

## Investor activism

- The costs and benefits of active monitoring
- Incentives of an active monitor
  
- Important topics in corporate governance
  - Banks vs stock markets
  - Concentrated vs dispersed ownership
  
- Costs and benefits of active monitoring
  - Costs
    - Monitoring costs
    - Scarcity rents to monitors
    - Monitor illiquidity
  - Benefits
    - Learning by lending
    - Externalities to non-monitoring investors
    - Control (chapter 10)

## Basic model of investor activism

- Fixed-investment model
  - Risk neutral entrepreneur has assets  $A$  and a project needing  $I > A$ . Project yields  $R$  if success, 0 if failure. Success probability  $p_H$  if entrepreneur works,  $p_L = p_H - \Delta p$  if not.

- No monitoring
  - Benefit from shirking  $B$ .
  - Funding to project if expected pledgeable income exceeds investors' expenses:

$$p_H(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}) \geq I - A$$

- Monitoring
  - The monitor moves first.
  - The extent of moral hazard is reduced.
  - The benefit from shirking reduced from  $B$  to  $b < B$ .
  - Monitor's private cost:  $c$
  - Interpretation
    - Manager picks among three projects: good, bad and Bad.

	Pr (success)	Private benefit
Bad	$p_L$	$B$
bad	$p_L$	$b$

- By incurring cost  $c$ , monitor eliminates Bad project but still cannot tell good from bad.

- With a monitor present, entrepreneur's incentive constraint is

$$R_b \geq \frac{b}{\Delta p}$$

- Incentives for the monitor
  - Also monitor is risk neutral
  - When not incurring cost  $c$ , the monitor cannot prevent shirking
  - Monitor's reward  $R_m$  must satisfy

$$R_m \geq \frac{c}{\Delta p}$$

- Suppose first that *monitoring capital is abundant*: there is a large supply of monitors willing to invest their capital.

- A monitor is available supplying investment  $I_m$  such that his net payment equals his costs:

$$p_H R_m - I_m = c$$

- Funding possible if non-monitoring investors' breakeven constraint is satisfied:

$$p_H(R - R_b - R_m) \geq I - A - I_m \Leftrightarrow$$

$$p_H\left(R - \frac{b}{\Delta p}\right) - (I_m + c) \geq I - A - I_m \Leftrightarrow$$

$$p_H\left(R - \frac{b}{\Delta p}\right) \geq I - A + c$$

- Monitoring reduces the moral-hazard problem – at cost  $c$ .

- Investment by monitor: blockholding

$$I_m = p_H R_m - c = p_H \frac{c}{\Delta p} - c = c\left(\frac{p_H}{\Delta p} - 1\right) = \frac{p_L}{\Delta p} c$$

- Return on the investment:  $\frac{p_H R_m}{I_m} = \frac{p_H c / \Delta p}{p_L c / \Delta p} = \frac{p_H}{p_L}$

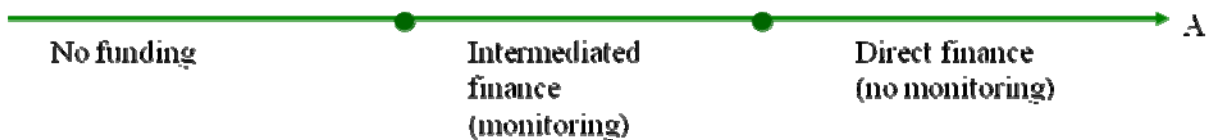
- Monitoring has a role to play when it increases pledgeable income, which happens when

$$p_H \frac{b}{\Delta p} + c < p_H \frac{B}{\Delta p} \Leftrightarrow c < \frac{p_H}{\Delta p} (B - b)$$

- Entrepreneur's utility equals NPV under monitoring

$$U_b = p_H R - I - c.$$

- The entrepreneur will only enlist a monitor when this is necessary to obtain funding.
- Strong firms are financed without monitoring.



- Empirical evidence: Legal systems with poor investor protection have also concentrated ownership.
  - High  $B$  leads to high needs for monitoring by a monitor holding a block of shares.

### Overmonitoring

- The monitor exerts two kinds of externalities
  - A positive externality on other investors
  - A negative externality on the entrepreneur
- A model of *variable monitoring intensity*.
  - The monitor identifies the Bad project with prob  $x$ , and learns nothing with prob  $1 - x$ .
  - The greater monitoring costs incurred, the greater is the probability  $x$ :

$$c = c(x), c' > 0, c'' > 0.$$

- Borrower's utility equals NPV and depends on  $x$ :

$$U_b(x) = xp_H R + (1 - x)(p_L R + B) - I - c(x)$$

- NPV is maximized at monitoring level  $x^*$ , where

$$c'(x^*) = (\Delta p)R - B$$

- Suppose that this monitoring level is sufficient for funding, while no monitoring is not.

- The monitor's incentives: he maximizes

$$[xp_H + (1 - x)p_L]R_m - c(x)$$

- In order to get the monitor to choose the correct monitoring level, it is necessary for the entrepreneur that

$$(\Delta p)R - B = c'(x^*) = (\Delta p)R_m \Leftrightarrow R_m = R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}$$

- The entrepreneur not getting funding without monitoring implies that  $R_b < \frac{B}{\Delta p}$ . Therefore:

$$R_m = R - \frac{B}{\Delta p} < R - R_b \Leftrightarrow R_b + R_m < R$$

- In order to get the proper monitoring level, the entrepreneur needs other, non-monitoring investors in addition to the monitor.

- If the monitor holds all external shares, there is no positive externality on other outside investors, only a negative externality on the entrepreneur – *excessive monitoring*.

- A large monitoring investor may also

- aggravate the problem of soft budget constraints, by facilitating renegotiations
- dampen the entrepreneur's incentives to come up with new ideas.

## Scarce monitoring capital

- People with *both* skills in monitoring *and* own capital to invest may be scarce.
- Polar case – monitor has no own capital:  $I_m = 0$ .
  - Example: monitors as non-owning board members.
  - Monitor's incentive constraint:  $R_m \geq \frac{c}{\Delta p}$
  - Monitor earns a *rent*:  $p_H R_m - c = \frac{p_L}{\Delta p} c$ .
  - Borrower's utility is no longer equal to NPV.  

$$\text{NPV} = p_H R - I - c$$

$$U_b = p_H R - I - c - \frac{p_L}{\Delta p} c = p_H R - I - \frac{p_H}{\Delta p} c$$
  - A decrease in the scope for monitoring, and an increase in the occurrence of no funding.
- More generally, a high return on monitor's investment, because of investment opportunities elsewhere:

$$\chi = \frac{p_H R_m}{I_m} > \frac{p_H}{p_L}$$

- Monitor's rent:

$$M = p_H R_m - I_m - c = p_H R_m - \frac{p_H R_m}{\chi} - c =$$

$$p_H \frac{c}{\Delta p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\chi}\right) - c = \left(p_L - \frac{p_H}{\chi}\right) \frac{c}{\Delta p} > 0.$$

- Borrower's utility:  $p_H R - I - c - M$ .
- Funding possible if

$$p_H \left(R - \frac{b}{\Delta p}\right) - c - M \geq I - A$$

- The scarcer monitor capital is, the higher is  $\chi$ , the higher is  $M$ , and therefore the more difficult it is to get funding.

## Monitor-entrepreneur collusion

- *A three-tier hierarchy*
  - principal-supervisor-agent
  - here: investor-monitor-entrepreneur
  - two incentive problems: agent and supervisor
  - in addition: the agent may try to persuade the supervisor into not performing
  - Ex ante collusion: the agreement to collude is made before the monitor decides to collect information.
  - Ex post collusion: the monitor collects information and then offers to the entrepreneur to be cooperative, by not ruling out the Bad project.
- A model of *ex post* collusion
  - The entrepreneur bribes the monitor into colluding by diverting corporate resources. The diversion creates a gain  $G > 0$  to the monitor but uniformly reduces the success probability by  $\tau > 0$ : from  $p_H$  to  $p_H - \tau$  if entrepreneur works, from  $p_L$  to  $p_L - \tau$  if not.
  - The diversion is wasteful:  $G < \tau R$ . Direct payments not possible.
  - Collusion occurs if both monitor and entrepreneur gain from it:
$$G \geq (\Delta p + \tau)R_m$$
$$B \geq (\Delta p + \tau)R_b$$
  - In order to prevent collusion, monitor's stake must be raised from  $\frac{c}{\Delta p}$  to  $\frac{G}{\Delta p + \tau}$ , if the latter is higher.

## The monitor as advisor

- Board members and others perform *two* tasks: monitoring and advising.
- Advisory activity is *productive*, like that of the entrepreneur.
  - A double-sided moral hazard problem
  - The advisor increases NPV and is useful even without own capital.
  - Strong entrepreneurs do not need *pure monitors* to get funding and are therefore more interested in a *pure advisor*.
- A model of pure advising
  - Fixed investment  $I$ , entrepreneur's own funds  $A < I$ .
  - Success probability is  $p + q$ 
    - Entrepreneur determines  $p \in \{p_H, p_L\}$  and earns  $B$  when misbehaving.
    - Advisor determines  $q \in \{q_H, q_L = 0\}$  and incurs non-verifiable cost  $c$  to give a useful advice raising success probability by  $q_H$ .
  - Suppose advising is socially efficient:
$$(\Delta q)R = q_H R > c.$$
  - Crucial difference between entrepreneur and advisor: Entrepreneur owns the idea and decides whether or not to hire advisor.
  - Benchmark: no advisor.
    - Funding if  $A \geq \bar{A} = I - p_H(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p})$
    - Borrower's utility:  $U_b^{nm} = p_H R - I$ .



- Suppose that advisors' capital is abundant.
- In case of success, entrepreneur receives  $R_b$ , advisor  $R_m$ , and other investors  $R - R_b - R_m$ .
- Advisor's incentive constraint binding:  $R_m = \frac{c}{\Delta q}$ .
- Investment demanded from advisor:

$$I_m = (p_H + q_H)R_m - c = (p_H + q_H) \frac{c}{\Delta q} - c$$

- Borrower's utility equals NPV, since advisor does not receive rent:  $U_b^m = (p_H + q_H)R - I - c$ .
- The entrepreneur prefers advising as long as she can afford it, since  $U_b^m > U_b^{nm}$ .
- But does advising make funding easier?
- Other investors' breakeven constraint with advising:

$$(p_H + q_H)\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p} - \frac{c}{\Delta q}\right) \geq I - A - I_m \Leftrightarrow$$

$$(p_H + q_H)\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}\right) - c \geq I - A \Leftrightarrow$$

$$A \geq \hat{A} = I - (p_H + q_H)\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}\right) + c$$

- Funding facilitated by advising if and only if

$$q_H\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}\right) > c$$

- Two cases

- If  $q_H R > c > q_H\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}\right)$ , then advising increases NPV but makes funding more difficult. Advisor hired by strong firms only.
- If  $q_H\left(R - \frac{B}{\Delta p}\right) > c$ , then advising helps on funding. Advisor hired by all funded firms.

## A monitor arising endogenously

- Suppose, instead of the entrepreneur enlisting him (a *private deal*), the monitor needs to arise through share purchases in the stock market.
- To start with, external shares are held by dispersed owners.
- A potential large monitor makes *an unconditional and unrestricted tender offer* of price  $P$  per share on all external shares.
  - Unconditional and unrestricted: the offer stands irrespective of how many shares it attracts.
- A free-rider problem
  - Getting a monitor enhances the value of the firm.
  - Selling to the potential monitor supplies a public good to other current share owners.
- In order to attract any shares, the potential monitor has to offer a price corresponding to the ex post value of the firm.
- The potential monitor has himself to bear the full cost of monitoring.
- In equilibrium, there will no monitoring.
- Ways to monitoring in equilibrium
  - Liquidity traders, making it possible for the potential monitor to disguise his offer.
  - Risk aversion among current investors.
  - The entrepreneur selling shares.

## Learning by lending

- An additional effect from monitoring
  - Not only alleviating the moral hazard problem
  - But also providing the monitor with information about the borrower that the monitor can profit from later on.
- Competition among asymmetrically informed investors.
- Model: Fixed investment. Two periods. Discount factor  $\beta$ . No cash initially:  $A = 0$ . No savings between periods. Short-term contracts only.
- Date 1: Entrepreneur has a project requiring  $I > 0$ . Private benefit without monitoring,  $B$ , is large: no funding unless a monitor is enlisted. With monitor, private benefit  $b < B$ . No scarcity of monitors.
  - Assume pledgeable income sufficient even with no continuation project:

$$p_H(R - \frac{b}{\Delta p}) \geq I + c$$

- Date 2: Independently of what happens at date 1, the entrepreneur has a new project, statistically independent of the first project, and identical to it, with one difference:
  - With probability  $\alpha$ , the date-2 profitability is high: success probability has increased uniformly by  $\tau$ . If the entrepreneur behaves, the success probability is  $p_H + \tau$ , if not, it is  $p_L + \tau$ . But  $B$  is so large that the project still gets no funding without monitoring.
  - With probability  $(1 - \alpha)$ , the success probabilities are unchanged from date 1.

- Symmetric information: no-one learns date-2 profitability. No gain to the borrower from having the same monitor in both periods.
- Asymmetric information: only the date-1 monitor (the incumbent) learns date-2 profitability.
  - Suppose the entrepreneur auctions off the position as active monitor.
  - The incumbent has an informational advantage.
  - Sequential-move bidding game where incumbent moves last: pure-strategy equilibrium.
    - Stage 1 of date-2 bidding game: Entrepreneur offers a monitor a stake  $R_m^2 = c/\Delta p$  in the date-2 project and seeks bids of investment contribution  $I_m^2$  for the position of active monitor.
    - Stage 2: New investors bid.
    - Stage 3: Incumbent monitor bids.
    - Stage 4: Uninformed investors contribute the residual investment:  $I - I_m^2$ .
  - Adverse selection: it never pays for uninformed investors to bid according to a higher date-2 success probability than  $p_H$ ; if it is in fact higher, uninformed bidders will be outbid.
  - Monitor investment at date 2:
 
$$I_m^2 = p_H R_m^2 - c = p_H \frac{c}{\Delta p} - c$$
  - Date 1: Because of the expected informational rent at date 2, investors are willing to contribute up to
 
$$I_m^1 = p_H \frac{c}{\Delta p} + \beta \alpha \tau \frac{c}{\Delta p} - c = (p_L + \beta \alpha \tau) \frac{c}{\Delta p}$$
  - The monitor position acquired at a premium and maintained at a discount.

- Discussion: Learning by lending
  - Endogenous date-2 profitability: a *hold-up problem*
    - Suppose the entrepreneur, through an effort, can affect the chance of increased date-2 profitability. The incumbent monitor's informational advantage deteriorates the entrepreneur's incentives to perform.
  - Empirical studies indicate a value to being associated with a long-term investor.
    - Firms with close ties to investors are less liquidity constrained than others.
    - Firms with a bank relationship observe positive reactions in stock price.
  - The possibility of commitment.
  - The entrepreneur's own knowledge about date-2 profitability.
  - Competition among investors: with imperfect competition among available investors, the possibility for the monitor to recoup expenses later on is further increased, facilitating funding at date 1 even more.
    - Empirical evidence: concentrated banking markets may facilitate funding for weak firms.

## Liquidity needs among monitors

- Tradeoff: commitment vs liquidity
- Comparative corporate governance
  - Market-based systems: lack of investor commitment
  - Bank-based systems: lack of investor liquidity
- A monitor may have liquidity needs before project returns arrive. Liquidity vs accountability – just as with the borrower (chapter 4).
  - Late compensation to the monitor is good for accountability, since more information about the project is known, but bad for monitor liquidity.
- Performance measures along the way may give the monitor an exit option.
  - A role for *passive monitoring* in providing liquidity to the active monitor.
- A model of monitor liquidity
  - Basic model of investor activism, with monitor liquidity needs added.
- Fixed-investment model. Risk neutral entrepreneur has asset  $A$  and a project needing  $I > A$  at date 0. Project yields  $R$  if success, 0 if failure, at date 2. Success probability  $p_H$  or  $p_L$ .
- At date 1, the monitor faces a liquidity shock with probability  $\lambda$ : An investment opportunity transforming an intermediate compensation  $r_m$  into  $\mu r_m$ , where  $\mu > 1$ .
- Strategic exit: the monitor may choose to exit even without a liquidity shock.

- Imperfect performance measurement at date 1: After the monitor learns about the liquidity shock, speculative information arrives which is informative about effort, but which is *not* a sufficient statistic: the final outcome is even more informative.

- The probability of an  $H$  signal is  $q_H$  with effort and  $q_L$  without effort, where

$$\frac{q_H - q_L}{q_H} < \frac{p_H - p_L}{p_H}$$

- Scarce monitoring capital

- Monitor earns a gross surplus  $U_m = \kappa I_m$ , where  $\kappa \geq \lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda$  is the monitor's return on alternative investments.

- *Illiquid contract*: Monitor receives  $R_m$  at date 2, if success, and nothing at date 1.

- Participation constraint of monitor:  $p_H R_m - c = \kappa I_m$
- Incentive constraint of monitor:  $R_m \geq \frac{c}{\Delta p}$
- The cost of enlisting an active monitor exceeds the cost of monitoring

$$C^{IL} = p_H R_m - I_m = \frac{p_H - p_L}{p_H - p_L} \kappa c \geq c$$

- Borrower's utility:  $U_b = p_H R - I - C^{IL}$
- Pledgeable income:  $p_H(R - \frac{b}{\Delta p}) - C^{IL}$

- *Liquid contract*:  $\{r_m, R_m\}$ . The monitor receives
  - $r_m$  at date 1 if signal is  $H$  and nothing at date 2, in the case of a liquidity shock.
  - $R_m$  on date 2 if success and nothing at date 1, in the case of no liquidity shock.
- Assume  $p_L$  is so low that, if he does not monitor, the active monitor prefers receiving  $r_m$  than waiting for an unlikely  $R_m$ , even without a liquidity shock.

- Without monitoring, he earns

$$\lambda\mu q_L r_m + (1 - \lambda)q_L R_m = [\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda]q_L r_m$$

- Truth-telling constraint when there is no liquidity shock:

$$p_H R_m \geq q_H r_m$$

- With monitoring, the active monitor earns

$$U_m = \lambda q_H \mu r_m + (1 - \lambda)p_H R_m - c$$

- Incentive constraint for the monitor:

$$\lambda q_H \mu r_m + (1 - \lambda)p_H R_m - c \geq [\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda]q_L r_m$$

- The constraint is binding, and so the monitor earns

$$U_m = [\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda]q_L r_m$$

- The cost of hiring the monitor with a liquid contract is

$$\begin{aligned} C^L &= \lambda q_H r_m + (1 - \lambda)p_H R_m - I_m = \\ &= \lambda\mu q_H r_m + (1 - \lambda)p_H R_m - \lambda(\mu - 1)q_H r_m - I_m = \\ &= U_m + c - \frac{U_m}{\kappa} - \lambda(\mu - 1)q_H r_m = \\ &= c + r_m \left[ \left(1 - \frac{1}{\kappa}\right)(\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda)q_L - \lambda(\mu - 1)q_H \right] = \\ &= c + K r_m > c \text{ if and only if } K > 0. \end{aligned}$$



- Providing the monitor with liquidity – that is, giving him a liquid contract – is optimal if  $C^L < C^{LL}$ .

- Simple case:  $p_L = 0 \rightarrow C^{LL} = c$ .
- We have  $C^L < c = C^{LL}$  if and only if

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{\kappa}\right)(\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda)q_L < \lambda(\mu - 1)q_H \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\frac{q_H - q_L}{q_H} > \frac{1}{\kappa - 1} \left( \frac{\kappa}{\lambda\mu + 1 - \lambda} - 1 \right)$$

- The liquid contract is more likely to be the optimal one when

- The monitor's liquidity shock is likely:  $\lambda$  high
- The value of the monitor's reinvestment opportunity is high:  $\mu$  high
- Speculative information is of high quality:

$$\frac{q_H - q_L}{q_H} \text{ high}$$

- Speculative activity helps in providing liquidity for large, monitoring shareholders.
- Monitoring capital is not too scarce:  $\kappa$  low
  - When scarcity is high, too much of the benefit from liquidity is kept by the monitor and not returned to the entrepreneur.