	-0.0151
	(0.0705)	(0.0073)
Capex/TA _{i,t}	0.3608***	0.0029
	(0.0936)	(0.0055)
Lev/TA _{i,t}	0.5631***	-0.0654
	(0.198)	(0.0172)
R&D/TA _{i,t}	10.2312	-0.479

Model Number	(1)	(2)
Regression Method	FFE	FFE
Dependent Variables	MTB_{i,t}	Cash/TA_{i,t}
	(14.6292)	(0.6883)
DIV/TA_{i,t}	15.4939***	0.3244***
	(1.465)	(0.0495)
Sales Gr_{i,t-2}	0.0222*	
	(0.0115)	
Cons	0.1299***	-0.0035
	(0.0511)	(0.0021)
Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes
Firm Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes
Average Adj. R-squared	0.301	0.247

Appendix 3.C Hausman Test to test for the use of Random Effects Model vs. Fixed Effects Model

This table presents the coefficients of the Hausman Test which is used to identify whether firm-specific heterogeneity is associated with the other independent variable. The null hypothesis states that the unique errors of the model are not correlated with the other regressors, which is consistent with a random effects model. The Hausman test rejects presented below rejects the null hypothesis, and suggests using the fixed effects model.

	(b)	(B)	(b-B)	sqrt(diag(V_b))
	fixed	random	Difference	S.E.
MA Score	0.0087	0.0088	0.0000	0.0005
CF/TA	0.0422	0.0449	-0.0026	0.0010
NWC/TA	-0.0100	-0.0109	0.0009	0.0005
Capex/TA	0.0000	-0.0011	0.0010	0.0008
Lev/TA	-0.0581	-0.0576	-0.0004	0.0010
R&D/TA	-0.0167	-0.0306	0.0139	0.0483
DIV/TA	0.3341	0.4109	-0.0768	0.0104
b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtreg				
B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtreg				
Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic				
$\chi^2(24) = (b-B)'[(V_b - V_B)^{-1}](b-B)$				
= 107.35				
Prob>chi2 = 0.0000				

Appendix 3.D: Sensitivity Analysis of the Regression Analysis of Impact of Managerial Ability on the Market Value of Excess Cash with respect to Market Efficiency

The table below conducts a sensitivity analysis of the regression analysis of the impact of managerial ability on the market value of excess cash, while considering variations in the market efficiency assumed. Fama and French (1998) assumed the market to be efficient for 2 years, which is the baseline case presented in Table 3.10. This table provides a sensitivity analysis considering market efficiency for 1 year and 3 years. MA Score is the managerial ability score calculated using the two-step estimation process by building on Demerjian et al. (2016). XCash/TA is the excess cash and is calculated as the deviation from the normal cash needed by the firms to continue operations. It is calculated using the modified methodology of Opler et al. (1999) as the residual from the 2SLS estimation $\frac{Cash_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \frac{Cash\ Flow_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_2 * \frac{NWC_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_3 * \frac{Capex_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_4 * Lev_{i,t} + \beta_5 * \frac{R\&D_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_6 * \frac{DIV_{i,t}}{TA_{i,t}} + \beta_7 * \widehat{MTB}_{i,t} + Year\ Fixed\ Effects + Firm\ Fixed\ Effects + e_{i,t}$, where $\widehat{MTB}_{i,t}$ is the predicted Market to Book ratio using second lag of the sales growth as the instrumental variable. The firm fixed effects component is also included in the excess cash following the literature (Dittmar and Mahrt-Smith, 2007; Bates et al., 2009). The remaining variables are the key financial variables that impact market value of the firm and have been derived from Fama and French (1998). EBIT/TA is the Earnings Before Interest and Taxes, scaled by Total Assets; R&D/TA is the Research and Development Expenses, scaled by Total Assets; Int/TA is the Interest Expenses, scaled by Total Assets; DIV/TA is the Dividend Expenses, scaled by Total Assets. The model also includes past and future change variables, due to the assumption of market efficiency. The dE_{t-1} is the percentage change in EBIT/TA from t-1 to t, while dE_{t+1} is the percentage change in EBIT/TA from t to t+1. The dA_{t-1} is the percentage change in Total Assets from t-1 to t, while dA_{t+1} is the percentage change in Total Assets from t to t+1. The dR_{t-1} is the percentage change in R&D/TA from t-1 to t, while dR_{t+1} is the percentage change in R&D/TA from t to t+1. The dI_{t-1} is the percentage change in Int/TA from t-1 to t, while dI_{t+1} is the percentage change in Int/TA from t to t+1. The dD_{t-1} is the percentage change in DIV/TA from t-1 to t, while dD_{t+1} is the percentage change in DIV/TA from t to t+1. Finally, dV_{t+1} is the percentage change in MV/TA from t to t+1. Similarly, for 3 years as the period of analysis, the variables are adjusted so that the changes are measured from t-3 to t and t to t+3. The table presents the coefficients of the variables from the regression analyses, and the standard error are included in the parentheses. The models control for heteroskedasticity by using robust standard errors. *, ** and *** indicate statistical significance at 99%, 95% and 90% respectively.

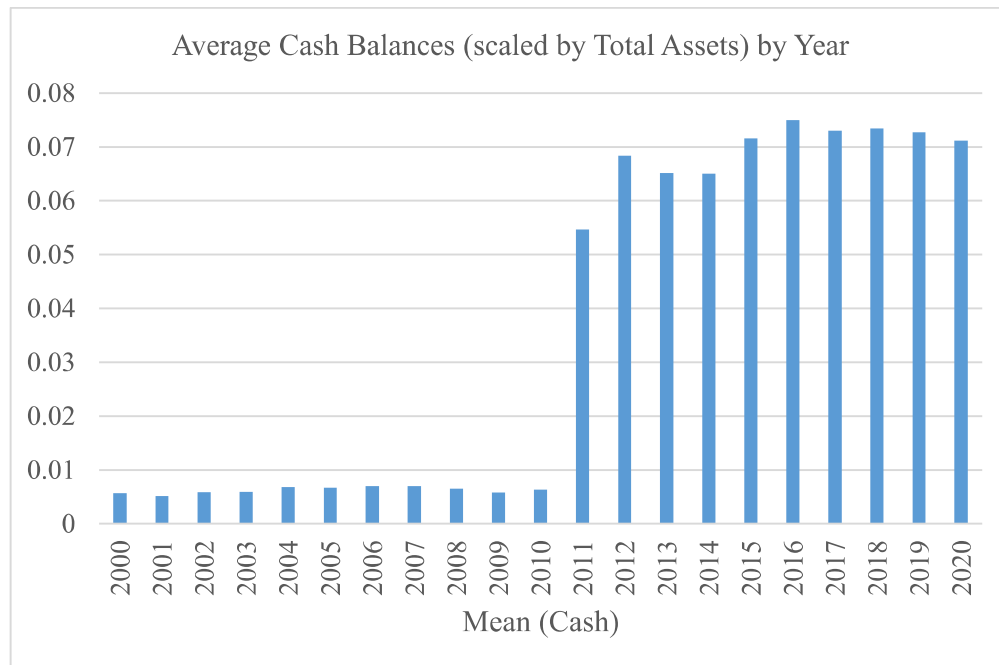
Model Number	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Regression Method	OLS	FFE	OLS	FFE
Market Efficiency	1 year	1 year	3 years	3 years
Dependent Variable	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t
MA Score	0.408***	0.357***	0.327***	0.279***
	(0.0391)	(0.0282)	(0.0437)	(0.0310)
Xcash/TA	0.826***	0.942***	0.684***	0.716***
	(0.104)	(0.105)	(0.115)	(0.116)
MA * Xcash	1.234**	0.551*	1.130*	0.404
	(0.564)	(0.302)	(0.592)	(0.339)
EBIT/TA	0.602***	0.457***	0.778***	0.727***
	(0.103)	(0.0348)	(0.109)	(0.0406)
dE_{t-1}	1.078**	0.604***		
	(0.522)	(0.151)		
dE_{t+1}	2.280**	1.274***		
	(1.043)	(0.279)		
dA_{t-1}	-0.0561***	-0.0689***		
	(0.0139)	(0.00685)		
dA_{t+1}	0.0580**	0.0473***		
	(0.0257)	(0.00399)		
R&D/TA	21.03***	6.566***	20.61***	1.548
	(1.618)	(1.640)	(1.747)	(1.822)
dR_{t-1}	889.4	759.3**		
	(1,071)	(332.0)		
dR_{t+1}	812.9	-445.8		
	(1,338)	(517.2)		
Int/TA	-3.017***	-3.058***	-3.245***	-3.299***
	(0.296)	(0.203)	(0.362)	(0.221)
dI_{t-1}	-61.52*	-47.37***		
	(32.16)	(7.095)		
dI_{t+1}	-188.3***	-157.1***		

Model Number	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Regression Method	OLS	FFE	OLS	FFE
Market Efficiency	1 year	1 year	3 years	3 years
Dependent Variable	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t
	(39.03)	(12.57)		
DIV/TA	30.21***	16.82***	28.51***	15.37***
	(0.783)	(0.478)	(0.843)	(0.506)
dD_{t-1}	-882.3***	-518.0***		
	(240.5)	(96.12)		
dD_{t+1}	704.9***	358.7***		
	(267.3)	(99.14)		
dV_{t+1}	-1.568**	-1.486***		
	(0.707)	(0.0980)		
dE_{t-3}			-1.082	-2.254***
			(1.003)	(0.393)
dE_{t+3}			2.046*	1.046***
			(1.120)	(0.357)
dA_{t-3}			-0.00390	-0.00836
			(0.0196)	(0.00535)
dA_{t+3}			0.0235***	0.0113***
			(0.00873)	(0.00179)
dR_{t-3}			1,755**	1,797***
			(836.3)	(246.4)
dR_{t+3}			1,740***	493.5
			(524.7)	(449.2)
dI_{t-3}			-28.04	53.30***
			(94.94)	(17.85)
dI_{t+3}			-144.0*	-38.46*
			(84.32)	(20.32)
dD_{t-3}			-205.0*	-135.4***
			(112.5)	(43.07)

Model Number	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Regression Method	OLS	FFE	OLS	FFE
Market Efficiency	1 year	1 year	3 years	3 years
Dependent Variable	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t	MV_t
dD_{t+3}			369.4***	66.56
			(134.0)	(59.49)
dV_{t+3}			-1.206***	-1.418***
			(0.444)	(0.0825)
Cons	0.167**	0.226***	0.0925	0.223***
	(0.0688)	(0.0231)	(0.0675)	(0.0231)
Observations	32,440	32,440	25,820	25,820
Adj. R-squared	0.310	0.215	0.317	0.224

Appendix 3.E: Histogram for the Mean Cash Balances of Firms, by Year

The chart below presents the average cash balances by year. Cash is defined as the sum of cash and bank balances (including deposits), and this is scaled by Total Assets.



Limitations of the Study

The aim of this study is to estimate managerial ability and understand its implications on corporate financial decision-making. The first essay uses accounting data taken from Prowess to compose a measure of managerial ability that is available for a wide sample of Indian firms – listed and unlisted. The essay uses the Slacks Based Method (SBM) model of Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) to compute firm efficiency, as opposed to the Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) model used by Demerjian et al. (2012). Secondly, the managerial ability score is defined as the deviation between actual firm efficiency and the firm efficiency predicted by using the firm-specific determinants. The managerial ability measure suffers from certain limitations, as explained below.

First, the managerial ability measure, having been derived from accounting data, is only as accurate as the accounting data reported by firms in their balance sheets. The data is affected by accounting conventions, changes in definitions or any other accounting-related procedures. Second, the grouping of Decision Making Units (DMUs) may prove as a point of deference for firm efficiency measures, because firm efficiency is reference-set dependent (Tone, 2001). Further, there is some loss of data due to the DEA constraint that the efficiency scores are biased if the number of observations in any grouping is less than 30. Third, as pointed out by Banker et al. (2022), the firm efficiency scores may appear to be correlated with the size of the reference-set. However, this does not seem bias the efficiency scores, as the average efficiency in an industry is inversely associated with competition, hence, the larger number of firms operating in an industry, the lesser is the efficiency (Martin, 1993). Finally, there may be certain variables that may be omitted while predicting the efficiency levels of firms in the second stage regressions. While the industry and time groupings help to control for industry-specific and temporal variations, there may still be certain omitted variable that may alter the current results.

The second and third essays estimate the impact of managerial ability on corporate financial decisions, such as the investment decision and the cash holding decision. These essays find that high-ability managers are associated with greater investment, and add value to the firm through the channel of investment. Secondly, high-ability managers are associated with greater cash holdings, and that the high cash holdings are held in accordance with the precautionary motive. The studies are limited in scope as they consider only the listed firms, as market data is only available for listed firms. The studies may also suffer from endogeneity concerns, as it may be that high-ability managers self-select high investment and cash-rich firms, and therefore the relationship may be biased. However, this possibility is limited in the case of India, as managers are generally insiders and there is limited possibility to self-select.

Future Scope and Research Directions

The managerial ability measure is computed by grouping firms on both industry and year, and then computing efficiency separately for each group. However, the measure of firm efficiency may be subject to look-ahead bias (Banker et al., 2022). Banker et al. (2022) suggests grouping firms by year so as to maintain uniformity in the number of firms in each grouping. Future studies may try to estimate the managerial ability for Indian firms following the methodology suggested by Banker et al. (2022). This shall also increase the sample size for which managerial ability scores may be calculated.

The future studies may also estimate the impact of managerial ability on other firm decisions, such as earnings management, financial reporting, tax evasion, cost of capital, and dividend policies, including others. This measure opens the gates for behavioral research in the Indian context, as it has numerous applications in financial research.

Discussion and Practical Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have implications for behavioral research and the extent to which managerial ability has an impact on corporate decision-making processes (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). In addition to composing a composite score of managerial ability, the study has implications for the strategic aspect of leadership and also contributes to the literature on managerial discretion. According to a significant stream of past research, managerial skill or ability has a significant impact on firm outcomes (Bertrand and Schoar, 2003; Demerjian et al., 2012). The majority of the studies have been conducted in the context of US firms, and this study ascertains the impact of managerial ability on firm decision-making in the context of a developing economy – India. This study has implications for practice, because by using publicly available accounting data, users will now be able to estimate the managerial ability.

Although managerial ability is highly correlated with firm performance, there may be instances where they vary. As an illustration, consider the case of Reliance Industries Ltd. (RIL), one of the largest firms in India. Clearly, the company is highly efficient, as it has maintained a firm efficiency score of 1 during the majority of the sample period. However, high efficiency levels are largely explained by firm-specific characteristics, resulting in a managerial ability score that is average at best. The calculated MA Score for RIL is positive but close to zero, indicating that a significant portion of efficiency can be attributed to external factors that are beyond the control of the management. Therefore, this indicator of managerial ability differs from firm efficiency in that it distinguishes management from the exogenous factors in leading to firm efficiency. Financial analysts may be able to use this metric to forecast corporate performance and to generate investment advice. The credit rating agencies also look to the management for additional support for their credit considerations and willingness to pay.

This measure of managerial ability will, thus, aid credit agencies in assessing the creditworthiness of the company.

The study's finding that high-ability managers maintain larger cash reserves for precautionary reasons has important implications for policy makers. To delve deeper into this topic, let's start at the beginning: the institutional theory. The institutional theory posits that *“organizations are technical instruments, designed as means to definite goals. They are judged on engineering premises; they are expendable. Institutions, whether conceived as groups or practices, may be partly engineered, but they also have a "natural" dimension. They are products of interaction and adaptation; they become the receptacles of group idealism; they are less readily expendable”* (Selznick, 1957, pp.21-22). Since organizations are the result of their external environment, organizational actors are able to adapt to the design requirements deemed necessary for efficient operations (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). The institutional theory also asserts that the interests of the organizations are largely defined by the structure of institutions and this encourages agents to act in accordance with the predetermined goals (Scott, 1987). The institutional theory, therefore, suggests that agents act in consonance with the institutional system in which they operate.

In consonance with the institutional theory, it has been confirmed that the level of cash holdings in firms also depend on the overall level of shareholder protection in the country, or the strength of the institutional framework (Dittmar et al., 2003; Kalcheva and Lins, 2007). Weak shareholder protection and institutions limit external financing opportunities (La Porta et al., 1997), leading to capital constraints (Claessens and Laeven, 2003). The institutional theory predicts that, in this case, high cash levels reduce the underinvestment problems in profitable projects. When considering agency conflicts, associated agency costs may be higher than benefits of reduced underinvestment (Kalcheva and Lins, 2007). Indian firms are majorly

family firms, and the agency costs are minimized to the extent that leadership is rarely separated from the family. Therefore, absent agency costs, the high cash holdings are actually beneficial to the firms.

As a symptom of inadequate shareholder protection due to weak institutional framework, the finding that high-ability managers maintain high cash levels has significant ramifications for policy formation. The study further reveals that Indian managers hold large cash reserves for precautionary purposes, and the excess cash exceeds the optimum levels of cash according to the model proposed by Opler et al., (1999). In addition, the higher cash levels are warranted because they are rewarded by the market participants, the shareholders. For instance, the high cash levels of Infosys and other technology firms contribute to the high market valuations that they afford. Alternatively, for policy considerations, large amounts of cash reserves are undesirable, as it may be used or economic development. Policymakers can take this into consideration and take steps to improve the institutional architecture to encourage firms to lower their cash stockpiles.

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List of Abbreviations

COGS	Cost of Goods Sold
SG&A	Selling, General and Administrative Expenses
PPE	Property, Plant and Equipment
CMIE	Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy
MMTPA	Million Metric Tonnes Per Annum
RIL	Reliance Industries Limited
IOCL	Indian Oil Corporation Limited
BPCL	Bharat Petroleum Corporation Limited
FF48	Fama-French-48
FCF	Free Cash Flow
RE/TA	Retained Earnings to Total Assets
INR	Indian Rupee
NPV	Net Present Value
EPU	Economic Policy Uncertainty
WACC	Weighted Average Cost of Capital
TA	Total Assets
FFE	Firm Fixed Effects
RE	Random Effects
MTB	Market to Book Ratio
ROA	Return on Assets
SBM	Slacks Based Model
CCR	Charnes Cooper Rhodes
DEA	Data Envelopment Analysis
CRS	Constant Returns to Scale

VRS	Variable Returns to Scale
FRM	Fractional Regression Model
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
IV	Instrumental Variable
MV	Market Value
EBIT	Earnings Before Interest and Taxes
2SLS	Two Stage Least Squares
BG	Business Group
PSU	Public Sector Undertaking
GFC	Global Financial Crisis
MA	Managerial Ability
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DMU	Decision Making Unit
NIC	National Industrial Classification
QML	Quasi Maximum Likelihood
R&D	Research and Development
BCC	Banker Charnes Cooper
ROI	Return on Investment
NWC	Net Working Capital