

**THE VALUE RELEVANCE OF BOARD GENDER
DIVERSITY FOR NZX LISTED FIRMS AND ITS
ASSOCIATION WITH GROWTH OPTIONS**

**WORKING PAPER SERIES
Working Paper No. 87
December 2011**

Keitha Dunstan, Trish Keeper,
Thu Phuong Truong & Tony van Zijl

Correspondence to:
Thu Phuong Truong
Telephone: +64 4 463 5233 (ext 8961)
Facsimile: +64 4 463 5076
Email: thuphuong.truong@vuw.ac.nz

*Centre for Accounting, Governance and Taxation Research
School of Accounting and Commercial Law
Victoria University of Wellington
PO Box 600, Wellington, NEW ZEALAND*

*Tel: + 64 4 463 5078
Fax: + 64 4 463 5076
Website: <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/sacl/cagtr/>*

The Value Relevance of Board Gender Diversity for NZX Listed Firms and its Association with Growth Options

Keitha Dunstan
School of Business
Bond University

Trish Keeper
School of Accounting and Commercial Law
Victoria University of Wellington

Thu Phuong Truong*
School of Accounting and Commercial Law
Victoria University of Wellington

Tony van Zijl
School of Accounting and Commercial Law
Victoria University of Wellington

December 2011

* Corresponding author:
Telephone: +64 4 463 5233 (ext 8961)
Facsimile: +64 4 463 5076
Email: thuphuong.truong@vuw.ac.nz

Keywords: board gender diversity, firm value, growth options
JEL Classifications: G14, J16 and M41

Acknowledgements: The authors thank Steven Cahan, Peter Clarkson, Sue Wright and seminar participants at the University of Auckland and AFAANZ 2011 Annual Conference for their helpful comments. The authors acknowledge the financial support from Faculty of Commerce and Administration at Victoria University of Wellington for the Team Research Grant.

The Value Relevance of Board Gender Diversity for NZX Listed Firms and its Association with Growth Options

Abstract

Our study examines the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value and, in particular, whether the value relevance of female directors is affected by the level of growth options relative to assets-in-place. Using a sample of 865 firm-years covered by 125 firms listed on the New Zealand Exchange during the period 1998-2007, we found that board gender diversity is value enhancing when applying linear modelling. This relationship is strongest for firms with high levels of growth options. We also explore the possibility that the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value is non-linear. This analysis supports the existence of a concave non-linear relationship with the turning point being the appointment of one female director. This suggests that in New Zealand the benefit gained from board gender diversity can be captured with the appointment of one female director. Given the current overseas regulatory developments promoting the appointment of female directors on boards, our findings suggest that there is a value optimising number of women on boards.

1 Introduction

The board of directors is an essential corporate governance mechanism (Gillan, 2006). Fama and Jensen (1983) characterise boards' responsibilities as including both the ratification of management decisions and the monitoring of management performance. In addition, the board of directors has the power to hire, fire and compensate the senior management team. According to agency theory, the board's responsibility for monitoring managers' actions ensures that such actions are aligned with shareholders' interests and operates to mitigate managerial opportunism (Fama and Jensen, 1983). These fundamental roles of the board of directors, as a critical component of a good corporate governance system, have given rise to a great deal of research investigating the value relevance of the board of directors.

Despite this rich literature, there has been little research that examines the relationship between board structure and firm value and the extent to which the level of growth options relative to assets-in-place affects this relationship. Within this limited literature, the research studies have only focused on the number of independent directors on the board and board size as indicators of board structure (Matolcsy et al., 2004; Orr et al., 2005). In addition, these studies have utilised only cross-sectional data sets. Using a sample of 306 firms listed on the Australian Securities Exchange drawn from the UTS Accenture "Who Governs Australia" database for the year 2001, Matolcsy et al. (2004) found that the market value of firms, with larger investments in growth options, increases with having more outside directors. Another research study by Orr et al. (2005) was based on a sample of 60 randomly selected firms listed on the New Zealand Exchange (NZX) during 2001. This study documents that firms with high level of growth options were more likely to have a higher proportion of outside directors on the board than those with a low level of growth options. This in turn had a positive effect on the relationship between board independence and firm value.

More recently, researchers have investigated the impact of gender diversity on board effectiveness (Adams and Ferreira, 2009). Their research findings include suggestions that women bring different perspectives to board decision-making; that a more diverse board promotes greater understanding of the market, and that female directors increase the linkage or networking opportunities. Our study extends the prior research by investigating whether the value enhancement of board gender diversity varies depending on the level of growth options relative to assets-in-place. We also explore whether the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value may be non-linear. If there is a non-linear relationship between board gender diversity and firm value, then pressures to increase the number of female directors on boards to very high levels may be misguided.

The study is based on a longitudinal sample of 125 firms listed on the NZX, which covers 865 firm-years with financial reporting periods ending between 31 January 1998 and 31 December 2007. Other indicators of board structure, namely the proportion of non-executive directors and the size of the board, which were examined in prior research studies, are used as control variables. We also employ a simultaneous equations method in our analysis to address the potential endogeneity problem between board gender diversity and firm value. Our results provide strong evidence that board gender diversity is value enhancing when applying linear modelling. This relationship is strongest for firms with high levels of growth options. Our application of a non-linear model confirms the existence of a concave non-linear relationship with the turning point being the appointment of one female director.

Our study makes a number of novel contributions to the literature. First, our study analyses the impact on firm value of board gender diversity and its association with the level of growth options relative to assets-in-place. Second, our study explores the possibility that the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value is non-linear. Third, our study is

based on a longitudinal data set, which provides more generalisable results than those documented in prior research studies, which only focus on a cross-sectional data sample. Fourth, we employ a simultaneous equations framework to control for the potential endogeneity problem between board gender diversity and firm value.

A key motivation for our study is to investigate the economic value of women on boards in light of recent international developments. Most notably, the ASX amended its Corporate Governance Principles and Recommendations from 1 January 2011 to require listed companies to publish a policy concerning diversity and to annually disclose progress towards gender diversity in the firm generally and on the board. In the United Kingdom, the Davies Report, which was released in February 2011, recommended that Chairs of all FTSE companies should set out the percentages of women they aspire to have appointed to their boards in 2013 and 2015. Furthermore, the Report recommended that all FTSE 100 companies should appoint a minimum of 25 percent of women directors by 2015. It also recommended that the UK Corporate Governance Code, published by the Financial Reporting Council, should be amended to require listed companies to establish a policy concerning boardroom diversity and be required to report against this policy.

These initiatives are the latest in a series of international reforms and recommendations around the world to increase the number of women on boards. The “most extreme promotion of gender diversity occurs in Norway” (Adams and Ferreira, 2009). From 1 January 2008, all publicly held firms were required to have at least 40 percent women directors by 2008 or be confronted with dissolution. Other European jurisdictions, such as Spain, the Netherlands and France have passed similar quota law and other European countries have also initiated reforms in this area (Ahern and Dittmar, 2010; Campbell and Minguez-Vera, 2010).

New Zealand provides a useful context in which to explore the value relevance of board gender diversity because to date there has not been any explicit regulatory initiatives to increase the number of women to boards.¹ In such an environment, women would be appointed to boards based on their expected positive contribution rather than as a response to external pressure to make token appointments of women. This environment provides an experimental setting which enables us to identify the value relevance of board gender diversity in the absence of external influences.

The remainder of our paper is organised as follows. Section 2 summarises the relevant literature on board gender diversity, firm value and growth options and develops the research hypotheses. An overview of the research design is provided in section 3. Section 4 sets out our results and we present our conclusions in section 5.

2 Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1 The Benefits of Board Gender Diversity

The board of directors, with its dual responsibilities of ratifying decisions and monitoring management, underpinned by its fiduciary obligations to the company, is an important corporate governance mechanism (Gillan, 2006). From an agency theory perspective, the board's monitoring role operates to protect shareholders from the self-interest of management, thereby mitigating agency costs associated with moral hazard. Accordingly, the better a board is able to monitor management, the more agency costs will be reduced and accordingly, firm value increases.

Pressure to increase the number of women on boards is based “on the view that the presence of women on boards could affect the governance of companies in significant ways” (Adams and Ferreira, 2009). Historically much of the literature on women on corporate boards can be

found in the management, psychology or sociology fields focusing at a theoretical level on why, both at an individual and firm level, women are under-represented on corporate boards (Terjesen et al., 2009). Within the finance and economic literature, researchers have begun to investigate the economic value of board diversity in general. Cox and Blake (1991) argue that firms that deal with diversity-related issues should have economic advantages over firms that do not. In fact, according to Keys et al. (2002), firms ranked by *Fortune* as being among the “diversity elite” added more value to their shareholders compared to non-diversity promoters.

Within this debate on the value of diversity in general, there are an increasing number of research studies on the economic impact of gender diversity on a board. Research within this business case paradigm as distinct from what can be loosely described as ethical approaches can be divided into two broad categories. First, research which has analysed the influence of female directors on boardroom dynamics and second, research which has considered the impact of gender diversity on firms’ financial and market performance.

Board room dynamics arguments are based on a belief that diversity in general, and board gender diversity in particular, promotes a better understanding of the marketplace, increases creativity and innovation as well as enhancing the effectiveness of corporate leadership (Robinson and Dechant, 1997). There are a significant number of largely intuitive, theoretical frameworks underlying research as to the benefits of board diversity in general and women on boards specifically. A recent review of research in this area divided the literature into research that has considered the characteristics and impact of female directors at an individual level, at a board level and on the firm generally (Terjesen et al., 2009). For example at a board level, social capital theorists contend that more women on a board will create a more diverse board and a more diverse board will intuitively provide a wider range of perspectives, thereby ensuring that a board will make better decisions (van der Walt and

Ingle, 2003). At a firm level, resource dependence theorists contend that as boards also provide linking functions between a company and the external world, a more diverse board, including a higher percentage of women directors, will provide a greater range of network and linkage opportunities for a firm (Hillman et al., 2002). In an empirical study, Brammer et al. (2007) found that board composition in the United Kingdom varied across industry sectors with the highest rate of female directors found in the retailing, banking, media and utilities. These sectors all have a closer proximity to final consumers. This proximity was found to have a positive effect on shaping board diversity. In contrast, sectors such as resources, engineering and business, which were characterised as being isolated from final consumers and having largely a male workforce, have fewer female directors.

In terms of firm financial and market performance, although there have been a number of empirical research studies that have studied the relationship between board gender diversity and firm performance, the results of these studies have been inconclusive (Carter et al., 2003; Adams and Ferreira, 2009; Campbell and Minguez-Vera, 2010; Carter et al., 2010). Carter et al. (2003) found significant positive relationships between the percentage of women or minorities on the board and firm value after effectively controlling for size, industry and other corporate governance measures. More recently, Campbell and Minguez-Vera (2010) found that female board appointments are positively associated with firm value over a sustained period. This research is based on the short and long-term effect of the appointment of female directors prior to the decision by the Spanish government to regulate for an increase in the number of women on boards.

However, the most recent study by Carter et al. (2010), after summarising seven prior research studies which had investigated the link between board gender diversity and firm performance, concluded that the findings are inconclusive. In their own research of a sample

of firms from the S&P 500 index for the five-year period from 1998 to 2002, Carter et al. (2010) found no effect, either positive or negative, of board gender and ethnic diversity on the financial performance of the firm. One of the research studies reviewed by Carter et al. (2010) was that of Adams and Ferreira (2009) who had found a negative relationship between gender diversity and both ROA and Tobin's Q using a sample of firms from 1996 to 2003. Interestingly, they found that female directors attended more board meetings than male directors and were more likely to join monitoring committees such as audit, compensation, nominating and corporate governance, which led them to conclude that gender diverse boards allocate more effort to monitoring. However, they argue that over monitoring can decrease shareholder value and concluded that while firms with weak governance, as measured by an ability to resist a takeover, may benefit from board gender diversity, overall the impact was negative.

In a study of Norwegian companies by Ahern and Dittmar (2010), following the 2003 quota of 40 percent female directors on Norwegian Boards, it was found that this event resulted in a substantial change in the characteristics of board members, including age, gender and experience, and had a significantly negative impact on firm value. However, Ahern and Dittmar (2010) suggested that this loss was not caused by the gender of the new directors, but rather by the loss of older, experienced male directors.

2.2 Board Gender Diversity and Firm Value

Where an agency problem or conflict of interests exists among stakeholders of a firm, corporate governance in general, and board structure in particular, are important. Carter et al. (2003) suggest that agency theory is the "theoretical framework most often used by investigators in finance and economics to understand the link between board characteristics and firm value". An effective corporate board ameliorates agency costs arising from the

separation of ownership and control, information asymmetry and contracting costs (Hart, 1995) and where such agency problems cannot be satisfactorily contracted away due to significant uncertainty. According to Bushman and Smith (2003), effective corporate governance mechanisms, such as corporate boards, serve two important purposes. First, they ensure that minority shareholders receive reliable information about the value of firms and that a company's managers and large shareholders do not cheat them out of the value of their investments. Second, they motivate managers to maximise firm value instead of pursuing personal objectives.

From a traditional agency theory viewpoint, effective corporate boards require the presence of non-executive and independent directors on a board. Outside directors on a board add value for shareholders if they actively monitor and challenge the insider directors and reduce the opportunity for self-dealing by the executive directors. Outside directors do not add value simply because they are independent of the company of which they are directors. According to Carter et al. (2003), this raises the central question as to the relationship between board diversity and board independence. One argument they put forward is that diversity increases board independence because people with a different gender, ethnicity or cultural values can be considered as the 'ultimate outsider'. A more diverse board encompassing both executive and non-executive directors may be a more activist board and ask different questions than directors with more orthodox backgrounds.

The most commonly studied aspect of board composition has been the ratio of outside directors to executive directors on a board and the relationship to firm value (Hermalin and Weisbach, 2003). These research studies focusing on the ratio of outside directors as a proxy for the level of board activism have relevance; however, a more diverse board is likely to be a more activist board. Carter et al. (2003) argue that although the theoretical framework does

not determine the role of board diversity in firm value in the corporate world, there appears to be an intuitive belief in a positive relationship between board diversity and firm value. However, they point out that board diversity may not result in more effective monitoring if diverse board members are marginalised. We therefore propose the following hypotheses regarding the influence of board gender diversity on firm value:

H₀₁: Board gender diversity has no impact on firm value.

H_{A1}: Board gender diversity does have an impact on firm value.

2.3 The Influence of Board Gender Diversity on Firm Value and its Association with Growth Options

A firm's value is a function of its expected future cash flows, discounted for risk and time. Cash flows can be generated from assets-in-place and from the realisation of growth options. Assets-in-place represent the firm's investments in real or physical assets while growth options represent the value of the opportunity for future investments in assets (Orr et al., 2005).

Compared to assets-in-place, growth options are more firm-specific and are more difficult to trade on secondary markets as their value is mostly determined jointly by other assets held by the firm (Matolcsy et al., 2004). The nature of investments in growth options increases the need to monitor management (Smith and Watts, 1992; Skinner, 1993), because of concerns that management may use their discretion to make decisions that are in their self interest and do not maximise firm value for shareholders (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). This need is exacerbated when the proportion of a firm's growth options to assets-in-place increases. In order to mitigate this problem, the firm can introduce measures to more effectively monitor management. Extant literature indicates that female directors proffer greater monitoring and

oversight of managers' decision-making and performance (Erhardt et al., 2003; Adams and Ferreira, 2009). Female directors have higher rates of board attendance, and comparative higher level of participation in corporate governance, audit and other committees, activities that enhance the ability of the board to more effectively monitor management. Female directors are also more likely to require higher standards of proof or substantiation of managers' narratives and accounts, thereby increasing transparency and the quality of board decision-making. Studies have shown that diverse groups, such as a diverse board, exhibit increased information search and a greater range of perspectives (Hillman et al., 2007) Accordingly, studies have indicated that firms with a more diverse board, reduce the opportunities for management to act opportunistically and provide more experience and knowledge to ensure that growth options are exercised optimally.

Despite the prevalence of views regarding the potential value enhancement provided by female directors for high growth firms, the lack of a strong foundation for these views prompt us to present the following hypotheses regarding the impact of growth options on the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value:

H₀2: Board gender diversity has no impact on firm value regardless of the level of a firm's growth options.

H_A2: Board gender diversity does have an impact on firm value depending on the level of a firm's growth options.

3 Research Design

3.1 Study Period and Sample

The sample selection process commences with the 317 firms listed in the Events section of the NZX database as at 17 September 2008. After elimination of 113 firms for which data is

not available in the NZX database, 31 firms which are listed on the New Zealand Alternative Market (NZAX) and 48 firms that have not issued at least 5 annual reports since being listed on the NZSX², the final sample comprises 125 firms. These 125 firms cover a total of 897 firm-years with financial reporting periods ending between 31 January 1998 and 31 December 2007.³ After deleting 17 firm-years with negative book value of equity⁴ and 15 firm-years with missing board structure indicators, the total firm-years in the final sample is 865.

Details about this sample selection process are provided in Table 1

[INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

3.2 Data Sources

The NZX listing status was extracted from the Events section of the NZX database as at 17 September 2008. Data related to board structure was hand collected from the annual reports which are provided in the Annual Reports section of the NZX database. Accounting and market-related data was obtained from either the NZX database or the Datastream database.

3.3 Hypothesis Testing Procedures

To test the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value and the extent to which this relationship is affected by the level of growth options, we employ the Collins et al.'s (1997) version of the Ohlson's (1995) model to estimate the following regression equation:

$$MVE = a_0 + a_1BVE + a_2NPAT + a_3BRDDIVERSITY + a_4GROWTH + a_5BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH + \sum_{i=6}^8 a_iX_i + \varepsilon \quad (1a)$$

where:

<i>MVE</i>	=	market value of equity per share basis at the end of the current financial year
<i>BVE</i>	=	book value of equity per share basis at the end of the current financial year
<i>NPAT</i>	=	earnings per share at the end of the current financial year
<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i>	=	the percentage of female directors on the board
<i>GROWTH</i>	=	the natural logarithm of the market to book value of equity at the end of the current financial year.
<i>BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH</i>	=	<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i> multiplied by <i>GROWTH</i>
<i>X₆(LEVERAGE)</i>	=	the natural logarithm of book value of total liabilities divided by book value of total equity at the end of the current financial year
<i>X₇(BRDINDP)</i>	=	the percentage of non-executive directors on the board
<i>X₈(BRDSIZE)</i>	=	the number of directors on the board

Leverage is included to control for the effect that capital structure could have on equity value (Orr et al., 2005). Also, numerous research studies suggest that leverage could confound the value relevance of outside directors (Jensen, 1986, 1989; Anderson et al., 1993; Gul and Tsui, 1998).

Many research studies have considered whether the proportion of independent directors and the size of the board enhance the board's ability to operate as an effective corporate governance mechanism (John and Senbet, 1998; Carter et al., 2003; Karamanou and Vafeas, 2005). Fama and Jensen (1983) argue that a larger proportion of non-executive directors on the board enhance board monitoring performance. According to Chen and Jaggi (2000), firms with a higher percentage of non-executive directors on the board were more engaged and provided more comprehensive statutory disclosures. Firms with a higher level of board independence were less likely to engage in earnings management (Klein, 2002). In addition, Matolcsy et al. (2004) and Orr et al. (2005) both document that firms with more outside directors on the board have higher firm value, especially in the presence of high level of growth options relative to assets-in-place.

Board size is argued to enhance board monitoring performance, as appointing more directors on the board would enhance board knowledge and provide greater capacity to share the monitoring responsibilities (Song and Windram, 2004; Karamanou and Vafeas, 2005). However, larger boards are posited to be less flexible and less efficient due to higher coordination costs and less effective communication (John and Senbet, 1998; Coles et al., 2008). According to Bradbury et al. (2006), firms with a greater number of directors on the board tended to have high earnings quality. However, Yermack (1996) documents a negative relationship between board size and firm value. Given that most NZX listed firms are relatively small, the first effect could reasonably be argued to dominate the second. Also, prior studies by Matolcsy et al. (2004) and Orr et al. (2005) control for board size when examining the impact of board independence on firm value and its association with growth options.

The variable of interest in testing H1 is *BRDDIVERSITY*. A significant coefficient on this variable will reject H₀₁. A positive (negative) significant coefficient would suggest that firm value is enhanced (reduced) by the presence of female directors on boards. For H2, the variable of interest is the interaction variable between *BRDDIVERSITY* and *GROWTH*. Again, a significant coefficient on this variable will reject H₀₂. A positive (negative) significant coefficient would confirm that firm value is more enhanced by the presence of women on boards among firms with high (low) growth options.

We also explore the possibility that the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value is non-linear by estimating the following regression equation:

$$MVE = a_0 + a_1BVE + a_2NPAT + a_{3,1}BRDDIVERSITY + a_{3,2}BRDDIVERSITY^2 + a_4GROWTH + a_5BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH + \sum_{i=6}^8 a_iX_i + \varepsilon \quad (1b)$$

A significant coefficient on the variable $BRDDIVERSITY^2$ would confirm the non-linear relationship between board gender diversity and firm value.

According to Hermalin and Weisbach (2003), board structure characteristics including board gender diversity and firm attributes including firm value could be endogenously determined. If this is the case, the estimation of the equations (1a) and (1b) could produce biased coefficient estimates. In order to address the concern about the possible endogenous relationship between board gender diversity and firm value and thus detect a one-way causal effect of board gender diversity on firm value, a two-stage least squares estimation is employed by adding the following regression equation:

$$BRDDIVERSITY = b_0 + b_1MVE + \sum_{i=2}^5 biYi + y \quad (2)$$

FIRMAGE = the natural logarithm of the number of days a firm has been listed on the NZX

ROA = net earnings after tax divided by total assets at the end of the financial year

EPSVOL = the natural logarithm of the standard deviation of earnings per share changes in the previous four years

CROSSLIST = a dichotomous variable taking the value of 1 if the firm is cross-listed on a foreign exchange

The age of the firm is included to control for potential alternative explanations for female representation on the board, such as inertia (Hillman et al., 2002). We also include return on assets and earnings volatility as previous research suggests that firm performance is associated with female board participation (Campbell and Minguez-Vera, 2008; Adams and Ferreira, 2009). Finally, given the recent international developments in promoting more female directors on boards while in New Zealand there has not been any explicit regulatory initiatives to increase the number of women on boards, the cross-listing status is also included.

Using two-stage least squares estimation, in the first stage, board gender diversity is regressed on all the exogenous variables including book value of equity per share, earnings per share, growth, leverage, board independence, board size, firm age, return on assets, earnings volatility and cross-listing status; and the fitted values of board gender diversity are obtained. In the second stage, the fitted values of board gender diversity replace the original board gender diversity in equations (1a) and (1b) to test the impact of board gender diversity on firm value and its association with growth options as well as investigate the possible non-linear relationship between board gender diversity and firm value.

Prior to estimating the model, the skewness and kurtosis statistics are checked for all continuous variables and extreme values are winsorised to preserve the characteristics of the original data while minimising the possible distortion of results by these extreme values. The maximum number of observations winsorised is low at the level of five percent of the sample observations.

4 Results

4.1 Univariate Analysis

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for the dependent and independent variables. The mean of the market value of equity per share, book value of equity per share and earnings per share is \$2.388, \$1.481 and \$0.109, respectively. The percentage of female directors and non-executive directors is 5.2 and 82.1 percent, respectively. The percentage of non-executive directors is far higher than the 66.5 percent for ASX listed firms documented in Matolcsy et al. (2004). The average board size is 6.1, which is similar to that of 6.6 for ASX listed firms. The mean of market to book value of equity is 3.096, which is slightly higher than the mean of 2.883 among ASX-listed firms provided in Matolcsy et al. (2004). The average leverage is

relatively high at 1.850 compared to the average of 1.246 for ASX listed firms reported in Matolcsy et al. (2004).

[INSERT TABLE 2 HERE]

To facilitate the analysis of our hypotheses, we first divide the 865 firm-years in the entire sample into a low growth options group and a high growth options group based on the median of the variable *GROWTH*. Untabulated descriptive statistics for the *GROWTH* variable of these two groups are as follows: (1) for the 432 firm-years in the low growth options group, the mean, median and standard deviation of *GROWTH* are -0.189, -0.088 and 0.413, respectively; and (2) for the 433 firm-years in the high growth options group, the mean, median and standard deviation of *GROWTH* are 1.084, 0.935 and 0.587, respectively. The value of growth options for the high growth options group is significantly larger for that reported for the low growth options group at the 1 percent level using both two-tailed *t*-test (*t*-statistic = 36.877 and *p*-value = 0.000) and Mann-Whitney *z*-test (*z*-statistic = 25.456 and *p*-value = 0.000).

Table 3 compares the dependent and independent variables (except for *GROWTH*) for low and high growth options groups. It is obvious from Table 3 that the mean *MVE* for firms with high growth options (\$3.134) is significantly higher than that for firms with low growth options (\$1.641) at the 1 percent level. It is interesting to observe that the mean *BVE* for firms with high growth options (\$1.190) is significantly lower than the mean *BE* for firms with low growth options (\$1.772) at the 1 percent level. The mean *NPAT* for high growth options group (\$0.137) is far higher than that of low options group (\$0.081) and the difference between the two groups is significant at the 1 percent level. The mean percentage of female directors on board for firms with high growth options is 5.8 percent compared to only 4.6 percent documented for firms with low growth options. This difference is significant at 1

percent level. The mean *LEVERAGE* for firms with low growth options is -0.719, which is significantly lower than the -0.124 reported for the high growth options group. The percentage of non-executive directors on the board among firms with high growth options is significantly lower than that among firms with low growth options. Board size is quantitatively similar across the two groups.

Further results in Table 3 reveal that firms with low growth options have been listed on the NZX longer, have higher return on assets, and are less likely to be cross-listed on a foreign exchange compared to those with high growth options.

[INSERT TABLE 3 HERE]

4.2 Multivariate Analysis

The regression results of testing our two hypotheses are presented in Table 4. The coefficient estimate on *BRDDIVERSITY* is 7.764 and is significant at the 1 percent level, which rejects H₀₁. Firms with a higher percentage of female directors on the board are associated with higher market value of equity.

The coefficient estimate on *BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH* is significantly positive at 1 percent level (13.270). Therefore, H₀₂ is rejected. The value of board gender diversity appears to be more apparent among firms with high growth options.

Other results in Table 4 show that the coefficient estimates on *BVE*, *NPAT*, *GROWTH* and *LEVERAGE* are all positive and are significant at the 1 percent level. Firms with larger board are more likely to have higher firm value. In addition, the regression estimated has high explanatory power, as determined by the adjusted R² of 0.803 and the *F*-statistic of 441.990, which is significant at the 1 percent level. The Durbin χ^2 and the Wu-Hausman *F*-statistic are

both significant at 1 percent level, confirming the appropriateness of the two-stage least squares analysis.

The coefficient estimate on *BRDDIVERISTY* is significant at 1 percent level (35.970) and the coefficient estimate on *BRDDIVERISTY*² is significantly negative at 1 percent level (-251.485), which supports the existence of a concave non-linear relationship with the turning point being the appointment of one female director. This suggests that the benefit gained from board gender diversity can be captured by the appointment of one female director. The coefficient estimate on *BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH* is still significantly positive at 1 percent level (15.328), which confirms that board gender diversity is more value relevant among firms with high growth options.

[INSERT TABLE 4 HERE]

4.3 Sensitivity Analysis

First, White's heteroscedasticity standard errors are used to allow the refitting of the models which may contain heteroscedastic residuals. The results obtained from retesting the models are quantitatively similar to the main findings.

Second, we also test the models for each of the years of our sample. Given the relatively small size of the sample, this is a strongly demanding test. We find that the positive impact of board gender diversity on firm value is held for the year 2001 and the interaction effect between board gender diversity and growth options is held for all of the years. The concave non-linear relationship between board gender diversity and firm value is held for the years 1999, 2005, 2006 and 2007.

Third, the models are tested for each of the six major industry groups: (1) materials, mining or energy, (2) technology, telecommunication or biotechnology, (3) financial services, (4)

utilities, airports, airlines, ports or shipping, (5) manufacturing or healthcare, and (6) consumer staples. Again, given the relatively small sample size, this is also a strongly demanding test. It is found that the positive impact of board gender diversity on firm value is only apparent for the materials, mining or energy group. The interaction effect is held for all industry groups except for the materials, mining or energy group and the utilities, airports, airlines, ports or shipping group. The concave non-linear relationship between board gender diversity and firm value is confirmed among the materials, mining or energy group and the consumer staples group.

Fourth, the models are retested inclusive of each of the industry dichotomous variables for the six major industry groups. It is interesting to observe that only firms in the technology, telecommunication or biotechnology group are associated with lower market value of equity. The other results are not significantly different from the main findings.

Fifth, the models are re-estimated including interaction variables between board independence and growth options (*BRDINDP_GROWTH*) and board size and growth options (*BRDSIZE_GROWTH*). The coefficients on *BRDINDP_GROWTH* and *BRDSIZE_GROWTH* are positive significant at 1 percent level, indicating that board independence and board size are more positively associated with firm value among firms with high growth options. The other results are not significantly different from the main findings.

Lastly, following Ozer-Balli and Sorensen (2011), we test the robustness of our models with interaction variables by retesting the models with demeaned interaction variables. The results obtained from retesting the models with demeaned interaction variables are quantitatively similar to the main findings.

5 Conclusion

The objective of our study is to examine the relationship between board gender diversity and firm value, and the extent to which the level of growth options relative to assets-in-place affects this relationship in New Zealand using both linear and non-linear models. Based on a sample of 865 firm-years covered by 125 firms listed on the NZX with financial reporting dates ending between 31 January 1998 and 31 December 2007, our results document significant evidence that board gender diversity together with the level of growth options significantly impact on firm value after effectively controlling for the endogeneity problem.

Using a linear model, we find that firms with a higher number of female directors on the board have higher firm value. In addition, the benefit of board gender diversity appears to be more apparent among firms with high growth options. Our analysis employing a non-linear model provides evidence that the appointment of one female board member is value enhancing. This suggests that any benefit from the different perspectives brought to the board by female directors is captured with the appointment of one woman to the board.

The findings with regard to board gender diversity have important implications for the ongoing policy and regulatory debate about the role of women on boards. Our findings on the value relevance of board gender diversity using a linear model are consistent with overseas research and with overseas regulatory developments promoting the percentage of female directors on the board. However, our results using a non-linear model suggest that there is an optimal level of participation by women on boards that captures the benefit of gender diversity. This raises questions about the promotion by regulators internationally of increased board gender diversity without consideration of whether there are limits to the benefits that accrue from appointing extra female board members.

The major limitation of our study is that it focuses a small sample within a small jurisdiction of New Zealand; therefore, the generalisability of our findings is diminished. It is possible

that there are idiosyncratic characteristics in the New Zealand business culture that limit the generalisability of our findings. Therefore, future research could extend the dataset to include other jurisdictions.

References

Adams, R. B., and D. Ferreira 2009, Women in the boardroom and their impact on governance and performance, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 94, pp. 291-309.

Ahern, K. R., and A. K. Dittmar 2010, The changing of the boards: The value effect of a massive exogenous shock, *Working paper*, Ross School of Business, University of Michigan.

Anderson, D., J. R. Francis, and D. J. Stokes 1993, Auditing, directorships and the demand for monitoring, *Journal of Accounting and Public Policy*, Vol. 12, pp. 353-375.

Bradbury, M. E., Y. T. Mak, and S. M. Tan 2006, Board characteristics, audit committee characteristics and abnormal accruals, *Pacific Accounting Review*, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 47-68.

Brammer, S., A. Millington, and S. Pavelin 2007, Gender and ethnic diversity among UK corporate board, *Corporate Governance*, Vol. 15, No. 2, March, pp. 393-403.

Bushman, R. M., and A. J. Smith 2003, Transparency, financial accounting information, and corporate governance, *FRBNY Economic Policy Review*, April, pp. 65-87.

Campbell, K., and A. Minguez-Vera 2008, Gender diversity in the boardroom and firm financial performance, *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 83, pp. 435-451.

Campbell, K., and A. Minguez-Vera 2010, Female board appointments and firm valuation: Short and long-term effects, *Journal of Management and Governance*, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 37-59.

Carter, D. A., F. D'Souza, B. J. Simkins, and W. G. Simpson 2010, The gender and ethnic diversity of US boards and board committees and firm financial performance, *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, Vol. 18, No. 5, pp. 396-414.

Carter, D. A., B. J. Simkins, and W. G. Simpson 2003, Corporate governance, board diversity, and firm value, *The Financial Review*, Vol. 38, pp. 33-53.

Chen, C. J. P., and B. Jaggi 2000, Association between independent non-executive directors, family control and financial disclosures in Hong Kong, *Journal of Accounting and Public Policy*, Vol. 19, pp. 285-310.

Coles, J. L., N. D. Daniel, and L. Naveen 2008, Boards: Does one size fit all, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 87, pp. 329-356.

Collins, D. W., E. L. Maydew, and I. S. Weiss 1997, Changes in the value-relevance of earnings and book values over the past forty years, *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, Vol. 24, pp. 39-67.

Cox, T. H., and S. Blake 1991, Managing cultural diversity: Implications for organisational competitiveness, *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 5, pp. 45-56.

Davies Report 2011, Women on boards.

Erhardt, N. L., J. D. Werbel, and C. B. Shrader 2003, Board of director diversity and firm financial performance, *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 102-111.

Fama, E. F., and M. C. Jensen 1983, Separation of ownership and control, *Journal of Law and Economics*, Vol. 26, No. 2, Corporations and private property: A conference sponsored by the Hoover Institution, pp. 301-325.

Gillan, S. L. 2006, Recent development in corporate governance: An overview, *Journal of Corporate Finance*, Vol. 12, pp. 381-402.

Gul, F. A., and J. S. L. Tsui 1998, A test of the free cash flow and debt monitoring hypotheses: Evidence from audit pricing, *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, Vol. 24, pp. 219-237.

Hart, O. 1995, Corporate governance: Some theory and implications, *The Economic Journal*, Vol. 105, No. 430, May, pp. 378-389.

Hermalin, B. E., and M. S. Weisbach 2003, Boards of directors as an endogenously determined institution: A survey of the economic literature, *FRBNY Economic Policy Review*, April, pp. 7-26.

Hillman, A. J., A. A. Cannella, and I. C. Harris 2002, Women and racial minorities in the boardroom: How do directors differ, *Journal of Management*, Vol. 28, No. 6, pp. 747-763.

Hillman, A. J., C. Shropshire, and A. A. Cannella 2007, Organisational predictors of women on corporate boards, *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 50, No. 4, pp. 941-952.

Jensen, M. C. 1986, Agency Costs of Free Cash Flows, Corporate Finance, and Takeovers, *The American Economic Review*, Vol. 76, No. 2, Papers and Proceedings of the Ninety-Eighth Annual Meeting of the American Economic Association, May, pp. 323-329.

Jensen, M. C. 1989, Eclipse of the public corporation, *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 5, pp. 61-74.

Jensen, M. C., and W. H. Meckling 1976, Theory of the firm: Managerial behaviour, agency costs and ownership structure, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 3, pp. 305-360.

John, K., and L. W. Senbet 1998, Corporate governance and board effectiveness, *Journal of Banking and Finance*, Vol. 22, pp. 371-403.

Karamanou, I., and N. Vafeas 2005, The association between corporate boards, audit committees, and management earnings forecasts: An empirical analysis, *Journal of Accounting Research*, Vol. 43, No. 3, June, pp. 453-486.

Keys, P. Y., P. A. Turner, and S. S. Friday 2002, Shareholder benefits of diversity, *Working paper*, University of Delaware.

Klein, A. 2002, Audit committee, board of director characteristics, and earnings management, *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, Vol. 33, pp. 375-400.

Matolcsy, Z., D. Stokes, and A. Wright 2004, Do independent directors add value?, *Australian Accounting Review*, Vol. 14, No. 1, March, pp. 33-40.

Ohlson, J. A. 1995, Earnings, book values, and dividends in equity valuation, *Contemporary Accounting Research*, Vol. 11, No. 2, Spring, pp. 661-687.

Orr, D., D. Emanuel, and N. Wong 2005, Board composition and the value of New Zealand companies, *Pacific Accounting Review*, Vol. 17, No. 2, December, pp. 103-121.

Ozer-Balli, H., and B. E. Sorensen 2011, Interaction effects in econometrics, *Working paper*, School of Economics and Finance, Massey University.

Robinson, G., and K. Dechant 1997, Building a business case for diversity, *Academy of Management Executive*, No. 11, pp. 21-30.

Skinner, D. J. 1993, The investment opportunity set and accounting procedure choice, *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, Vol. 16, pp. 407-445.

Smith, C. W., and R. L. Watts 1992, The investment opportunity set and corporate financing, dividend and compensation policies, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 32, pp. 509-522.

Song, J., and B. Windram 2004, Benchmarking audit committee effectiveness in financial reporting, *International Journal of Auditing*, Vol. 8, pp. 195-205.

Terjesen, S., R. Sealy, and V. Singh 2009, Women directors on corporate boards: A review and research agenda, *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 320-337.

van-der-Walt, N., and C. Ingleby 2003, Board dynamics and the influence of professional background, gender and ethnic diversity of directors, *Corporate Governance*, Vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 218-234.

Yermack, D. 1996, Higher market valuation of companies with a small board of directors, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 40, pp. 185-211.

Table 1
Sample Selection Procedure

Selecting criteria	Number of Observations
Sample firms	
Total firms listed on the Events section of the NZX database as at 17 September 2008	317
Less firms listed on the Events section of the NZX database not covered by the NZX database	(113)
Less firms listed on the NZAX	(31)
Less firms not issuing at least 5 annual reports since being listed on the NZSX	(48)
Total firms in the final sample	125
Sample firm-years	
Total firm years for 125 firms	897
Less firm-years with negative book value of equity	(17)
Less firm-years with missing board gender diversity data	(15)
Total firm-years in the final sample	865

¹ The total number of firm-years includes all firm-years with financial reporting dates ending between 31 January 1998 and 31 December 2007.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Mean/Number	Median/Percentage	Standard Deviation
<i>MVE (\$)</i>	2.388	1.310	2.948
<i>BVE (\$)</i>	1.481	0.976	2.086
<i>NPAT (\$)</i>	0.109	0.080	0.478
<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i>	0.052	0.000	0.106
<i>MVE/BVE</i>	3.096	1.428	17.532
<i>GROWTH</i>	0.449	0.356	0.814
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	-0.421	-0.274	1.327
<i>BRDINDP</i>	0.821	0.833	0.184
<i>BRDSIZE</i>	6.111	6	1.885
<i>FIRMAGE</i>	8.383	8.341	0.757
<i>ROA</i>	0.004	0.043	0.202
<i>EPSVOL</i>	-2.759	-2.696	1.451
<i>CROSSLIST</i>	160	18.50%	

See Section 3 for definitions of variables

Table 3
Univariate Comparison between Variables for Low and High Growth Option Firm-years

Variables	Low Growth Option			High Growth Option			Low vs. High Growth Option
	Mean	Median	Standard	Mean	Median	Standard	
	Number	Percentage	Deviation	Number	Percentage	Deviation	t-statistic (Mann-Whitney z-statistic)/χ^2 statistic
<i>MVE (\$)</i>	1.641	0.900	2.435	3.134	2.241	3.218	7.695** (8.748**)
<i>BVE (\$)</i>	1.772	1.042	2.518	1.190	0.819	1.486	-4.136** (-4.468**)
<i>NPAT (\$)</i>	0.081	0.055	0.304	0.137	0.134	0.603	1.733* (6.105**)
<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i>	0.046	0.000	0.113	0.058	0.000	0.098	1.763* (3.582**)
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	-0.719	-0.530	1.358	-0.124	-0.035	1.226	6.767** (6.632**)
<i>BRDINDP</i>	0.827	0.857	0.194	0.814	0.833	0.173	-1.080 (-2.020*)
<i>BRDSIZE</i>	6.058	6	1.844	6.164	6	1.927	0.827 (1.074)
<i>FIRMAGE</i>	8.460	8.487	0.767	8.306	8.253	0.740	-3.009** (-2.888**)
<i>ROA</i>	0.010	0.030	0.119	-0.002	0.068	0.260	-0.856 (7.179**)
<i>EPSVOL</i>	-2.735	-2.624	1.477	-2.782	-2.770	1.426	-0.475 (-1.069)
<i>CROSSLIST</i>	65	15.05%		95	21.94%		6.817**

^, *, ** Characteristics are significantly different at the 0.1, 0.05, 0.01 levels, respectively (two-tailed). See Section 3 for definitions of variables.

Table 4
Simultaneous Equations Analysis for the Value Relevance of Board Gender Diversity and its Association with Growth Options

Variable	First-stage Dep. Var. = <i>BRDDIVERSITY</i>	Second-stage Dep. Var. = <i>MVE</i>	Second-stage Dep. Var. = <i>MVE</i>
<i>Intercept</i>	0.179 (3.830**)	-1.359 (-5.350**)	-1.988 (-7.070**)
<i>BVE</i>	-0.003 (-1.430)	1.055 (43.080**)	1.066 (43.940**)
<i>NPAT</i>	0.004 (0.520)	0.691 (7.020**)	0.651 (6.680**)
<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i>		7.764 (3.240**)	35.970 (5.820**)
<i>BRDDIVERSITY</i> ²			-251.485 (-4.940**)
<i>GROWTH</i>	0.005 (0.990)	0.578 (5.230**)	0.518 (4.730**)
<i>BRDDIVERSITY_GROWTH</i>		13.270 (7.150**)	15.328 (8.170**)
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	-0.005 (-1.620)	0.111 (3.070**)	0.123 (3.460**)
<i>BRDINDP</i>	0.006 (0.310)	0.090 (0.360)	0.049 (0.200)
<i>BRDSIZE</i>	0.001 (0.680)	0.172 (6.370**)	0.171 (6.420**)
<i>FIRMAGE</i>	-0.016 (-3.330**)		
<i>ROA</i>	0.046 (2.300*)		
<i>EPSVOL</i>	0.005 (1.830^)		
<i>CROSSLIST</i>	0.042 (4.440**)		
Durbin χ^2		56.264**	
Wu-Hausman <i>F</i> -statistic		59.553**	
Adjusted R ²	0.045	0.803	0.809
<i>F</i> -statistic	5.040**	441.990**	406.31**
Number of observations		865	

^, * and ** denotes significance at the 0.1, 0.05 and 0.01 levels, respectively. See section 3 for definitions of variables.

Notes

¹ In New Zealand, the NZX's Listing Rules set out a number of minimum requirements, including the minimum number of directors (Rule 3.1.1(a)), the minimum number of New Zealand resident directors (Rule 3.1.1(b)) and the rules to calculate the minimum number of independent directors. The New Zealand Securities Commission's *Corporate Governance in New Zealand – Principles and Guidelines*'s Principle 2 provides that "there should be a balance of independence, skills, knowledge, experience, and perspectives among directors so that the board works effectively".

² We delete firms that have not issued at least 5 annual reports since being listed on the NZSX in order to (i) ensure greater homogeneity in the age of firms and (ii) provide a reasonable basis for the measurement of earnings volatility as an instrument in the two-stage least squares estimation.

³ Given the mixed financial reporting dates among NZX-listed firms, the final sample consists of firms with 31 January, 28 February, 31 March, 31 May, 30 June, 31 July, 1 August, 31 August, 30 September or 31 December financial reporting dates.

⁴ We delete firms with negative book values as these firms are likely to have been seriously distressed firms and the negative value is inconsistent with the book value of equity in the test regression equation being a measure of the expected value of normal earnings.