

What is the differential impact of corporate environmental liabilities on the short-term profitability vs. long-term financial outcomes of publicly listed firms in the U.S.? – A Deep Dive across Industries

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Abstract

This study examines the financial impact of corporate environmental liabilities on publicly listed companies in the U.S. It analyses the long-term impact on revenue and EBIT using a fixed-effects panel regression and the short-term impact on stock returns using an event study. The findings reveal a statistically significant negative long-term impact of penalties on revenue, indicating that the financial consequences are driven primarily by reputational damage rather than a direct effect on profitability (as measured by EBIT). No statistically significant short-term impact on stock returns was observed. Furthermore, additional perspectives across different types of violations, industries and company sizes offer further insights into the topic.

Corporate Environmental Liabilities, Environmental Violation, Violation Tracker, Financial Impact

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1. Introduction

In recent decades, the need to achieve a balance between environmental protection and economic development has gained global attention, and environmental issues such as pollution and natural resource depletion take center stage in corporate decision making (D. Li et al. 2017). Corporations, particularly those with significant environmental footprints, are facing increasing scrutiny from stakeholders, regulators, investors, and consumers, demanding responsible environmental practices (Negash and Lemma 2020). Furthermore, it has become mandatory for companies to include environmental, social and governance (ESG) measurement standards into their reporting (Barman 2018). Regulatory frameworks, such as the European Union's Green Deal and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) regulations, require companies to lower carbon emissions, manage waste appropriately, and adopt sustainable operations (European Commission 2021; Environmental Protection Agency 2024). Non-compliance with regulations can result in significant environmental liabilities including fines, legal settlements, and costly remediation efforts (Environmental Protection Agency 2024). For instance, in 2021, the EPA's enforcement actions resulted in approximately \$1,500 million in penalties, stressing the magnitude of penalties issued in only a year (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2022). Among them, companies in the U.S. seem to especially violate the Clean Air Act, resulting in a much higher average count of air pollution violations (approximately 105 per year) compared to other violations averaging around 20 per year. Notably, the company Toyota faced a large fine of \$180 million for failing to report air emission-related defects and consequently violating the U.S. Clean Air Act (Gitlin 2024). Logically, such environmental liabilities could have a severe impact on a company, including their financial performance, their corporate reputation or many other aspects (Y. Li, Richardson, and Thornton 1997). However, existing literature on the relationship between paying corporate environmental penalties and the financial performance of companies is limited and reveals inconsistencies in findings. Studies

often present divergent findings due to different definitions and methodologies applied in the analyses (Horváthová 2010). For instance, while some studies state a positive impact of environmental regulation and innovation (Clarkson, Overell, and Chapple 2011), others highlight significant short-term financial burdens (Lioui and Sharma 2012; D. Li et al. 2017). Additionally, the current literature does not compare the short-term impact of environmental penalties to a longer term effect on company financials. Furthermore, the matter of environmental penalties has not yet been examined taking other influential factors and characteristics into consideration. Therefore, it is interesting to break down the topic by the most common types of violations, the most frequently violating industries, as well as differentiating companies according to their size.

Overall, companies with a poor environmental performance might experience diminished financial outcomes due to the costs involved of penalties and as society grows more cautious on company activities (Clarkson, Overell, and Chapple 2011). Negative environmental practices could lead to public backlash, damaging a company's brand and eroding long-term customer trust (Bebbington, Larrinaga, and Moneva 2008). Consequently, it seems to be crucial for companies to effectively manage environmental liabilities to maintain organizational stability and a sustainable reputation. This study examines the relationship between corporate environmental liabilities in the form of environmental penalties and their potential impact on the financial performance of public companies in the United States (U.S.). The overarching hypothesis of this study is that there is a differential short-term versus long-term impact. It is assumed that while the short-term effect, which can be observed in an instant around the announcement of a penalty payment, does influence a company's stock price performance, whereas no long-term effect can be discovered. The findings of this study reveal that in the long-term penalties actually seem to be associated with a slight negative effect on revenue, likely due to indirect reputational damage. On the other hand, the impact on financial

profitability, measured as EBIT, appears to be negligible. In the short term no actual financial impact can be observed, potentially due to stock prices around the event being influenced by many other external factors. Furthermore, performing deep dives across different violation types, industries, and company sizes reveals that air pollution and hazardous waste violations do reduce top-line performance, while other violation types rather affect the profitability of companies. Also, companies operating in the manufacturing industry as well as smaller companies seem to be particularly vulnerable, whereas companies in other industries or of larger size show greater resilience.

To conduct the analysis, a quantitative research methodology was chosen. To analyze the long-term effect the methodology of a fixed effect panel regression analysis was selected in order to be able to control for multiple companies across many years. To analyze the short-term effect, an event study regression analysis was applied using abnormal returns around the penalty date and comparing them to the historic expected returns. The data for the analyses was gathered from the Violation Tracker – containing information on penalties imposed per company – as well as from the financial database of the Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS). Furthermore, ESG data from Kaggle was added to retrieve more information on the environmental performance of companies. Additionally, event study data containing stock returns around the penalty dates was retrieved using the WRDS event study system. In the analysis, data between 2000 and 2022 was considered, since for all years following no sufficient financial information can be retrieved.

This paper is structured into six chapters. This first chapter sets the background to the study and gives reasoning to why researching the impact of corporate environmental violations on financial performance is insightful. In chapter two, a literature review conceptualizes the theory of corporate environmental liabilities and defines how such will be considered in the context of this study. Then, the development and current landscape of environmental regulations will be

reviewed and context for later deep dives into different types of violations, violations across industries as well as different company sizes will be given. Consecutively, gaps in current literature are identified and will shed some light on the relevance of this study. Chapter three starts by outlining the data cleaning and merging process, ensuring the dataset is properly prepared and aligned for subsequent analysis. Furthermore, a detailed explanation of the study's methodology is provided, including the rationale for selecting a fixed-effect panel regression analysis and an event study regression. In chapter four, first a comprehensive and descriptive overview of the entire data is provided. Then, the results from both regression analyses on the entire sample are presented and interpreted. Subsequently, chapter five will focus on differences in the results across the above-mentioned deep-dives, increasing the depth and thoroughness of this study and proving the high relevance of other factors in the context of this analysis. Finally, chapter six will conclude the study and suggests applicable recommendations as well as potential opportunities for further research within this subject.

2. Literature Review

This chapter discusses the theoretical background of corporate environmental liabilities and reviews the current state of academic research on this topic. First, the concept of corporate environmental liabilities will be clearly defined. Next, the historical development of the environmental regulatory framework in the U.S. and the current regulatory landscape is laid out. The following section examines existing literature on whether corporate environmental liabilities have an impact on companies' financial performance. Finally, the last three sub-chapters will give context to why it is insightful to perform the later deep-dives across specific kinds of violation, different industries as well as companies of different size.

2.1 Conceptualization of Corporate Environmental Liabilities (CEL)

The concept of corporate environmental liabilities originally is based on the expectations that arise with a general corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Carroll 1991). CSR refers to the obligation of businesses to operate in a way that benefits society and the environment, rather than singularly focusing on profit. A key aspect of CSR is environmental responsibility, where companies are expected to minimize their negative impact on the environment by following certain laws, and thereby reducing pollution and managing resources sustainably (Freeman 2010). Failing to meet such environmental expectations sets the stone for corporate environmental liabilities, which could be either financial or legal consequences that companies face under violation (Carroll 1991). These liabilities can take various forms, including monetary fines or penalties imposed on the company by regulatory bodies, compliance costs associated with meeting environmental standards, compensation obligations due to environmental damage, or damages awarded in lawsuits (Corporate Finance Institute 2024). A company could face fines for exceeding emission limits or a compensation payment due to environmental damage in certain regions caused by hazardous waste spills. By failing to integrate environmental considerations into their operations, companies expose themselves to financials

risks, which in turn can affect their profitability or reputation. Therefore, from a company point of view, environmental responsibility is not only an ethical obligation but in principle a strategic consideration (Gabel and Sinclair-Desgagné 1993).

2.2 Development of Environmental Regulatory Landscape in the U.S.

The historical development of modern U.S. environmental regulations and policies can be traced back to a few critical milestones that laid the groundwork for current corporate environmental accountability. Herein, the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), which was published in 1969, can be viewed as the foundational statute. It required federal agencies to assess the environmental impact of their actions, thereby holding public as well as private companies accountable for environmental harm resulting from their business practices (Anderson 2013). As NEPA was directed at federal agencies instead of corporations, its impact on the American corporate environment was indirect and therefore limited. Nevertheless, it proposed a first official regulatory framework, raising overall public awareness on the need of environmental reporting and disclosure (Bagby, Murray, and Andrews 1995). Building up on NEPA, the Clean Air Act (CAA) and the Clean Water Act (CWA) were introduced in the years 1970 and 1972 respectively (Melnick 2010; Downing, Winer, and Wood 2003). The new acts were a direct response to many environmental crises that showcased the consequences of an unregulated industry. The regulations presented a shift towards a more proactive environmental management, where non-compliance of corporations resulted in legal actions and substantial fines, which consequently posed a critical financial risk to businesses (Bagby, Murray, and Andrews 1995). While above regulations were established to regulate environmental issues concerning air and water pollution, the consecutively introduced Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) of 1976 further expanded corporate environmental responsibility by regulating the disposal of hazardous waste (Kovacs and Klucsik 1976). Following these developments, in the 1980 the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and

Liability Act (CERCLA) was established. This act, which was also called “Superfund”, imposed a tax on the chemical and petroleum industries that was automatically paid into a trust fund for cleaning up abandoned hazardous waste sites (Barr 1990). Overall, the most pivotal moment that supported the governance of environmental regulation compliance was the establishment of the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in 1970. The EPA became the central authority responsible for enforcing regulations mentioned above, such as the CAA and the CWA and other regulations (Messer, Linthurst, and Overton 1991). To support the overall awareness, these agencies provide public access to databases containing information of firm’s compliance, making transparency an integral part of the regulatory landscape (Cohen 1998). EPA enforcement actions, such as fines and litigations, have significantly increased the financial and reputational risk of firms that fail to comply with required standards, intensifying corporate accountability in the U.S. environmental domain.

The current regulatory framework in the U.S. builds upon the above-mentioned historical developments and can be considered as very comprehensive measure to ensure corporate accountability (Heitz, Wang, and Wang 2023). To give context to the specific environmental regulations holding companies accountable, this section describes the most relevant in more detail. The CWA is an important regulation with the goal to restore and maintain water quality by regulating the discharge of pollutants into surface waters such as rivers, lakes and streams. One part of it includes the implementation of pollution control like setting wastewater standards for industries. Furthermore the act prohibits the discharge of pollutants from a point source into navigable waters without a permit, which is regulated by the EPA's National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2024). The CAA on the other hand regulates air emissions and authorizes the EPA to set National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) to protect public health and welfare. Achieving the NAAQS was one of the main goals of this act. The Act also mandates State

Implementation Plans to meet these standards and requires the EPA to regulate hazardous air pollutants through maximum achievable control technologies for major sources of pollution (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2024). The RCRA is a law that takes care of hazardous and non-hazardous solid waste. Its main goal is to protect the environment and human health, conserve natural resources and reduce waste. Therefore it created a framework for right handling, storage, treatment and disposal of waste, with a particular focus on hazardous waste (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2024). Lastly, CERCLA was enacted to handle the release of hazardous waste that may be dangerous for the environment and public health. It imposes a tax on the chemical and petroleum industries, which is invested in a trust fund for the cleanup of abandoned or uncontrolled hazardous waste sites. (United States Environmental Protection Agency 2024).

2.3 Impact of Corporate Environmental Liabilities on Financial Performance

The financial performance of a firm is of great importance for stakeholders, investors and the overall economy. To assess good financial performance, several indicators are commonly used stemming from many studies and frameworks. Common measurements to assess financial performance are profitability and liquidity ratios, growth indicators or the cash flow of a company. A well-performing company can deliver higher dividends, share price appreciation, and overall a better profitability among others (Mirza 2013). Additionally, a financially successful business enhances employee income, provides higher quality products to consumers, and is better positioned to adopt environmentally friendly production practices (Mirza 2013). Reviewing current literature on the financial performance, numerous factors have been identified that can generally have either a positive or negative effect on final company results (Clarkson et al. 2011).

For instance, a meta-regression analysis of 64 outcomes from 37 empirical studies showed, that the impact of environmental regulations on financial performance is complex and varies

depending on numerous factors like the type of legal system, the time coverage or the kind of empirical method conducted (Horváthová 2010). Several of the papers considered in this meta-regression analysis argue that regulations can positively impact a firms' financial performance by driving innovation and encouraging companies to develop new and more efficient technologies. Conversely, some empirical studies point to a short-term negative relationship, often attributed to factors such as pollution control and environmental improvements, which tend to yield diminishing marginal net benefits over time. Furthermore, the analysis shows that a negative relationship between environmental and financial performance increases when simple correlation coefficients are used instead of more advanced econometric methods or when portfolio studies are conducted, likely due to the omission of important influencing factors in their analyses.

Additionally, evidence from a study covering 478 events from 1980 to 2000 highlights the immediate financial consequences of environmental violations (Karpoff, Lott, Jr., and Wehrly 2005). Firms investigated or accused of violating environmental regulations saw statistically significant and economically substantial short-term declines in common share values, with abnormal stock returns dropping by -1.69% following violation announcements. This empirical evidence demonstrates that news of environmental violations corresponds directly to shareholder losses, indicating the severe market repercussions of regulatory non-compliance for a small sample between 1980 to 2000 (Karpoff, Lott, Jr., and Wehrly 2005).

Overall, companies with stronger financial resources and advanced management capabilities are better positioned to invest in sustainability initiatives and leverage their strategic advantages for environmental innovation. According to a recent study, proactive corporate environmental policies leading to less environmental liabilities, might be indeed interrelated with financial success (Clarkson et al. 2011). This study models the causal link between a firm's environmental performance and their financial resources. Improvements in environmental

performance were shown to enhance financial performance, indicating that effectively managing environmental liabilities could increase financial returns. The study concludes that the positive link between environmental and financial performance is robust, giving firms that adopt green strategies a competitive advantage, though such strategies are not easily replicated by all companies (Clarkson et al. 2011).

However, it can be assumed that not all companies equally benefit from more proactively engaging in environmental practices. The positive effect of corporate environmental responsibility on the financial performance of the firms is often questioned due to the substantial upfront investments that businesses are required to make (Li et al. 2017). Zhao and Murrell (2016) reveal that corporate environmental performance does not always positively affect corporate financial performance, emphasizing the complexity of the relationship between the two (Zhao and Murrell 2016). Reviewing the long-term financial performance, engaging in environmental corporate social responsibility (ECSR) negatively affects firms' ROA. The median ROA stands at 4%, but firms that focus on ECSR strengths see a reduction of 0.8%, while those having ECSR concerns experience a decrease of 0.6%. Hence this is showing that nearly a quarter of the median ROA is absorbed by ECSR activities, highlighting the financial burden of ECSR initiatives (Lioui and Sharma 2012).

2.4 Implications of Environmental Violations by Type

Analyzing environmental violations without considering their specific types may cause significant differences in their financial implications. Different violation types - such as air pollution, water pollution, and hazardous waste violations- are subject to distinct regulatory penalties (see chapter 2.2), remediation costs, and levels of public concern. For instance, air pollution violations, often linked to climate change, can lead to substantial reputational damage due to heightened media scrutiny and public awareness (Konar and Cohen 1997). In contrast, hazardous waste violations may result in higher cleanup costs and legal liabilities because of

their potential for long-term environmental and health impacts (Hamilton 1995). Additionally, the extent of the monetary penalty amount as well as the frequency might differ across different kinds of violations. Therefore, a disaggregated analysis is essential to accurately understand the unique financial effects associated with each violation type, enabling more targeted corporate strategies and policy interventions.

2.5 Industry Implications of Environmental Regulations

Recent literature highlights that the impact of environmental regulations varies significantly across industries. It becomes evident that this can be primarily attributed to differences in key factors such as pollution intensity, or the regulatory burden of specific industries. Industries that are highly pollution-intensive, such as manufacturing, energy, and chemicals, tend to face stricter regulatory oversight and higher overall compliance costs (Gray and Shadbegian 2003). Conversely, industries with lower pollution profiles, such as technology or finance, typically experience fewer regulatory burdens (Ambec et al. 2013). Subsequently, it could be assumed that the impact that such environmental regulations have on specific companies might vary across different industries. For instance, research on the motor vehicle industry has demonstrated that stringent environmental regulations significantly influence where companies choose to operate, as they seek regions with more lenient regulatory frameworks to minimize compliance costs and maximize profitability (McConnell and Schwab 1990). Similarly, studies analyzing the effects of air quality regulations reveal that polluting industries, especially those with high emissions such as manufacturing or energy sectors, are more sensitive to local regulatory environments (Becker and Henderson 2000). Furthermore, some studies state that higher pollution industries actually face significantly higher compliance costs, potentially affecting their financial performance to a larger extent than other industries (Gollop and Roberts 1983; Gray and Shadbegian 2003).

2.6 Implications of Company Characteristics on Environmental Performance

Generally, company characteristics such as a company's ownership structure, corporate governance practices, the size of a company or its financial leverage can have an impact on the environmental practices of a company (Darnall, Henriques, and Sadorsky 2010). First of all, the ownership structure of companies affects how they respond to environmental liabilities, since publicly listed companies face greater pressure from shareholders and regulatory bodies, which increases the impact of environmental violations on stock performance for instance (Sharfman and Fernando 2008). In contrast, private companies might experience less public scrutiny but could be more adversely affected by financial penalties due to limited access to capital markets (Delmas and Toffel 2008). Furthermore, corporate governance practices are crucial in managing environmental risks, as robust governance structures enable firms to better identify and mitigate such risks (Berrone et al. 2013). Effective governance promotes transparency and accountability which could help mitigate damage resulting from environmental incidents (Russo and Fouts 1997). Next, also the financial leverage influences a firm's ability to absorb costs associated with environmental penalties. Highly leveraged companies have less financial flexibility, making it more challenging to address financial burdens related to environmental penalties (Sharfman and Fernando 2008). Last, the size of a company affects its capacity to effectively manage environmental liabilities and regulatory requirements. Larger firms are typically better equipped to invest in advanced environmental technologies and compliance programs, which can reduce the frequency and especially severity of violations (Darnall, Henriques, and Sadorsky 2010). This resource advantage may protect them against the negative financial impacts of penalties, whereas smaller companies might lack such resources, making them more prone to financial damage resulting from environmental liabilities (Sharfman and Fernando 2008).

In addition to general company characteristics, firms recognize that strong ESG performance, reflected in ESG scores, is crucial for sustained success. High scores indicate a focus on long-term shareholder value over short-term gains (Tarmuji, Maelah, and Tarmuji 2016). There are different well known ESG ratings, like Bloomberg, Morgan Stanley Capital International (MSCI) and Thomson Reuters. They all aim to provide transparent and objective measures of a company's relative ESG performance, commitment and effectiveness. Usually, companies get assigned letter grades or a specific score representing their performance over the years. For example, Thomson Reuters evaluates a subset of 178 key ESG measures across 10 categories including among others: the use of resources, company emissions, social factors like workforce management and human rights, and governance aspects including management, shareholders, and CSR strategy using company-reported information (Thomson Reuters 2018).

2.7 Gaps in Current Literature

Several papers have described the relationship between environmental responsibility and financial performance, with somewhat different results. Although empirical studies have demonstrated a significant relationship between corporate environmental performance and financial success, the evidence remains inconsistent regarding whether a reduction in environmental liabilities consistently improves a firm's financial performance (Clarkson et al. 2011). The variation in existing studies can be attributed to several factors. Many studies suffer from limitations such as small sample sizes, the absence of standardized environmental criteria, and differences in firm size or geographic location. Additionally, some studies fail to account for key variables that influence profitability. These inconsistencies are often driven by methodological differences and unclear definitions of both financial and environmental metrics, which lead to inconclusive results across studies (Horváthová 2010). Furthermore, current literature does also not specify a differential impact of a short-term versus long-term effect of the liabilities on financials. Additionally, most studies treat environmental violations as a

homogenous category, neglecting the unique impact that specific types of violations might have. Disaggregating CELs by type could increase the understanding of the topic and help to identify the most impactful violation types. The same can be stated for the different industries in which companies that are being fined operate in. High-pollution industries, such as manufacturing or energy, face more stringent regulations and could therefore have a much different relevance in the context of environmental violations. Understanding how CELs impact companies across different industries enables a more tailored analysis and could increase effectiveness in the future.

3 Methodology

This chapter will elaborate on the methodology employed in this study. First, the data collection process will be outlined, followed by a detailed explanation of the merging procedure. A testing phase was conducted on the final merged dataset to ensure its reliability and accuracy; details of this process can be found in Appendix A. Then, the research design will be explained, and the scope of the study will be narrowed down. In the following step, the statistical methods chosen will be explained in more detail.

3.1 Data Collection and Cleaning

The data for this study was gathered from multiple sources, including the Compustat database of the Wharton Research Data Services (WRDS), as well as Violation Tracker (VT) and finally Kaggle. The Stata code used for this analysis is available as supplementary material accompanying this study.

To account for the environmental liabilities a dataset from Violation Tracker (VT) has been taken into consideration. The VT is a comprehensive database that aggregates information on corporate misconduct across the U.S., detailing violations and penalties incurred by businesses in various industries. The platform serves as a vital resource, promoting transparency and accountability in corporate behavior (Good Jobs First 2024). The dataset comprises companies headquartered in 56 different countries, with over 78% of the violations conducted from companies headquartered in the U.S. In total it contains 655,200 violations from 1st of January 2000 until the 27th of September 2024 and 50 different variables specifying the type and exact reporting date of violation among others. Moreover, the Violation Tracker reports violations for publicly listed as well as private companies. This analysis is limited to the observations with headquarter in the U.S. (552,469 observations dropped) and the years between 2000 and 2022, and therefore all observations from the beginning of the year 2023 onwards are removed (6,660 observations dropped). The dataset contains various types of violations beyond environmental

violations (Table 1), which is why only the relevant violations (environmental-related offenses) will be retained (79,444 observations dropped).

Table 1: Overview of Offense Groups in the United States (2000 – 2022)

	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Competition-related Offenses	1,099	1.144	1.144
Consumer-protection-related Offenses	7,144	7.436	8.580
Employment-related Offenses	9,360	9.743	18.323
Environment-related Offenses	16,627	17.307	35.630
Financial Offenses	2,156	2.244	37.874
Government-contracting-related Offenses	1,258	1.309	39.184
Healthcare-related Offenses	8,421	8.765	47.949
Miscellaneous Offenses	28	0.029	47.978
Safety-related Offenses	49,978	52.022	100
Total observations	96,071	100	

Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024.

Subsequently, all relevant variables are retained including: “penalty_year”, “penalty_date”, “current_parent_name”, “penalty_adjusted”, “primary_offense”, “current_parent_stock_ticker”, and “reporting_date_parent”. Following this, some variables were renamed in order to facilitate the merge later. Then, the ticker and year needed to be cleaned and formatted correctly and tickers without any value or zero are removed from the dataset (4,182 observations dropped). Last, all observations with an empty penalty amount are dropped since they are not relevant to this study (359 observations dropped). The following table gives an overview of the descriptive statistics of the penalty amount (Table 2).

Table 2: Summary Statistics of Penalty Amount

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Penalty Amount	12,086	3,255.876	72,000	0.408	5,150,000

Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024 in thousand USD (\$0,000).

To account for the companies which have switched their parent company after the violation occurred, a second dataset from VT is taken into consideration. This dataset contains 3,087

observations and 4 variables including the parent company during the violation announcement, the historical ticker of this parent company, the central index key (CIK) and the international security identification number (ISIN). The location of the reporting date company is generated from the ISIN data, retaining only U.S.-based companies (956 observations dropped). Additionally, the ticker variable is adjusted and cleaned again and only the historical ticker and reporting date company information are kept for subsequent merging.

Firm-specific financial data is provided by the data platform powered by the WRDS, which grants academic and professional users access to a comprehensive collection of financial information. Compustat Fundamentals, accessible through WRDS, delivers standardized financial statements and market data for more than 80,000 active and inactive publicly traded companies across North America (and a few other countries), serving as a trusted resource for financial professionals for half a decade (Wharton Research Data 2024a). For the purpose of this study two separate datasets with data from the year 2000 up until 2022 were downloaded from WRDS. The first dataset contains 220,777 unique entries, already filtered for Northern American companies only, including 15 variables such as the year, ticker, parent company name and various annual financials (Earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT), total revenue, etc.). For further analysis, only essential data was retained from this dataset. Therefore, entries without a ticker (private companies) or without a year have been removed (93 observations dropped). Furthermore, to be coherent all rows with a year entry below the year 2000 were removed (1,394 observations dropped). Finally, the variable “comn” was renamed to “parentcompany” to ensure consistency with the other datasets and only the columns for the year, ticker, parent company, revenue, asset value, and EBIT were preserved.

Following the same procedure, several financial ratios for firms in Northern America have been downloaded from WRDS. The platform provides access to more than 70 pre-calculated financial ratios, organized into eight main categories, including valuation, liquidity, and

profitability, among others (Wharton Research Data 2024b). Users have the option to obtain both firm-level and industry-level ratios through a simple point-and-click interface in the web query. In the context of this study, only firm-level ratios have been selected. This second dataset includes 11 variables and a total of 1,159,868 observations. Several cleaning steps are required to prepare the data for merging with other datasets. Since year and ticker will be used as merging keys later, a new column for the year was created by extracting the first four characters from the “public_date” variable and storing them in a year column. All rows without an entry for year and ticker needed to be dropped (26,418 observations dropped). As later explained in chapter 3.1 the financial data from these two datasets will be used as key indicators for the financial performance of companies in the analysis.

The next dataset that was retrieved is a CSV file containing public company ESG ratings from Kaggle (Kaggle 2024). This dataset contains ESG scores and ratings for 722 publicly traded companies across various industries in Northern America. Each row in the dataset represents a single company and key columns include basic company information, environmental, social, and governance scores, as well as overall ESG ratings. ESG performance is assessed using numerical scores (where a higher score indicates better performance), letter grades (e.g., AAA), and categorical levels (e.g., High, Medium, Low). This setup enables analysis of ESG distribution across industries and its relationship with financial metrics like profitability and stock returns. Similar to the previous dataset, the ticker names in this dataset have been cleaned, and only the essential columns relevant to this study - namely ticker, company name, total level, and total grade - have been retained.

For the subsequent event study, a tool from WRDS is used. A file containing the tickers and event dates for all violations in the dataset, is prepared and uploaded. This file is created by extracting relevant information from the merged dataset, as explained in chapter 3.2. The tool generates a new file with the abnormal returns for each event day. After excluding missing

abnormal return values (942 observations dropped), the average abnormal returns ("mean_aret") and cumulative abnormal returns ("car") are calculated for each combination of ticker and event date. Duplicates are then removed to retain only one record per event (16,245 observations dropped). Finally, the variable names are adjusted to align with the merging process for the violation dataset and stock returns used in the short-term analysis.

3.2 Data Merging Process

The integration of different datasets is a crucial step in this study, as it allows for a comprehensive analysis of financial performance, environmental violations, and ESG ratings. Initially, the cleaned fundamental financial dataset from Compustat was loaded. In this dataset, financial metrics such as revenues, total assets and EBIT were aggregated by year and ticker symbol. This aggregation involved calculating total revenues and assets to ensure that the data reflected the consolidated financial performance of parent companies on a yearly basis. Then, duplicates were identified and removed (11 observations dropped).

Next, the consolidated dataset is combined with the dataset from WRDS containing monthly financial ratios. To prepare this data for annual analysis, the yearly averages of each ratio for every company were calculated. To ensure each company-year combination is unique, all duplicate entries based on the ticker and year variables were removed, resulting in the deletion of 1,031,303 redundant observations. Next, columns with monthly ratio variables were excluded from the dataset, as only annual ratios are required for further analysis. Finally, the variables are renamed to ensure consistency across all datasets. The final datasets are then merged one-to-one, utilizing the common identifiers of ticker symbol and year. Any records from the file containing financial ratios, which couldn't be merged to financial fundamentals, were discarded to maintain the integrity of the dataset (33,838 observations dropped). In this step it is ensured that all companies that might have reported on financial ratios, but no record on financial fundamentals such as revenue, are discarded from the dataset.

Before integrating the VT into the financial dataset, the two VT datasets need to be merged for a comprehensive analysis. To begin, the cleaned VT data is merged with the historical ticker data based on the reporting date, linking each company with its ticker on the announcement date of the violation (m:1 merge). Historical tickers without a corresponding reporting-date-parent company in the Violation Tracker file are removed to retain only entities, which can be useful for further analysis (1,198 observations dropped). A new ticker variable is created to reflect changes: if the parent company differs from the reporting-date parent, the variable switches to the historical ticker; otherwise, it retains the ticker from the basic cleaned file. Finally, records with missing tickers are dropped, the new ticker variable is renamed, and the dataset is saved for further analysis (1,429 observations dropped).

Subsequently, the adjusted VT dataset was integrated into the financial dataset that resulted from the previous two steps. In this step a many-to-one merge was performed using the ticker and year as identifiers. Since there can be multiple violations in the same year for the same ticker, a one-to-one merge is not possible. The merge results in the inclusion of all environmental violation data and links them to the respective parent company and year in the financial dataset. As a result of the merge, only the violations with merged financials are kept in the merged dataset (215,900 observations dropped).

Finally, the ESG ratings dataset was merged with the latest dataset containing financials as well as violation data using a many-to-one merge. Consequently, only those entities of the ESG ratings data that have a matching ticker symbol in the master data are retained, since all other companies will be irrelevant in the analysis (461 observations dropped).

Afterwards variables for revenue, EBIT, penalty amount, and assets are adjusted to ensure consistent monetary units, making them comparable across observations. In addition, the penalty amount variable is standardized by dividing it by the asset variable to make it

comparable across all companies in the dataset. For the main analyses in this study only the standardized penalty (after this paragraph referred to as penalty) is considered to be able to compare easily across companies. Considering this, the original variable for the penalty amount will be referred to as penalty non standardized. Table 3 below shows both the non-standardized and standardized penalty amounts, with the standardized penalty amount in percentage. The number of observations for the non-standardized penalty amount is lower compared to Table 2 above, as observations without any financial data were excluded. In addition, the standardized penalty amount includes 38 fewer observations than the non-standardized amount. This discrepancy results from the fact that although financial data is available for certain observations, the corresponding asset values required for standardization were missing.

Table 3: Summary Statistics of Penalty Amount (non-) standardized

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Penalty non-standardized	9,579	3,402.907	78,623.618	0.408	5,150,000
Penalty standardized	9,541	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.366

Note. – Data collected from WDRS in 2024. Penalty non-standardized in thousand USD (\$0,000) and Penalty standardized in Percentage (%).

For the short-term analysis later, the above-described dataset will be further combined with the event study dataset. The penalty amounts are aggregated by penalty date for every company, consolidating multiple penalty amounts on the same date, and duplicate entries based on “tic” and “penalty_date” are removed (539 observations dropped). Afterwards the penalty date is reformatted. The dataset is merged with the stock price data on a one-to-one basis using “penalty_date” and “tic” as key variables. Only entries with stock price data are kept (1,388 observations dropped).

3.3 Research Design

As addressed in the previous chapter, the implications of environmental regulations can have a substantial impact on the performance of companies on several dimensions. Additionally, the

awareness of the environmental impact that corporations have has risen immensely lately, which additionally puts pressure on companies to adhere to regulations. While some studies have proven that environmental regulations in fact do influence the selection of company location for instance, there is still a gap in academic research which examines the impact that such regulations could have on the short- and long-term financial performance. The general consequence of a company breaching an environmental regulation is a corporate environmental liability, which can include many forms of fine payments and other penalties (see chapter 2.1). Logically, one would assume that such payments have at least a short-term effect on the financial performance of companies. On the other hand, contradictory the long-term effect of corporate environmental liabilities might be less strong or even not existing. This study aims to determine if such assumptions can be proven by answering the following research question:

What is the differential impact of corporate environmental liabilities on the short-term profitability vs. long-term financial outcomes of publicly listed firms in the U.S.?

To be able to make a comparison between the long-term effect and the short-term effect of corporate environmental liabilities, this study will focus on answering two specific hypotheses. First, since penalty amounts are rather small compared to the turnover of publicly listed companies, it is assumed that on the long-term the effect of paying a penalty on the financial performance of companies is rather small. For instance, in 2016 Apple paid a penalty of \$450,000 compared to a year-end revenue of approximately \$216 billion, implying that the penalty comprised 0.0002% of Apple's turnover. Concludingly, the hypothesis is the following:

H0(1): There is no long-term effect of corporate environmental liabilities on the financial performance of publicly listed companies in the U.S.

On the other hand, looking at the short-term effect of corporate environmental liabilities on the financial performance one could assume that there is a noticeable effect. A publicly listed

company that has violated an environmental regulation will most probably end up in the news, and consequently it could be assumed that short-term indicators of financial performance – such as the company’s stock price – will suffer from that. For example, the company Boeing had to pay a very large fine of around \$40 million on the 14th of May in 2014, and comparing the stock price of that day with the stock price one day after, it can be observed that it dropped from \$180.76 on the 14th to \$176.99 on the 15th. Therefore, the second hypothesis is the following:

H0(2): There is a short-term effect of corporate environmental liabilities on the financial performance of publicly listed companies in the U.S.

To examine the hypothesis described above, a quantitative research methodology was chosen. Such methodology enables to test a broader theory using a data-driven, deductive approach and concludingly analyse observations to either confirm or not confirm a theory. Given the above mentioned research question, this study aims to test the theory of an interdependence between the extend of corporate environmental liabilities and the financial performance of companies. As a result, it will be possible to get an understanding of the effectiveness of the consequences that companies face upon a breach of environmental regulations. Concludingly, it can offer guidance to authorities in charge of corporate environmental liabilities in their decision whether consequences must be more severe or not.

Furthermore, this topic is not only insightful to analyse from a general, but also from a more granular point of view. Therefore, it was chosen to further break down the research topic and investigate whether the impact differs across companies of different sizes, within different industries or dependent on the specific environmental regulation that is considered. To analyse this, this research will incorporate deep dives regarding the following items:

Deep Dive 1: Impact across violation types

Deep Dive 2: Impact across different industries

Deep Dive 3: Impact across different company sizes

Before describing the method of analysis chosen, it is crucial to note that the scope of this research is limited. To maintain a good overview, the study only takes a few key indicators of financial performance into account: the revenue and EBIT from companies income statements, the asset amount from the balance sheet, as well as several financial ratios such as return on equity (ROE), return on assets (ROA), gross profit margin (GPM), net profit margin (NPM), the debt to equity ratio (DE) and the debt to asset ratio (DA). Additionally, since the financial performance of private companies is hardly measurable, such companies are excluded.

For this study, two primary statistical methods are adopted to address the hypotheses: a fixed effect panel regression analysis and an event study regression analysis using abnormal returns. The fixed effect panel regression is particularly suitable for analyzing the long-term effects of corporate environmental liabilities on financial performance because it controls for time-invariant characteristics unique to each company, which might otherwise confound the results. This method has been extensively used in finance and economics research to assess longitudinal relationships and isolate the impact of specific variables over time (Baltagi 2008). In contrast, to assess the short-term impact of environmental liabilities, this study employs an event study methodology. Event studies are highly effective in isolating the immediate market response to specific events, such as regulatory fines, by measuring abnormal returns, or the differences between actual stock returns and expected market returns, around the event date (MacKinlay 1997). This approach is commonly applied in finance research to capture market reactions to unexpected events and allows to estimate the immediate effect of an event on stock prices.

3.4 Fixed Effect Panel Regression

As previously discussed, a fixed-effect panel regression was employed to show whether corporate environmental liabilities have a long-term impact on the financial performance of publicly listed companies in the U.S. The collected data (see chapter 3.1) is organized as panel data, a two-dimensional structure that combines a time dimension year (time series) with a cross-sectional dimension (financial data and penalty amount). This format provides richer information for the study and has the advantage of being robust to certain violations of the Gauss-Markov assumptions, such as heteroskedasticity and non-normality (Raharjo 2014). Further this model allows for individuality along the ticker by accepting each to have its own intercept, which is considered time-invariant (Khalil, Khalil, and Khalil 2024). In time series data, one or more variables are observed for a single unit over a certain time period. In contrast, cross-sectional data involves observing multiple units at a single point in time (Zulfikar 2018). Fixed-effects model panel data using a dummy variable technique to reflect the differences between intercept tickers. The regression equation for the fixed-effect model panel data is as follows:

$$(1) y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta X_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

With $i \in [1, \dots, N]$, N being the tickers; $t \in [2000, \dots, 2022]$ representing the years; α_i is the intercept specific to each unit (fixed effect); X_{it} representing the set of independent variables, β the coefficient for the independent variables and ϵ_{it} the error term (Wooldridge 2010).

3.5 Event Study Regression

To examine the short-term effect of penalties on financial performance, an event study analysis was conducted. This method examines whether certain events such as earnings announcements or stock splits lead to abnormal returns for shareholders. Abnormal returns are defined as the deviation of observed returns from expected returns based on a selected model (Peterson 1989).

For this study, the relevant event is the day on which the penalty to a company was announced. Afterwards the event window and the estimation window must be determined. The event window refers to the period in which the impact of a particular event on share prices is analyzed. It usually extends over several days before and after the event and records the observed returns during this period (Peterson 1989). In this context, an event window of one day before and one day after the event is used as it captures the immediate market reaction while minimizing noise from unrelated factors. The estimation window is the period before the event that is used to calculate the expected return on the share price that would have been expected without any event. This window generally spans between 100 to 300 days for daily studies (Peterson 1989). In this analysis, the estimation window was chosen to end ten days before the event to avoid possible contamination from information leaks or early market reactions. The estimation window was set to 200 trading days to ensure robust and reliable parameter estimation. There are three main techniques for estimating normal or expected stock returns: the market model, the mean-adjusted model and the market-adjusted model (Peterson 1989). For this analysis the market model is applied. It is well suited for this analysis as it provides a robust framework for estimating expected returns by taking into account the relationship between a company's shares and the overall market. The standardization of abnormal returns improves the accurate testing of hypotheses about market reactions, as it takes into account statistical errors in the calculation of the expected return (Peterson 1989). For this study it is not possible to standardize the return variable as the website used provides neither the returns of the estimation window required to calculate the standard deviations nor directly pre-standardized returns.

4 Results and Analysis

In this chapter the results of the study are described and discussed. Consequently, an indication will be given on whether there can be found a long-term or short-term impact of corporate environmental liabilities on the financial performance of companies in the U.S. First, the final dataset will be described. Next, the results of the fixed-panel regression analysis researching the long-term effect on company financials will be examined. Finally, the event study regression analysis with abnormal returns, which examines the short-term effects, is carried out and its results are compared with those of the long-term analysis.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

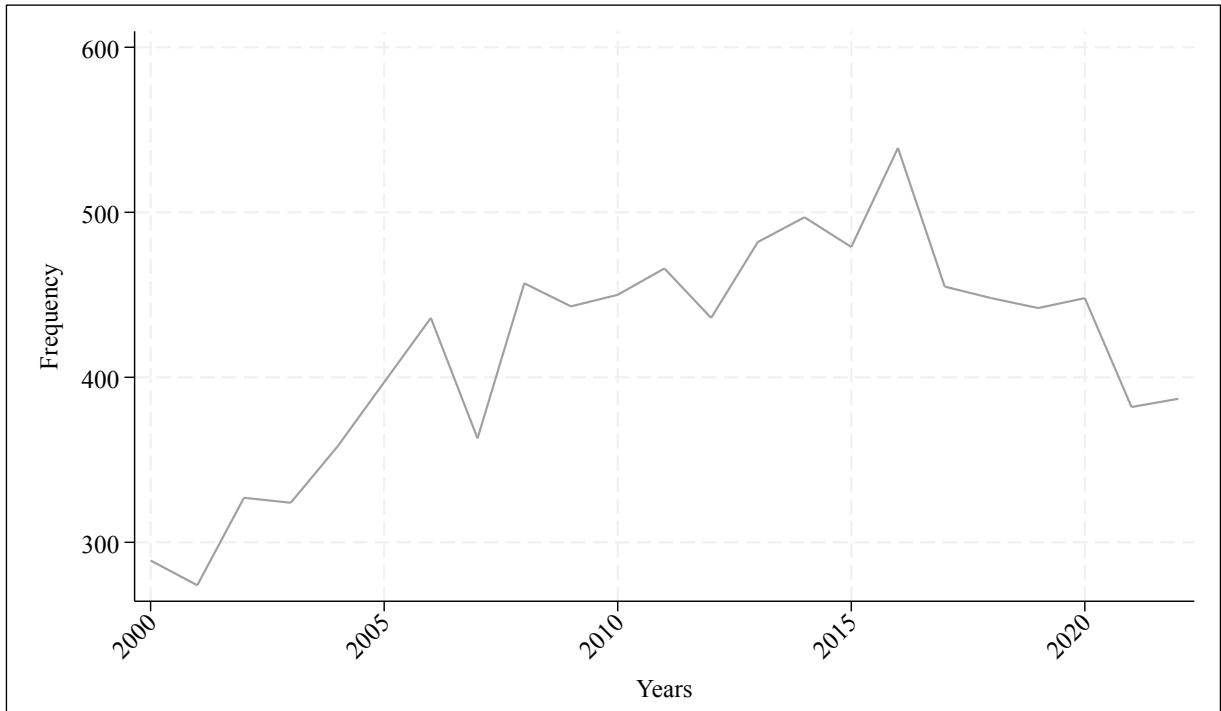
The long-term dataset is comprised out of four separate sub-datasets the fundamental financials, the financial ratios, the data on violations, and ESG data. This dataset is appropriate to use for descriptive statistical analysis since it has not been collapsed or summarized by year or penalty date yet. Consequently, this data can give a comprehensive overview on how penalties are distributed, what type of penalties exist, across which industries penalties occur the most, and other relevant information. Overall, the data contains 9,579 total observations and 41 different variables (see Appendix F). Furthermore, variables are stored in different data types including string variables, long variables, and float variables. Moreover, the data contains information for the years from 2000 to 2022 and only entails companies that are headquartered in the U.S., since data after 2022 and companies outside the U.S. has been excluded earlier. Within the U.S., the data contains 814 distinct companies.

Penalty Count & Amount

To understand the trends in corporate penalties over time, the analysis focuses on the frequency of penalty events and the financial penalty amounts over the study period. First, the total penalty count was cumulated per year (Figure 1). The results show that the frequency of violations

steadily increased from 2000 to a peak in 2016 with a count of 539 violations, followed by a notable decline in the subsequent years. This could be caused by potentially reflecting changes in regulatory enforcement, corporate behavior, or reporting practices.

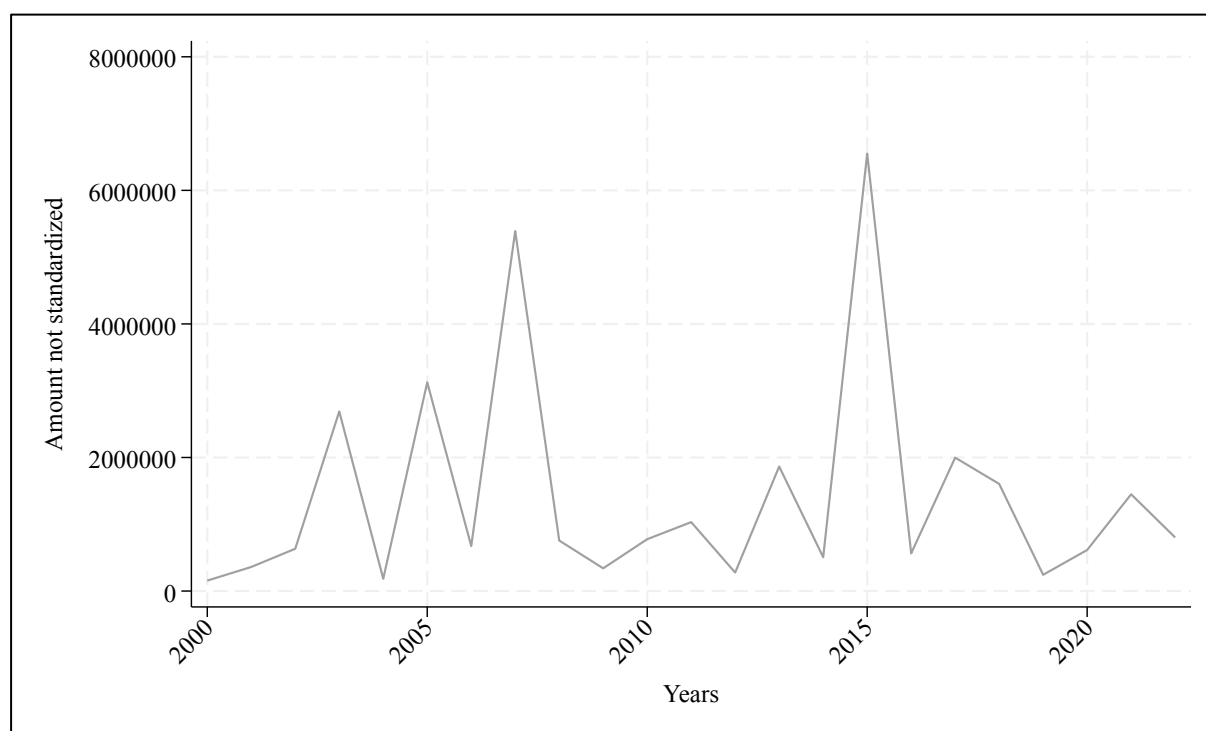
Figure 1: Total Violation Frequency between 2000 and 2022



Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024.

The penalty amounts demonstrate significant variation over the years, starting with a minimum of \$156.2673 million in 2000 (Figure 2). Notable peaks are observed in 2003, 2005, and 2007, with the highest spike in 2015, reaching \$6,552.9360 million. This pattern suggests that specific years experienced a concentration of larger penalties, potentially due to heightened regulatory enforcement or exceptional cases of corporate violations. The years between these peaks show more moderate levels of penalties, indicating that extreme values heavily influence the average amounts. Additionally, the decline in penalty amounts after 2015 similar to violation frequencies, possibly reflecting improved compliance practices, shifts in regulatory enforcement, or fewer severe violations being reported.

Figure 2: Total Penalty Amount between 2000 and 2022 (not standardized)



Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024. In thousand USD (\$0,000).

Environmental Violations by Type

Zooming into the offense groups of environmental regulations several observations can be made. Overall, the data contains 20 distinct environmental violations (Table 4) of which 5,494 observations could not be linked to a specific environmental violation (57.35%). More specifically, the largest group of environmental regulations are 2,267 air pollution violations, accounting for 23,67% of all violations. Followed by the second largest group hazardous waste violations with 463 observations (4.83%), and the third group water pollution violations, accounting for 404 observations (4.22%).

Table 4: Summary Statistics of Primary Environmental Offenses (2000 - 2022)

Primary Environmental Offenses	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
MTBE violation	23	0.24	0.24
PCB violation	6	0.06	0.30
PFAS violation	16	0.17	0.47
Air pollution violation	2,267	23.67	24.14
Asbestos violation	6	0.06	24.20

Drinking water violation	5	0.05	24.25
Energy conservation violation	12	0.13	24.38
Environmental violation	5,494	57.35	81.73
Fuel economy (CAFE) violation	1	0.01	81.74
Hazardous waste violation	463	4.83	86.57
Lead violation	22	0.23	86.80
Mining environmental violation	40	0.42	87.22
Oil or gas drilling violation	217	2.27	89.49
Oil spill	25	0.26	89.75
Pesticide violation	105	1.10	90.84
Pipeline safety violation	275	2.87	93.72
Radioactive waste violation	3	0.03	93.75
Solid waste violation	161	1.68	95.43
Underground storage tank violation	34	0.35	95.78
Water pollution violation	404	4.22	100.00
Total	9,579	100.00	

Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024.

Industries

For the industry analysis, the NAICS (North American Industry Classification System) classification is used to categorize the data into 18 different industries. NAICS is a standardized system used to classify companies into industries based on their economic activities, with the first two digits of the NAICS code representing broader industry groups. Of the 21 broader NAICS industries, our dataset includes only 18. The industries “Management of Companies and Enterprises,” “Educational Services,” and “Public Administration” are not included in our sample. The more detailed merging process is described in detail in chapter 5.2.1. As shown in the table below (Table 5), nearly half of the 9,579 violations are in the manufacturing industry, making it the most represented sector in the dataset. This could be attributed to the industry's complex and resource-intensive operations, which often involve extensive supply chains and significant environmental impacts, increasing the likelihood of regulatory breaches. In contrast,

the "Other services" sector accounted for only 14 violations, which is the sector with the fewest penalties.

Table 5: Frequency of Environmental Offenses across Industries (2000 – 2022)

Industry	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Accommodation and Food Services	36	0.38	0.38
Administrative and Support and Waste Management and Remediation Services	529	5.52	5.90
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	21	0.22	6.12
Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	17	0.18	6.30
Construction	152	1.59	7.88
Finance and Insurance	88	0.92	8.80
Health Care and Social Assistance	82	0.86	9.66
Information	100	1.04	10.70
Manufacturing	4,577	47.78	58.48
Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	1,456	15.20	73.68
Non-Classifiable Establishments	243	2.54	76.22
Other Services (except Public Administration)	14	0.15	76.36
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services	16	0.17	76.53
Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	57	0.60	77.13
Retail Trade	460	4.80	81.93
Transportation and Warehousing	794	8.29	90.22
Utilities	716	7.47	97.69
Wholesale Trade	221	2.31	100.00
Total	9,579	100.00	

Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024.

Company Characteristics

To get an understanding of the companies that are represented in the dataset by size, the asset value will be considered as size reference. Using the final long-term dataset it can be seen that the data contains 9,541 observations. Examining companies by their size the smallest asset value after winsorization is around \$124 million. The maximum asset size however can be found to be \$552,000 million, and therefore it can be concluded that the spread between company sizes is rather large. The mean company size in terms of asset value is estimated to be

\$52,800 million while the median is much smaller with \$1,270 million, implying that the data is skewed to the right due to a few very large companies in the sample, which consequently increase the mean strongly (see Appendix G).

Additionally, to be able to get an overview of companies general ESG performance, the total ESG grade was examined (see Appendix H). However, from the companies contained in the ESG dataset only 261 distinct companies could be merged to the previously merged data, which is why information on ESG data is limited. Of the 261 distinct companies, 53 companies have the highest ESG rating “A” (20.31%), 36 companies have the rating “B” (13.79%), 19 companies have the rating “BB” (7.28%), and finally 153 companies have the lowest rating “BBB” (58.62%).

4.2 Fixed-Effect Panel Regression Results & Analysis

The fixed-effect panel regression analysis examines the relationship between penalty amounts paid by firms due to CELs and the firms' financial performance, accounting for year-fixed effects and unobserved firm-specific characteristics. The coefficients for the year dummy variables indicate that the revenue of companies consistently increased over time relative to the base year 2000, showing a statistically significant upward trend (see Appendix I). For instance, the coefficients for 2010 (0.5607, $p < 0.000$) and 2020 (0.8207, $p < 0.000$) reflect a substantial and steadily increasing revenue throughout the observation period, suggesting that there are external macroeconomic factors driving overall revenue growth across companies. More interestingly, looking at the key variable for interpretation, the coefficient for penalty amounts is -0.021 ($p < 0.000$). Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a negative and statistically significant relationship between penalties and the revenue of companies. Specifically, since the regression model is a log-log regression, a 1% increase in the penalty amount, holding everything else constant, is associated with an approximately 0.02% decrease in revenue, controlling for year-fixed effects. Furthermore, the R squared value of 0.3413 (within groups) suggests that the model explains approximately 34% of the variation in revenue within firms over time. To improve the R squared of the regression analysis, the model was run again including multiple additional control variables such as the EBIT, and multiple financial ratios (Table 6). This extended model enhances the explanatory power, as indicated by an increased R squared within-firm value of 0.4281 (43%).

**Table 6: Output of Fixed Effect Panel Regression Analysis
of Penalty Amount on Revenue**

log_revt_w	Robust				
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0147251	.0039161	-3.76	0.000	-.0224139 -.0070364

Note. – Model including Control Variables (see Appendix I for full Model).

These findings reinforce the robustness of the observed negative relationship between penalties and revenue (coefficient = -0.0147; $p = 0.000$) while incorporating a broader set of financial performance controls. So far, the regression analysis has been performed on the total yearly revenue of companies as the dependent variables. However, since a penalty amount that must be paid due to a regulatory violation is a cost item on the income statement it only indirectly influences the top-line (thus the revenue) of companies through a decrease in sales and consequently damage to reputation for instance. Consequently, it is additionally interesting to use the EBIT of companies as a dependent variable, since this financial metric includes all costs that have incurred to the company. The coefficient for the penalty amount with EBIT as the dependent variable is 0.0420 ($p = 0.137$), indicating a positive however insignificant relationship between the two variables (see Appendix I). While these results cannot be interpreted due to insignificance, the tendency shows a conflicting trend compared to the revenue, indicating that penalties might not have any impact on financial profitability.

Considering the results described above, the hypothesis of this study that paying a penalty has no significant long-term effect on firms' financial performance can be rejected, especially when using the revenue as financial metric. The negative relationship between penalty amounts and the revenue suggests that penalties might have a deterring influence on the overall financial performance of a company. One possible explanation is that penalties might damage a company's reputation, eroding customer trust and reducing the overall demand for the firm's product or services. Hence, reputational harm could lead to lost sales opportunities and thus paying a penalty can have an indirect impact on top-line financial performance. Moreover, penalties may divert management's focus toward resolving compliance issues and improving regulatory conformity, which may limit their ability and resources to pursue growth-oriented initiatives. Disruptions caused by penalties, such as increased oversight or regulatory scrutiny, may hinder the agility in responding to market opportunities. In contrast, the positive

relationship tendency between penalty amounts and EBIT could reflect a company's ability to mitigate the direct financial impact through operational adjustments, such as cost-cutting measures or efficiency improvements. Larger companies in particular may absorb penalties without significant disruption to profitability due to their scale and flexibility (see chapter 5.3). The findings of the long-term analysis underscore the complexity of CELs and monetary penalties as a regulatory tool. The statistically significant influence on company's top-line financial performance (revenue) opposed to the positive, and negligible impact on profitability suggest that the indirect effect through reputational damage is much more relevant than the actual monetary amount. Nevertheless, even though indirectly, it can be stated that there is a negative impact of CELs on companies' long-term financial performance.

4.3 Event Study Result & Analysis

The event study examines the short-term effect of CELs on the stock returns of companies. In particular, the behavior of stock returns in the period following the announcement of the penalty imposed on the company is analyzed. The key variable "penalty", which represents the monetary amount of a penalty, has a coefficient of 0.000009 and a p-value of 0.895 (Tabel 7).

**Table 7: Output of Event Study Regression Analysis of
Penalty Amount on Average Abnormal Return**

mean_aret_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	8.79e-06	.0000669	0.13	0.895	-.0001224	.00014

Note. - *Model including Control Variables (see Appendix J for full Model).*

Since this is a level-log regression this would mean that a 1% increase in the penalty amount, keeping all other variables constant, is associated with a 0.000009 percentage point increase in the average abnormal return. This implies a very minimal positive relationship, meaning that larger penalties may be associated with higher abnormal returns. However, due to the high p-value, this relationship is not statistically significant and should be interpreted with caution.

The summary of the regression shows a weak fit of the overall model. The F-statistic is 0.48 with a corresponding p-value of 0.8681, indicating that the independent variables taken together do not significantly explain the variation in the dependent variable. The R square value is extremely low at 0.0009, which means that the model explains only 0.09% of the variance of the mean abnormal returns. The Root Mean Squared Error is 0.0105 and reflects the average deviation of the predicted values from the observed values. The results indicate that the selected variables have minimal explanatory power, suggesting that short-term stock price reactions may be influenced by unstudied factors. Using the cumulative return as the dependent variable leads to almost the same results as with the average abnormal return (Appendix J). Therefore, only the average abnormal return is used for further analysis.

Overall, the results of this event study suggest that the short-term impact of CEL, as measured by penalty amounts, on stock returns is limited. While the regression analysis shows a very small positive relationship between penalty amounts and abnormal returns, the lack of statistical significance suggests that this relationship is not robust. This weak effect combined with the minimal explanatory power of the model suggests that factors other than penalty amounts and the additional control variables used may play a more important role in influencing short-term stock price movements. The lack of statistical significance for the financial variables highlights the limited scope of the current model in capturing the main drivers of stock price behavior. It is possible that investors consider other factors such as the overall financial condition of the company, market conditions, or even the perceived long-term reputational impact of environmental violations in their reactions to such events. Furthermore, the model's low explanatory power underscores that short-term stock price reactions can be influenced by unmeasured variables such as investor sentiment or firm specific characteristics, highlighting the complexity of market behavior.

5 Deep Dives

This chapter presents three in-depth analyses that examine how the financial impact of environmental liabilities varies depending on the type of regulation violated, the industry, or company size. Each section includes descriptive statistics, a panel regression for long-term effects and an event study for short-term impacts. For the descriptive statistics it was chosen to exclusively examine the long-term dataset, since otherwise the results will mainly be redundant. The first deep dive examines violations with the most counts (count over 200) in the study period. The second explores differences across the three industries with the most overall violations, while the third evaluates how firm characteristics, like company size influence financial outcomes. Together, these analyses provide a deeper understanding of the impact of environmental liabilities on financial performance of companies in the U.S.

5.1 Industry Deep Dive

This section examines the impact of CEL on the financial performance of companies in different industries. A fixed-effect panel regression is used to assess the long-term effects, while an event study is used to capture the short-term effects. To ensure a solid analysis, the three industries with the most entries in the dataset were first selected and examined.

5.1.1 Data Preparation

While the VT dataset provides an industry classification across 49 detailed industries, the NAICS classification groups these into 21 higher-level industries. For this analysis, we use the NAICS classification to assign violations to industries because it provides a broader and more consistent categorization. Additionally, because this section focuses on the three industries with the most entries, the broader NAICS industry classification increases the representativeness and comparability of the industries we select. Based on the first two digits of the NAICS codes, an industry classification was created using classification information provided by the U.S. Census

Bureau (U.S. Census Bureau 2024). Since two different data sets are used for the long-term and short-term analysis, separate preparation steps are required for both. The long-term industry dataset is created by merging the obtained industry classification file to the long-term_adjusted file. Prior to the merge the long-term_adjusted file needs to be prepared by extracting the first two digits of the NAICS number, which serves as key variable in the merge. Subsequently an m:1 merge is performed leading to a dataset containing a new variable “industry_group”, which assigns each of the violations to one of the 21 industries. Only observations that are present in both dataset are retained, resulting in the removal of three observations as these correspond to NAICS industries that are not represented in this study’s dataset. For the long-term dataset, the penalty amount needs to be aggregated by summarizing it for each individual company-year combination. In addition the non-standardized penalty amount is created at the company year level to be used later in descriptive statistics. Afterwards, all duplicate entries for each unique company year combination were removed. Both penalty variables are winsorized and the standardized penalty amount is transformed by using the log which is required for further robust analyses. For the short-term dataset, the shortterm_data_adjusted dataset is used, in which the penalty amounts already are collapsed by company and penalty date. The first thing is to merge this dataset with the industry classification file using the first two digit of the NAICS number as the key variable. Then the penalty amount variable is winsorized and logarithmically transformed to ensure robustness.

5.1.2 Descriptive Statistics

This analysis focuses on the three industries with the most violations in the dataset. The first industry, “Manufacturing”, accounts for a majority of the dataset with 47.78% of the total observations. The second industry, “Mining, Quarrying and Oil and Gas Extraction” (hereafter referred to as mining), accounts for 15.2% of the dataset. Finally, the “Transportation and

Warehousing” industry (hereinafter referred to as transportation) accounts for 8.29% of the observations (see Table 5).

Together, these industries form a diverse yet focused basis for examining the impact of environmental liabilities of companies in different sectors. An analysis of the penalty amounts across the three industries shows that the minimum and maximum values are identical, with a minimum of \$5,000 and a maximum of \$117.1538 million (see Appendix Q). This is due to the winsorization process, which replaces values below the 1st percentile and above the 99th percentile to limit the influence of extreme outliers. As all three sectors are subject to high penalties, their highest penalties are replaced in this process. To provide a clearer picture, a table is created showing the original highest and lowest fines before winsorization. This shows the differences between the three sectors in terms of the penalty amounts. In the manufacturing sector, fines range from a minimum of \$5,000 to a maximum of \$810.2 million (Table 9), revealing significant differences within the industry. In the mining sector, fines range from \$5,000 to \$5.15 billion (Table 9), which is the largest range among the industries analyzed. In contrast, the range in the transportation industry is narrower, with fines starting at \$408 and reaching a maximum of \$220 million (Table 9). These figures illustrate that the mining industry has by far the highest fines, which is consistent with the expectation that pollution in this sector is likely to be particularly severe.

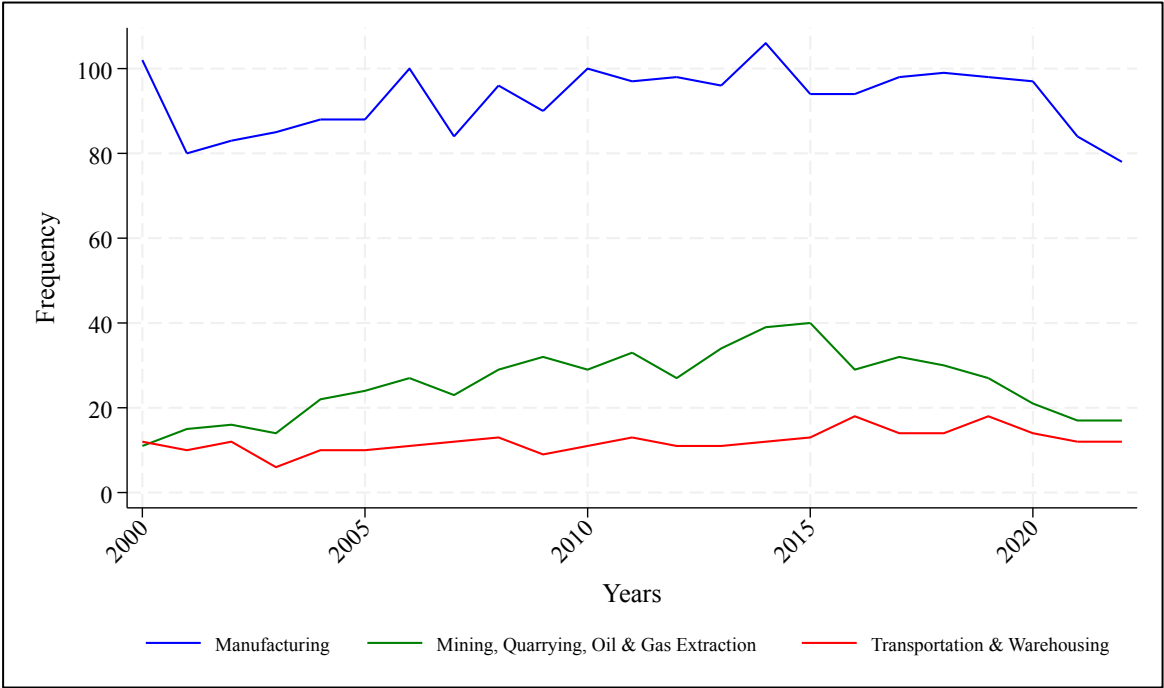
Table 8: Penalty Amount across Industries (2000 – 2022)

Industries	N	Min	Max
Manufacturing	2,135	5	810,222.1
Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	558	5	5,150,293
Transportation and Warehousing	278	5	220,105

Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024. In thousand USD (\$0,000).

In the next step, the frequency of violations over time is examined across the three industries. As seen in Figure 5, the manufacturing industry consistently exhibits the highest frequency of violations, with relative stability over the years but a slight decline recently. The mining industry shows an upward trend in violations until 2015, followed by a notable decline, suggesting changes in industry practices or regulations. The transportation sector consistently has the lowest violation frequency, with only minor fluctuations over time. Overall, the graph highlights the dominance of manufacturing in violation frequency and the differing trends across industries.

Figure 3: Violation Frequency across Industries (2000 – 2022)

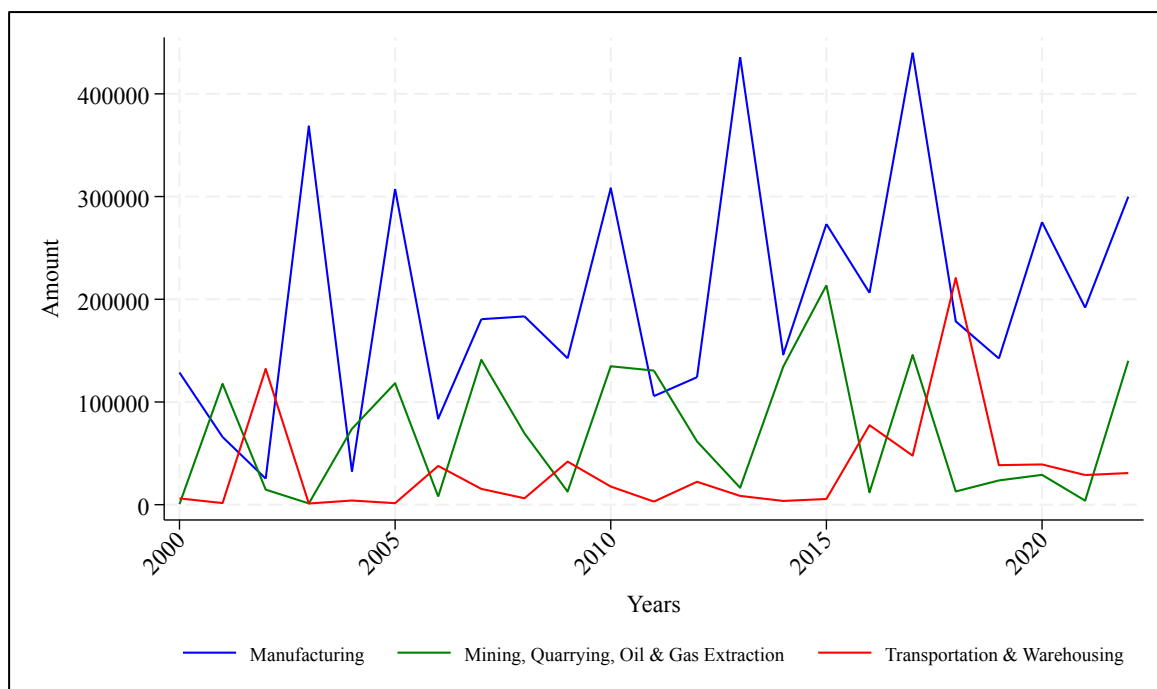


Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024,

After examining the frequency, the annual penalty amounts in the various sectors are analyzed. For this analysis, the non-standardized penalty amount is used as it provides clearer insights into the penalty amount variable than the one standardized by asset value. While standardizing is useful in many contexts, it could obscure the absolute level of penalties, which is crucial for understanding their financial impact and differences at the industry level. Figure 6 shows that the manufacturing industry exhibits the greatest fluctuations in fine amounts, with several clear

peaks indicating years with exceptionally high fines. The mining sector also shows fluctuations, albeit with fewer and less pronounced peaks than in the manufacturing sector. The transportation sector, on the other hand, remains relatively stable and has the lowest fines over the entire period.

Figure 4: Penalty Amount across Industries (2000 – 2022)



Note. – Data collected from the Violation Tracker in 2024. In thousand USD (\$0,000).

5.1.3 Panel Regression across Industries

In the following, a panel regression with fixed effects, which has already been carried out for the entire sample, is now carried out for the three selected sectors “Manufacturing”, “Mining” and “Transportation”. The log-log regression is performed with two different dependent variables, revenue and EBIT. First, the results are presented for each industry. Afterwards they are compared with each other and finally the differences are analyzed.

Manufacturing

The regression results for the manufacturing industry show a statistically significant negative relationship between penalty amounts and revenue. The coefficient for penalty amounts is

-0.0389 with a p-value of 0.000, indicating that holding all other variables constant, a 1% increase in the penalty amount results in a 0.0389% decrease in revenue (see Appendix R). As for the fit of the model, the within R-squared of 0.0878 suggests that about 8.78% of the variation in revenue within firms over time is explained by the model. In addition, the overall R-squared of 10.56% indicates that the total variation in revenue is explained by the independent variables. These low R-squared values suggest that other unobserved factors may play an important role in influencing revenue. In contrast, the regression with EBIT as the dependent variable shows a coefficient of 0.0757, which indicates a positive relationship between EBIT and penalty amounts (see Appendix R). However, the high p-value of 12.5% indicates that the relationship is not statistically significant, suggesting that penalty amounts do not have a significant impact on EBIT. The model fit for the EBIT regression is significantly weaker with a within R-squared of 5.85 % and an overall R-squared of 3.31 %. As with revenue, these low R-squared values seem to indicate that other unobserved factors may play an important role in influencing EBIT.

Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction

Both regression analyses for the mining industry show a positive but statistically insignificant relationship between the penalty amounts and revenue & EBIT. In the revenue regression, the penalty amount variable has a coefficient of 0.003 ($p = 0.818$), which would mean that a 1% increase in the penalty amount is associated with an estimated 0.003% increase in revenue, *ceteris paribus* (see Appendix S). The EBIT regression results yield a coefficient of 0.072 ($p = 0.637$), indicating a positive relationship (see Appendix S). However, the lack of statistical significance in both regressions indicates that the penalties do not significantly affect financial performance in this industry. The R-squared values of 15.59% for the revenue model and 11.97% for the EBIT model show that a significant portion of the fluctuations in financial performance are likely due to unobserved factors that are not captured in the regression.

Transportation and Warehousing

The regression results for the transportation industry show contrary relationships between penalty amounts and financial performance. In the revenue regression, the coefficient for the amount of penalties is -0.0064 (see Appendix T), indicating a negative relationship between penalties and revenue. Conversely, the regression of EBIT shows a positive relationship with a coefficient of 0.0445 (see Appendix T). However, both coefficients are highly statistically insignificant ($p = 0.596$ and $p = 0.335$), making it impossible to draw definitive or reasoned conclusions about the impact of penalties on financial performance. Furthermore, the low R-squared values indicate that revenue and EBIT are likely to be influenced by unobserved factors that are not captured in the model.

Interpretation and Comparison across industries

Among the three economic industries, the only statistically significant relationship between penalty amounts and financial performance can be observed in the regression of revenue for the manufacturing industry. The result shows a negative relationship where higher penalty amounts are associated with a decrease in revenue. This indicates that penalties represent a measurable financial burden for manufacturing companies, likely reflecting the industry's vulnerability to penalties. In contrast, no statistically significant correlation was found between the amount of penalties and revenue or EBIT in the mining and transportation sectors. This suggests that penalties do not appear to have a direct financial impact on these sectors, possibly reflecting greater resilience or the ability to absorb penalties through operational or financial buffers. Notably, EBIT shows a more consistent relationship with penalties across all sectors, with positive coefficients in each regression, although not reaching statistical significance. This pattern suggests that penalties do not directly affect profitability, as companies could adjust costs or other operational factors to mitigate the financial impact. Revenue, on the other hand, shows a mixture of positive and negative relationships with penalties, with statistical

significance only observed in the manufacturing industry. These variations suggest that the impact of penalties on revenue is more dependent on industry-specific factors, such as reputational damage or sensitivity of customer demand, which vary from industry to industry. Looking additionally at the model fit it can be seen that while mining has the highest R-squared values (15.59% for revenue and 11.97% for EBIT), overall, these values are relatively low for all industries. This suggests that financial performance in all three industries is likely to be influenced by a number of unobserved factors, such as market conditions, management practices or industry-specific dynamics, that are not captured by the models. These results highlight the complexity of assessing the financial impact of penalties, as industry-specific dynamics and external factors can play an important role. The significant negative relationship in the manufacturing industry reflects vulnerability to penalties, which is likely due to stricter regulations, public scrutiny and the company's customer intimacy. In contrast, the lack of significant results in the mining industry suggests that financial buffers, such as long-term contracts or capital reserves, mitigate the impact of fines. The transportation industry shows mixed results, with penalties likely being treated as a routine cost that is offset by operational efficiencies or industry norms.

5.1.4 Event Study across Industries

In order to analyze the short-term impact of penalties on financial performance, the event study regression previously conducted in the general analysis is now applied to the three selected industries. The dependent variable in this analysis is the average abnormal return, which is regressed on the logarithm of the penalty amount together with additional financial control variables. Consequently, a level log regression model is used for this short-term analysis.

Manufacturing industry

The regression results show a positive coefficient for the penalty amount of 0.00003, indicating a positive relationship between penalty amounts and average abnormal returns (see Appendix

U). Specifically, holding all other variables constant, a 1% increase in the penalty amount would lead to a 0.00003 percentage points increase in the average abnormal return. However, the result is statistically highly insignificant, as reflected in a p-value of 0.77, making it impossible to draw solid conclusions. Furthermore, the explanatory power of the model is extremely low, with an R squared value of 0.17%, which means that all independent variables together explain only 0.17% of the variation in average abnormal returns. Finally, the overall F-statistic (0.52 with a p-value of 0.8444) confirms that the model as a whole is not statistically significant.

Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction

For the mining industry, the coefficient of penalty amounts is 0.0002, indicating a positive relationship between penalty amounts and average abnormal returns (see Appendix U). However, the p-value of 0.381 shows that the coefficient is not statistically significant, thus no meaningful conclusions can be drawn. The explanatory power of the model is also extremely low with an R squared value of 0.41%, meaning that the independent variables together explain only 0.41% of the variation in average abnormal returns. In addition, the overall F-statistic (0.43 with a p-value of 0.9015) confirms that the model as a whole is not statistically significant.

Transportation and Warehousing

For the transportation industry, the coefficient for the penalty amount is 0.0002, which indicates a positive correlation with the average abnormal return (see Appendix U). However, this correlation is not statistically significant (p-value: 0.513). The overall R squared value is higher compared to the other industries with a value of 5.68 %, which indicates a modest improvement in the explanatory power of the model. It is worth noting that the F-statistic is statistically significant (p-value < 0.001), indicating that the model is statistically significant, which is likely due to the influence of other control variables rather than the penalty amount itself.

Table 9: Aggregated Overview on Regression Results across Industry

	Fixed-effect panel regression (long-term)				Event Study regression (short-term)	
Dependent variable	Revenue		EBIT		Mean abnormal return	
	Coefficient Penalty Amount	p-value	Coefficient Penalty Amount	p-value	Coefficient Penalty Amount	p-value
Manufacturing	-0.0389	0.000	0.0757	0.125	0.00003	0.770
Mining	0.0034	0.818	0.0718	0.637	0.0002	0.381
Transportation	-0.0064	0.596	0.0445	0.335	0.0002	0.513

Note. – All Models including Control Variables (see Appendix for full Models).

Interpretation and Comparison across Industries

Across all three industries, the coefficients for the amount of penalties show a positive relationship with average abnormal returns, suggesting a potential increase in stock prices as penalties increase. However, none of these coefficients are statistically significant, suggesting that this trend cannot be proven with certainty. This lack of significance means that the amount of penalties may not have a measurable impact on short-term stock price performance. While the penalties could have an impact on other areas such as the company's reputation or operations, this impact is not directly reflected in investor reactions or market performance. The low R squared values across all industries indicate that the variables included in the model explain only a very small proportion of the variation in average abnormal returns. This suggests that other unobserved factors such as broader market conditions (e.g. economic news or interest rate changes) or investor sentiment (e.g. perception of the company's reputation, past violations or future profitability) are likely to influence stock performance after penalties. In the transportation sector, the overall model is statistically significant. However, this is probably due to other independent variables rather than the amount of the penalties. In contrast, the regression model is insignificant for both manufacturing and mining. In manufacturing, this could reflect

the long-term nature of reputation effects that are not captured in a short-term event window. For the mining sector, the lack of significance could indicate that penalties are perceived as a routine cost of doing business in a highly regulated industry. Shareholders may already factor such penalties into their valuation, resulting in minimal short-term market reactions. In addition, the stability provided by long-term contracts or capital reserves can boost investor confidence,

6 Conclusion & Outlook

This study examines the impact of CEL's on the financial performance of companies in the U.S. and provides a comprehensive analysis by distinguishing between short-term and long-term impacts. Through such a dual perspective the study provides insights into the relationship between CEL and their financial performance. The objective of this analysis is to assess whether current measures and penalties for companies that violate environmental regulations are effective. The analyses reveal a clear pattern: Although a statistically significant long-term impact on financial performance can be identified in some cases, the short-term impact remains inconclusive, emphasizing the need to focus on long-term outcomes to fully understand the financial implications of environmental liabilities.

The long-term regression results show a statistically significant negative relationship between the revenue and penalties, while the relationship between penalties and EBIT is positive but not statistically significant. These results suggest that penalties indirectly affect a company's top-line performance, likely due to reputational damage or reduced customer confidence. Conversely, although penalties are directly recorded as "Other Expenses" in the income statement, no significant impact on profitability measured as EBIT is observed. This could be explained because larger companies are able to mitigate the financial impact through cost-cutting measures or operational adjustments. In contrast, the short-term analysis yields no statistically significant results. Although the relationship between penalties and average abnormal return is slightly positive, the high p-value, non-significant F-statistic, and the overall poor fit of the model indicate that short-term stock price movements are influenced by unmeasured factors, such as investor sentiment or broader market conditions. The results show a clear difference between the short- and long-term impact of environmental penalties. While the short-term impact on financial metrics is minimal, the statistically significant long-term

impact on revenue highlights the importance of reputational damage and strategic responses when assessing the financial impact of environmental violations.

Following the analysis of the entire sample, the deep dives examine the financial impact of penalties from different perspectives with a focus on different types of violations, industries and company sizes. Among the violation types, air pollution and hazardous waste violations result in statistically significant revenue losses, likely due to reputational damage and increased regulatory scrutiny as these violations are well known and attract public and media attention. Conversely, pipeline safety violations lead to a significant reduction in profitability (EBIT) probably due to direct costs such as business interruption, legal costs and safety investments. The industry analysis only shows a statistically significant negative relationship between revenue and penalties in the manufacturing industry, highlighting its vulnerability to penalties due to stricter regulations, whereas the mining and transportation industries are proving resilient. Across all sectors, EBIT remains statistically insignificant, suggesting that companies are effectively mitigating the direct costs of penalties to protect their profitability. Across company size, we find that smaller companies are more affected by penalties because they account for a larger share of their operating costs, while larger companies are better able to absorb penalties since they often treat them as routine costs. The short-term impact on stock performance is minimal and not statistically significant, suggesting that penalties are usually anticipated by investors or perceived as financially insignificant in the short term.

To conclude the obtained results make it necessary to reject the first null hypothesis, which states that penalties have no long-term effects on financial performance. Contrary to what was assumed, the results even show a statistically significant negative relationship between the penalty amount and long-term financial performance as measured by revenue. This is supported by both the general analysis as well as all three conducted deep dives. Furthermore, the second null hypothesis, which states that there is a negative effect from penalty amounts on the stock

price return also has to be rejected. The study finds no statistically significant evidence for this hypothesis, both in the general analysis and in the three deep dives. This suggests that penalties have minimal immediate impact on stock prices, possibly due to investor expectations or the perception that penalties are financially insignificant in the short term.

The indirect long-term impact of corporate environmental liabilities on the revenue of companies, though small, has critical implications for businesses, investors, policymakers, and the larger society. The findings suggest that environmental regulatory violations, while not catastrophic for corporate financial health, do influence corporations and thus their competitive advantage over time. Concludingly, for corporations this signals the importance of a proactive management and a consistent monitoring of their environmental practices. Companies that deprioritize this, may over time face cumulative financial burdens through regular penalty payments and the implied consequences. Similarly, investors should consider corporate environmental liabilities as a risk factor when evaluating long-term investment opportunities. It can be stressed that incorporating ESG criteria into investment decisions is essential to identify enterprises capable of managing corporate environmental liabilities correctly. On the other hand, the results also bear significant implications to regulators and policymakers. The small impact of corporate environmental liabilities on the revenue of companies indicates a need for more robust regulatory frameworks that can help to align corporate behaviour with societal expectations. For instance, governments could increase the extent of corporate environmental liabilities by implementing more strict measures or increase penalty amounts. Stricter policies might have a more severe impact on the financial performance of companies and thus incentivize them to further improve their environmental compliance in the future.

Overall, due to conflicting results and low statistical credibility, the results of this study reveal several opportunities for further research. Since especially the short-term analysis did not result in an interpretable outcome, it could be conducted using different extents of the event and the

estimation windows. Since there is a possibility that information leaks prior to the official announcement of a penalty, allowing the shareholders to already price in the event, extending the event window could have a differential impact on the results. Another improvement to the short-term effect analysis could be adding additional control variables such as external variables (e.g. interest rates) or industry-specific variables (e.g. production cycles) which also have an effect on the company's stock market performance at the time of the event. Adding more control variables could especially be interesting in the deep dives within this study, since particularly in those analyses the results appeared to be highly insignificant. While some results of the long-term analysis were in fact significant, adding more control variables including measurements for macroeconomic factors and public perception, could also improve the credibility of these results. Expanding the study to a larger sample size would also provide more robust insights into the relationship between penalties and financial performance. Moreover, comparing results across different regions could highlight variations in regulatory impacts and market reactions, offering a broader perspective. Furthermore, it could be interesting to examine more closely the other expenses on the income statements of companies that were penalized, in order to reveal whether companies absorb the costs of a fine by offsetting through cuts in other departments. Looking ahead, the evolving regulatory landscape and the growing importance of corporate environmental responsibility offer interesting opportunities for future research. As stakeholders place increasing importance on sustainability, reputational impacts and market responses to environmental penalties may change, making longitudinal studies particularly valuable. Furthermore, as data availability improves, future researchers could also examine penalties in emerging industries such as renewable energy or technology to determine whether the financial consequences differ from those of traditional industries. Another aspect for future research is the investigation of ESG ratings and their relationship to environmental breaches. In particular, examining the changes in a company's ESG rating before and after a breach could provide

valuable insights into the direct impact of such violations on the perception of a company's sustainability. In addition, it could be investigated whether market reactions to environmental penalties vary depending on a company's pre-existing ESG score. This would help determine whether companies with higher ESG ratings experience stronger or weaker investor reactions. By filling these gaps and extending the findings of the current study, future research can provide a more comprehensive understanding of how penalties affect financial performance in different contexts.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Diagnostic Testing of the Dataset

As there are two datasets, one will be collapsed for the entire penalty amount of each company per year (long-term data) and one collapsed per penalty date for each company (short-term data), it needs to be chosen which dataset is used for diagnostic testing. However, since the short-term dataset builds on top of the same variables as in the long-term data, it is sufficient to only use the long-term data for testing.

Long-Term Data

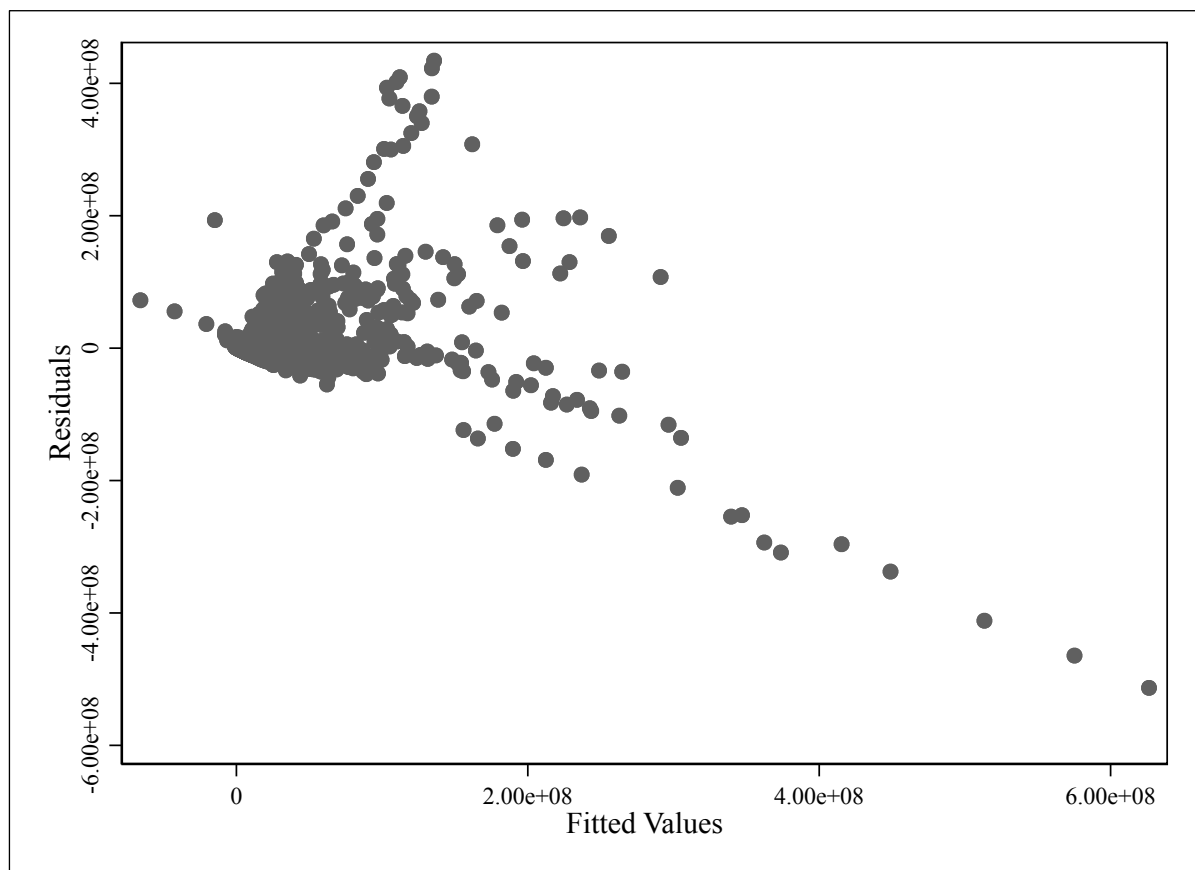
To prepare the final long-term dataset for the regression, several preparational steps need to be taken. First, it is crucial to summarize the total penalty amount per parent company-year combination to have unique values for each combination. To do so, the total penalty per company and year is calculated by summing “penalty” within each parent company-year group and duplicates are removed. Moreover, the “tic” variable was encoded as “numeric_tic” to facilitate numeric panel data handling in the later analysis.

To initially determine which type of regression should be used for the long-term analysis, the Hausman test was applied to the dataset. This test is used to check whether a fixed-effect regression or a random-effect regression should be used to estimate the model. Since a highly significant p-value of 0.000 (see Appendix B) was obtained, the null hypothesis is rejected, which states that the random effect estimator is consistent and efficient. The consequence of such a finding is that in the following analysis a fixed effect regression should be used as it is more appropriate for the data structure (Sheytanova 2015).

Performing a test for homoscedasticity is essential to ensure the accuracy of the standard errors of the model. The presence of heteroscedasticity can lead to biased standard errors, potentially leading to incorrect conclusions regarding the statistical significance of variables and the

magnitude of their effects (Vogelsang 2012). To visually assess the presence of heteroscedasticity, a plot of residuals against fitted values was generated. In this plot, the x-axis represents the fitted (predicted) values from the regression model, whereas the y-axis represents the residuals, which are the differences between observed values and fitted values. Patterns or clustering in the spread of residuals can indicate heteroscedasticity, where the variance of residuals changes with the fitted values. The plot provides a preliminary visual check before performing the formal modified Wald test for heteroscedasticity across panels (Figure 9).

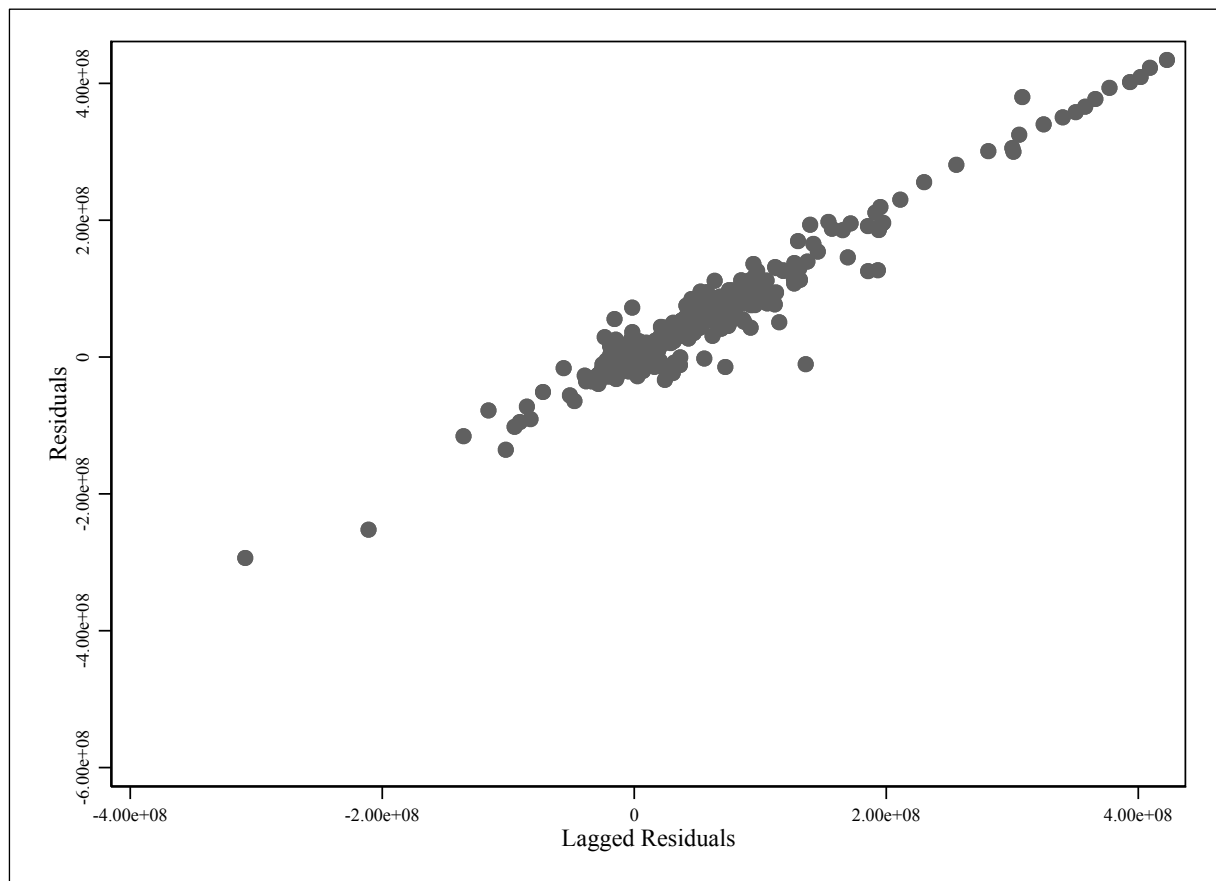
Figure 9: Residuals vs. Fitted Values Plot for Heteroscedasticity Assessment



Performing the modified Wald Test on the data results in a p-value of 0.000, which means that the null hypothesis that there is homoscedasticity across the panels is rejected (see Appendix C). To account for the existing heteroscedasticity, robust standard errors have to be used in the further regressions (Vogelsang 2012).

Since robust standard errors are used to account for autocorrelation, conducting an additional autocorrelation test is not strictly necessary. However, for the sake of thoroughness, lagged residuals were generated and regressed on the original residuals to formally test for autocorrelation (Figure 10). Plotting this, on the x-axis the residuals from the previous time period (lagged values of residuals) are plotted. The y-axis shows the residuals from the current time period. If a linear pattern is observed in the graph, the data could be positively autocorrelated over time, meaning that a positive residual in one period is likely to be followed by a positive residual in the next period.

Figure 10: Residuals vs. Lagged Residuals Plot for Autocorrelation Assessment



Given that the graph shows a strongly positive linear relation, and the p-value for the regression of residuals on lagged values is highly significant (0.000) (see Appendix D), the presence of positive autocorrelation can be confirmed. The application of robust standard errors is thus a beneficial adjustment to address this issue in the model.

Furthermore, testing for multicollinearity is important, as high correlations between independent variables can distort the estimated coefficients, making them unstable and unreliable and reducing the overall statistical power of the model. For this, the variance inflation factor (VIF) has been used. If a variable has a VIF value above ten, its necessity in the model should be considered (Table 13).

Table 13: VIF-Test for Multicollinearity (long-term)

Variable	vif	1/vif
Asset value	1.95	0.5124
EBIT	1.92	0.5221
Return on assets	1.67	0.5983
Gross profit margin	1.56	0.6396
Net profit margin	1.52	0.6560
Debt-to-asset ratio	1.11	0.9045
Return on equity	1.07	0.9373
Penalty amount	1.00	0.9969
Debt-to-equity ratio	1.00	0.9978
Mean vif	1.42	

The table shows that all values are below two, proving that there is no multicollinearity between the independent variables (Daoud 2017).

Next the winsorization method has been performed on all relevant variables to adjust for outliers. Extreme values over the 99th percentile or below the 1st percentile are replaced with the respective boundary value. For the long-term data this method is applied to the variables “roa”, “roe”, “npm”, “gpm”, “debt_at”, “de_ratio”, “revt”, “ebit” and “at”. As the variable for penalty amount needs to be collapsed in a later phase of the analysis, the winsorization process for this variable will be conducted at that time. Then, for the left-skewed ratio variables, a square root transformation was applied to moderate the spread of values while maintaining interpretability. Conversely, a logarithmic transformation was used for the right-skewed variables to normalize their distribution (West 2022) (see Appendix E). Since the “roa_w”

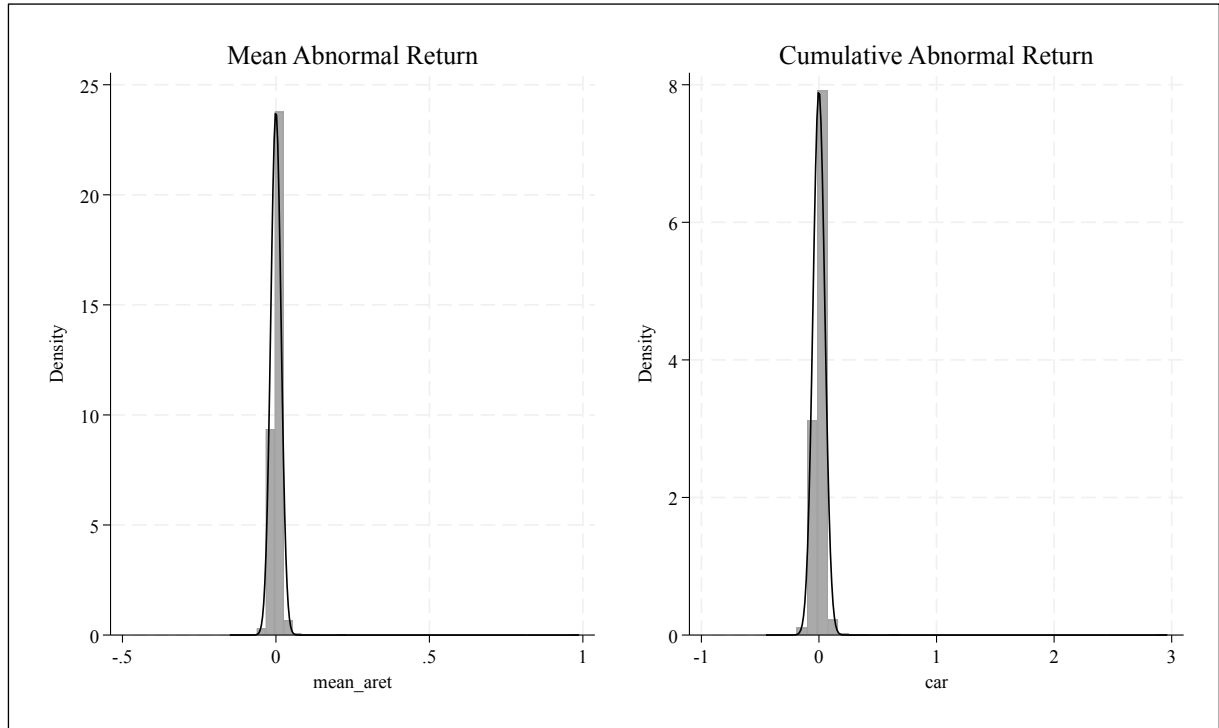
variable is left skewed a square root transformation has been performed. Since for a square root transformation the values need to be strictly positive, the variable is shifted by +0.064, which offsets its minimum value of -0.06325. Next to adjust for the negatively skewedness of the “roe” variable, the square root of the variable is taken (Biostats 2017). The variable is shifted by +0.816 to be strictly positive. The same procedure is applied to the variables “npm_w”, “gpm_w”, “debt_at_w” and “de_ratio_w”. The variables “revt_w” and “at_w” exhibit a high degree of right skewedness and positive values. Consequently a logarithmic transformation was performed on these variables (West 2022). The variable 'ebit_w' has a minimum value of -3,357,000; therefore, a shift of +3,357,000.001 was applied to the variable before performing the logarithmic transformation. These adjustments allow for a more accurate and meaningful analysis of the dataset.

Short-Term Data

For the short-term analysis, a slightly modified dataset is used, which includes the average abnormal return as well as the cumulative abnormal return as additional variables. Since tests have already been performed for all other variables, this section focuses exclusively on tests related to abnormal returns. The tests performed include a normality test, tests for heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation as well as a test for multicollinearity.

To assess normality histograms were plotted (Figure 11), and the Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to both abnormal return variables. The resulting p-values of 0.000 as well as the plotted graph indicate a significant deviation from normality in the abnormal returns.

Figure 11: Histograms of Abnormal Returns



To assess the presence of heteroscedasticity, the Breusch-Pagan test was performed. The significant p-values of 0.000 for both abnormal return variables led to the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating heteroscedasticity in the data. To address this, robust standard errors are used in the following analyses. Finally, a test for multicollinearity is performed to determine which variables may need to be excluded from the model. This assessment is carried out using the VIF. As seen in Table 14 all values are below five, proving that there is no multicollinearity between the independent variables (Daoud 2017).

Table 14: VIF-Test for Multicollinearity (short-term)

Variable	vif	1/vif
EBIT	4.33	0.2310
Revenue	4.26	0.2347
Asset value	1.97	0.5082
Net profit margin	1.93	0.5172
Gross profit margin	1.89	0.5302
Return on assets	1.81	0.5534

Debt-to-assets ratio	1.25	0.7994
Return on Equity	1.06	0.9444
Penalty Amount per date	1.00	0.9976
Debt-to-equity ratio	1.00	0.9986
Mean vif	2.05	

Lastly, the short-term data must also be adjusted for outliers in the same manner as described above with the winsorization method. After this adjustment, the skewness test on the variables “mean_aret_w” and “car_w” shows that the p-values are not significant ($p = 0.5689$ and $p = 0.2742$) at the 10% significance level (Table 15). Therefore, the null hypothesis, which posits that the data is normally distributed, cannot be rejected. Consequently, no further adjustments are necessary to include this variable in the subsequent analysis.

Table 15: Sktest for Normality on Abnormal Returns

		joint test			
	n	pr(skewness)	pr(kurtosis)	adj chi(2)	prob>chi2
Mean abnormal return winsorized	8,073	0.5689	0.0000	372.21	0.0000

		joint test			
	n	pr(skewness)	pr(kurtosis)	adj chi(2)	prob>chi2
Cum. abnormal return winsorized	8,073	0.2742	0.0000	372.71	0.0000

Appendix B: Hausmann Test

	Chi2	Prob>chi2
Test of H0: Difference in coefficients not systematic	147.79	0.0000

Appendix C: Wald Test

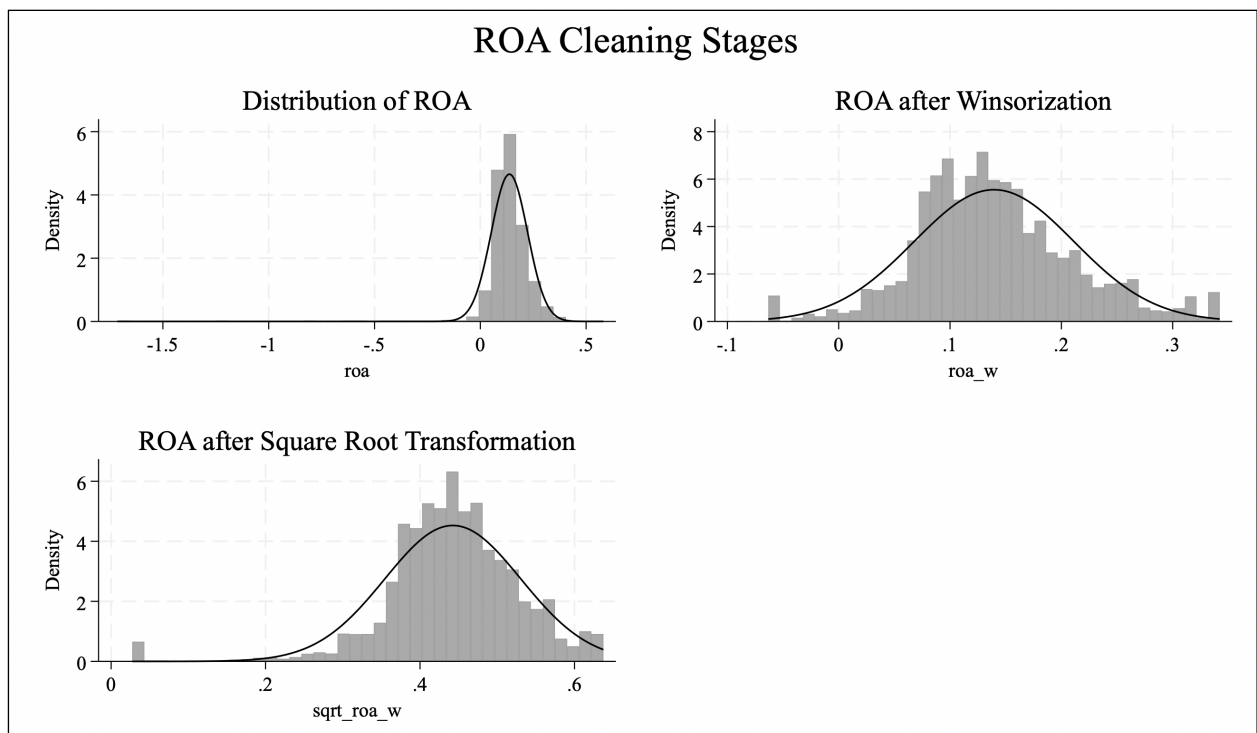
	Chi2 (711)	Prob>chi2
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Test of H0: $\sigma(i)^2 = \sigma^2$ for all i	6.88e+38	0.0000
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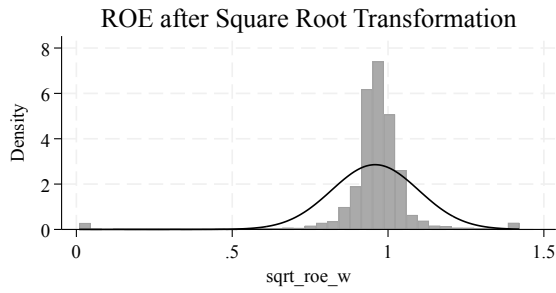
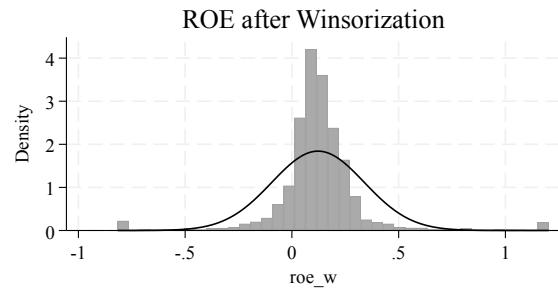
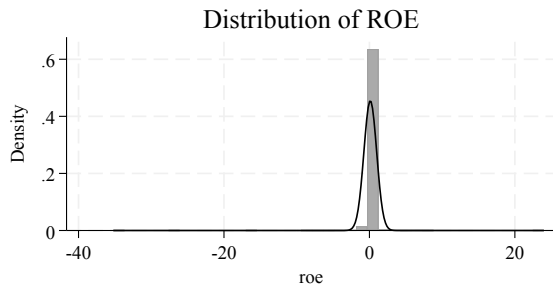
Appendix D: Regression of Residuals on Lagged Values

residuals	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
lagged_residuals	1.019866	.0047764	213.52	0.000	1.010498	1.029233
_cons	77,140.74	214,099.9	0.36	0.719	-342,753.6	497,035.1

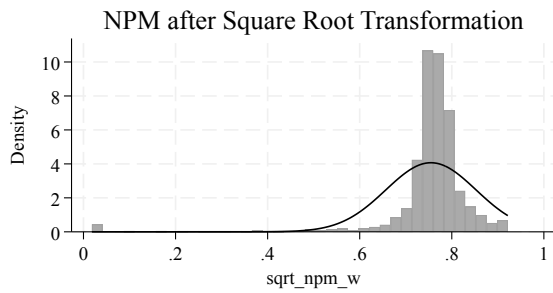
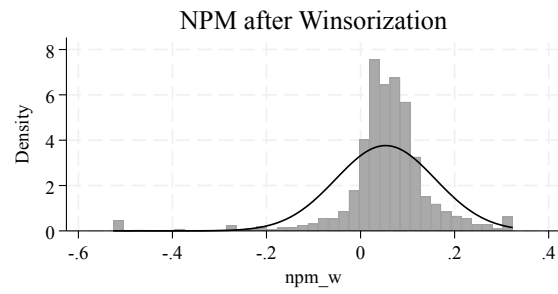
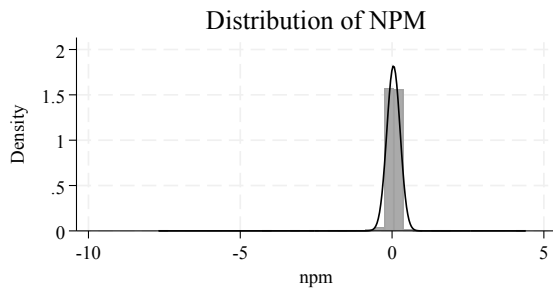
Appendix E: Winsorization for all Variables



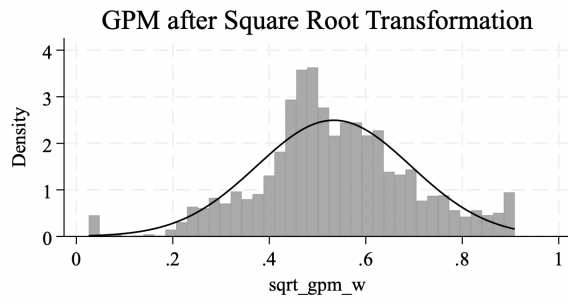
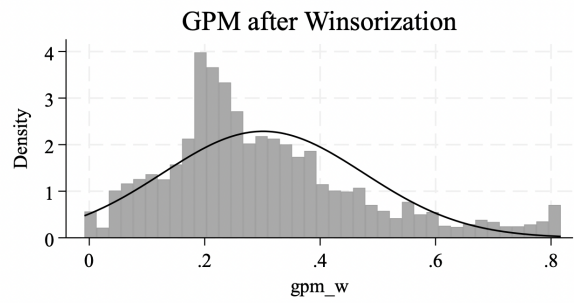
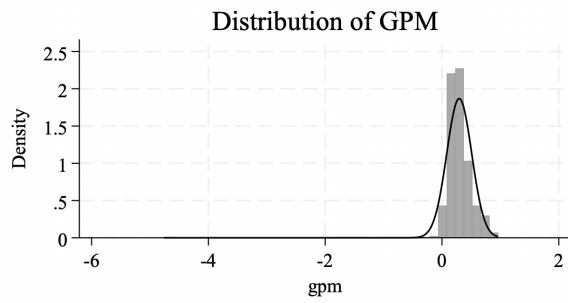
ROE Cleaning Stages



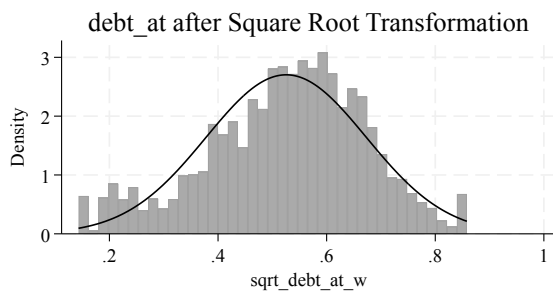
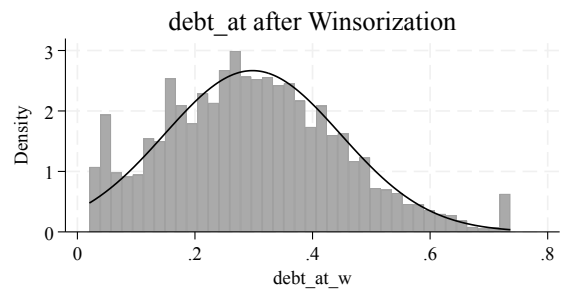
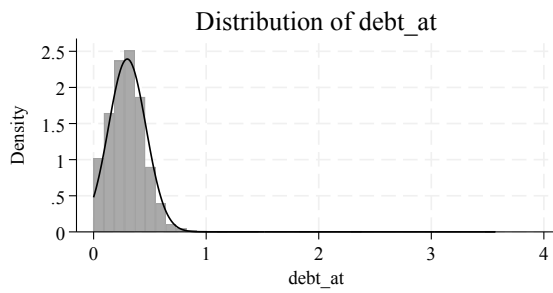
NPM Cleaning Stages



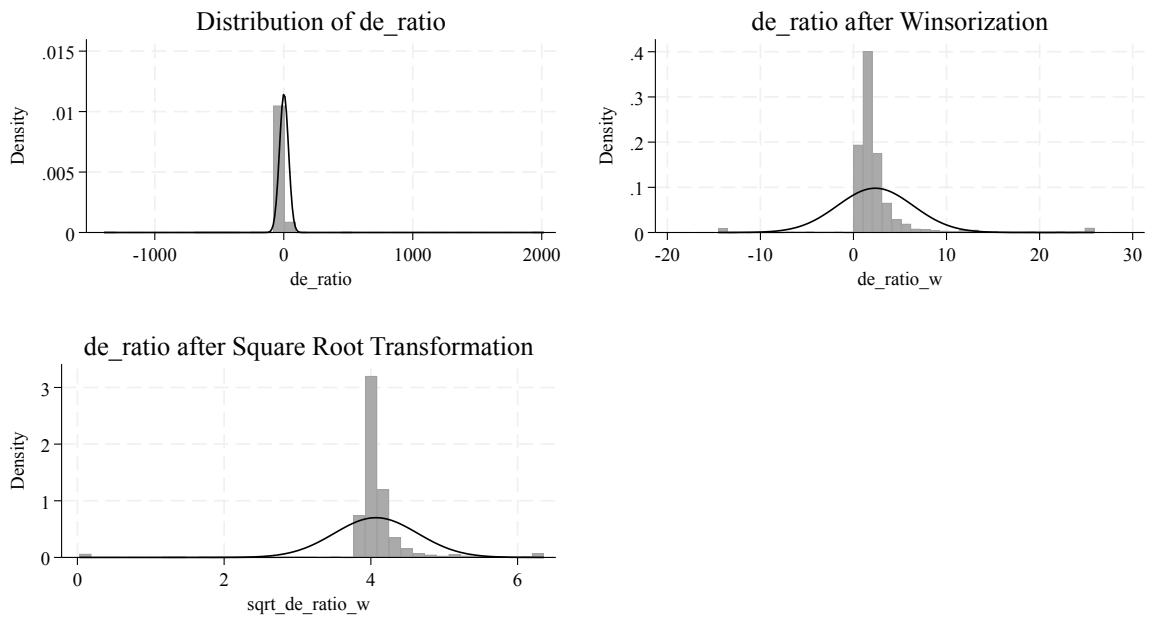
NPM Cleaning Stages



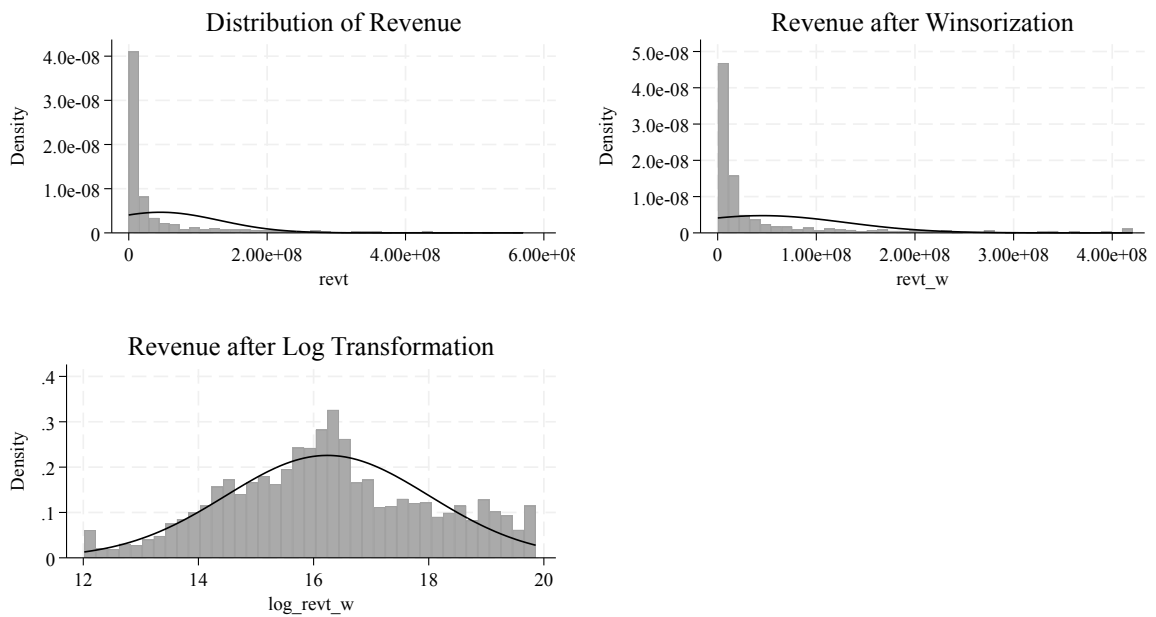
debt_at Cleaning Stages

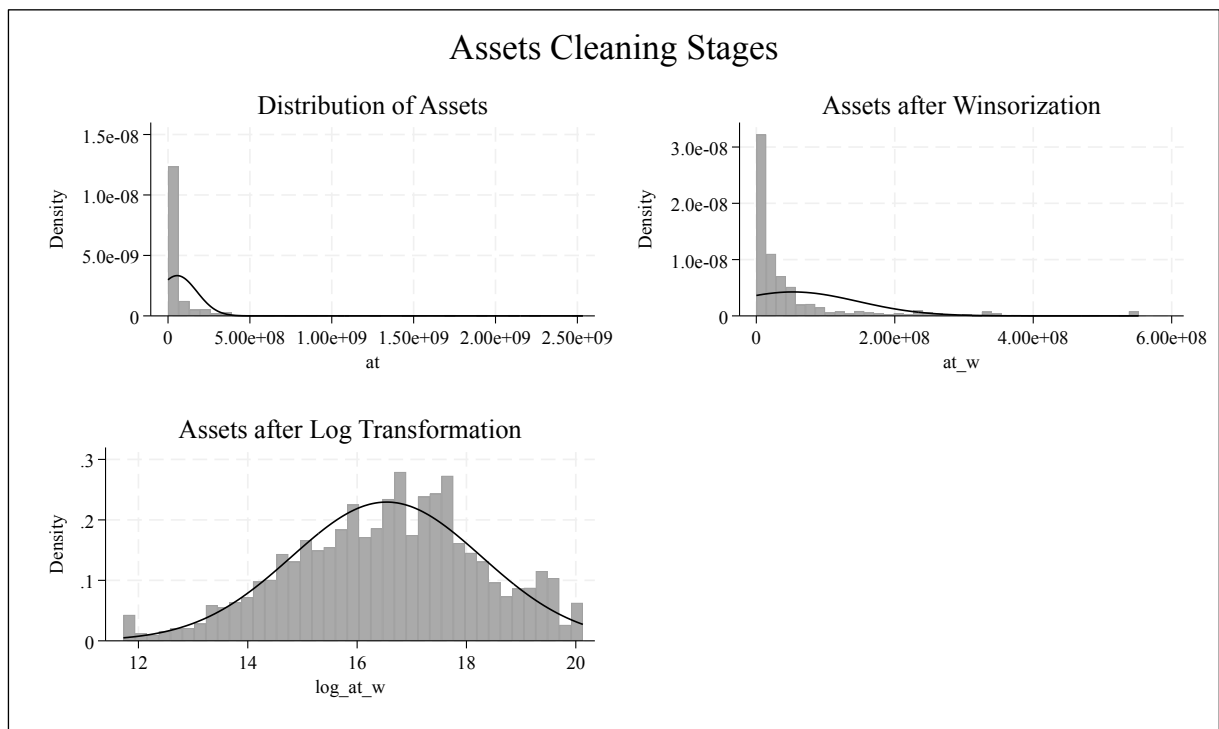
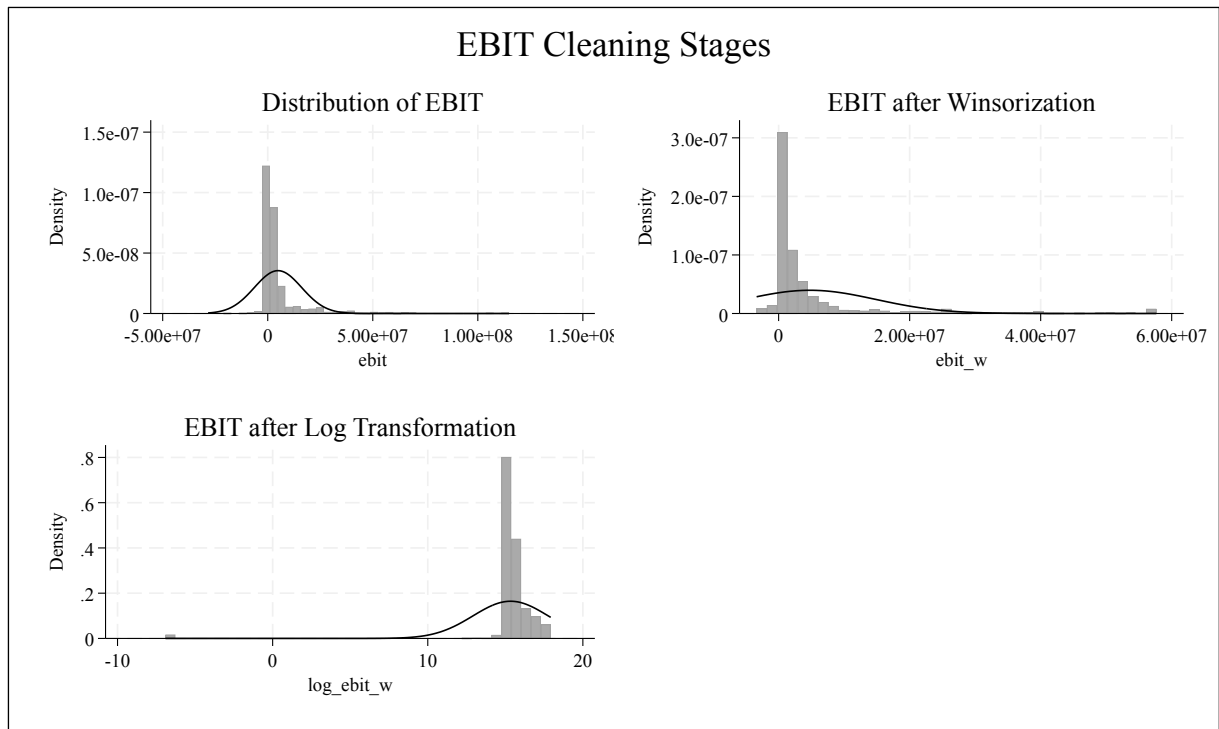


de_ratio Cleaning Stages



Revenue Cleaning Stages





Appendix F: Sample Descriptives of Long-Term Dataset

observations 9,579
variables 41

Variable	storage type	display format
year	int	%10.0g

penalty_date	long	%12.0g
parentcompany	str61	%61s
penalty_not_standardized	double	%10.0g
primary_offense	str53	%53s
reporting_date_parent	str61	%61s
tic	str8	%9s
debt_assets	float	%9.0g
staff_sale	float	%9.0g
roa	float	%9.0g
roe	float	%9.0g
npm	float	%9.0g
gpm	float	%9.0g
debt_at	float	%9.0g
de_ratio	float	%9.0g
naics	long	%12.0g
revt	float	%9.0g
at	float	%9.0g
ebit	float	%9.0g
name	str55	%55s
total_grade	str3	%9s
total_level	str6	%9s
penalty	float	%9.0g
roa_w	float	%9.0g
sqrt_roa_w	float	%9.0g
npm_w	float	%9.0g
sqrt_npm_w	float	%9.0g
gpm_w	float	%9.0g
sqrt_gpm_w	float	%9.0g
debt_at_w	float	%9.0g
sqrt_debt_at_w	float	%9.0g
de_ratio_w	float	%9.0g
sqrt_de_ratio_w	float	%9.0g
revt_w	float	%9.0g
log_revt_w	float	%9.0g
ebit_w	float	%9.0g
log_ebit_w	float	%9.0g
at_w	float	%9.0g
log_at_w	float	%9.0g

Appendix G: Company Size Overview of long-term Dataset

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Asset value	9,541	5,2800,000	93,800,000	123,662	5.523e+08

	N	p1	p99	Skew.	Kurt.
Asset value	9,541	164,103	5.523e+08	3.087	13.564

Appendix H: Company's ESG Score within long-term Dataset

Total grade	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
A	53	20.31	20.31
B	36	13.79	34.10
BB	19	7.28	41.38
BBB	153	58.62	100.00
Total	261	100.00	

Appendix I: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Entire Sample)

log_rev_t_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.020537	.0048406	-4.24	0.000	-.0300386	-.0110354
year						
2001	.083345	.0408505	2.04	0.042	.0031595	.1635305
2002	.0447695	.0501571	0.89	0.372	-.0536838	.1432229
2003	.2019949	.050533	4.00	0.000	.1028036	.3011862
2004	.2677777	.0525842	5.09	0.000	.1645603	.3709952
2005	.418779	.0495493	8.45	0.000	.3215187	.5160393
2006	.5078809	.0515266	9.86	0.000	.4067393	.6090224
2007	.5801272	.0568232	10.21	0.000	.468589	.6916655
2008	.6333929	.0624042	10.15	0.000	.5108997	.755886
2009	.4613876	.0588556	7.84	0.000	.3458598	.5769154
2010	.5606781	.0653611	8.58	0.000	.4323808	.6889755
2011	.7015892	.064176	10.93	0.000	.5756181	.8275602
2012	.7458336	.0642908	11.60	0.000	.6196372	.87203
2013	.7511158	.062518	12.01	0.000	.6283992	.8738324

2014	.8457113	.0648561	13.04	0.000	.7184052	.9730173
2015	.6973255	.0641322	10.87	0.000	.5714404	.8232106
2016	.667588	.0679621	9.82	0.000	.5341852	.8009908
2017	.7685121	.068075	11.29	0.000	.6348876	.9021366
2018	.8922396	.0651749	13.69	0.000	.7643078	1.020171
2019	.9022134	.0653505	13.81	0.000	.773937	1.03049
2020	.8206519	.0715963	11.46	0.000	.6801155	.9611882
2021	1.05357	.0753923	13.97	0.000	.9055824	1.201558
2022	1.206801	.0801783	15.05	0.000	1.049419	1.364183
_cons	14.78639	.078873	187.47	0.000	14.63157	14.94121

	Robust					
log_revt_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0147251	.0039161	-3.76	0.000	-.0224139	-.0070364
log_ebit_w	.022263	.0061092	3.64	0.000	.0102684	.0342577
sqrt_debt_at_w	.3108067	.1791617	1.73	0.083	-.0409556	.662569
sqrt_gpm_w	-1.439531	.3600547	-4.00	0.000	-2.146455	-.7326076
sqrt_npm_w	.2180178	.2208236	0.99	0.324	-.2155425	.6515781
sqrt_roa_w	2.085744	.4438095	4.70	0.000	1.214378	2.95711
sqrt_roe_w	.0719507	.0978944	0.73	0.463	-.1202532	.2641545
year						
2001	.04938	.0437304	1.13	0.259	-.0364792	.1352393
2002	.0805757	.0491446	1.64	0.102	-.0159138	.1770652
2003	.2218307	.0521594	4.25	0.000	.119422	.3242394
2004	.2945886	.0509917	5.78	0.000	.1944725	.3947046
2005	.3989434	.049417	8.07	0.000	.3019192	.4959676
2006	.4780393	.0509622	9.38	0.000	.3779812	.5780974
2007	.5719511	.0547849	10.44	0.000	.4643875	.6795146
2008	.6431114	.0568062	11.32	0.000	.5315793	.7546435
2009	.4999039	.057272	8.73	0.000	.3874573	.6123506
2010	.6220386	.063974	9.72	0.000	.4964334	.7476439
2011	.7086313	.0609973	11.62	0.000	.5888706	.828392
2012	.7341574	.0630753	11.64	0.000	.6103166	.8579981

2013	.7693953	.0624947	12.31	0.000	.6466946	.892096
2014	.8739823	.0637891	13.70	0.000	.7487401	.9992244
2015	.758386	.061604	12.31	0.000	.637434	.8793381
2016	.7457262	.0653408	11.41	0.000	.6174374	.874015
2017	.8338222	.0685281	12.17	0.000	.6992757	.9683688
2018	.9048474	.0672326	13.46	0.000	.7728443	1.03685
2019	.8970913	.0664197	13.51	0.000	.7666844	1.027498
2020	.8855541	.072232	12.26	0.000	.7437354	1.027373
2021	1.067856	.0770038	13.87	0.000	.9166688	1.219044
2022	1.187322	.0803561	14.78	0.000	1.029552	1.345091
_cons	14.07302	.1984644	70.91	0.000	13.68336	14.46268

log_ebit_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0365119	.0263846	1.38	0.167	-.0152783	.0883021
year						
2001	.019189	.0735162	0.26	0.794	-.1251156	.1634937
2002	-.0281093	.0651716	-0.43	0.666	-.1560343	.0998158
2003	-.0016506	.0599824	-0.03	0.978	-.1193899	.1160887
2004	.1291449	.0661016	1.95	0.051	-.0006057	.2588956
2005	-.031961	.1658289	-0.19	0.847	-.357466	.293544
2006	-.0303948	.154035	-0.20	0.844	-.3327497	.2719601
2007	.1113616	.0776122	1.43	0.152	-.0409833	.2637064
2008	-.283027	.2146278	-1.32	0.188	-.7043192	.1382651
2009	-.2241758	.1877839	-1.19	0.233	-.5927762	.1444246
2010	.0644204	.0638816	1.01	0.314	-.0609726	.1898134
2011	.1436382	.0581826	2.47	0.014	.0294317	.2578447
2012	.0055269	.1330305	0.04	0.967	-.2555982	.266652
2013	.1414363	.0629636	2.25	0.025	.0178452	.2650274
2014	.1257821	.0637859	1.97	0.049	.000577	.2509872
2015	-1.254583	.380135	-3.30	0.001	-2.000749	-.508417
2016	-.3223774	.2098292	-1.54	0.125	-.7342504	.0894957
2017	-.0341535	.1398198	-0.24	0.807	-.3086053	.2402983
2018	.1215905	.0744784	1.63	0.103	-.0246029	.267784

2019	.0741011	.0775525	0.96	0.340	-.0781265	.2263287
2020	-1.023558	.3743212	-2.73	0.006	-1.758312	-.288804
2021	.2397003	.0944309	2.54	0.011	.0543422	.4250585
2022	-.0994192	.2234221	-0.44	0.656	-.5379738	.3391354
_cons	15.75589	.3219008	48.95	0.000	15.12403	16.38775

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0420119	.0282362	1.49	0.137	-.0134262	.09745
sqrt_debt_at_w	.9820304	.5125569	1.92	0.056	-.0243101	1.988371
sqrt_gpm_w	.7844926	1.499469	0.52	0.601	-2.159524	3.72851
sqrt_npm_w	2.817274	1.730276	1.63	0.104	-.5799031	6.214451
sqrt_roa_w	2.780757	1.574895	1.77	0.078	-.3113499	5.872865
sqrt_roe_w	.3646626	1.0649	0.34	0.732	-1.726134	2.455459
year						
2001	.0701691	.0697991	1.01	0.315	-.0668726	.2072108
2002	.1381073	.0988011	1.40	0.163	-.0558761	.3320907
2003	.241606	.1096647	2.20	0.028	.0262932	.4569188
2004	.2584534	.0959232	2.69	0.007	.0701204	.4467864
2005	.1624513	.0949683	1.71	0.088	-.0240069	.3489095
2006	.0016336	.2068642	0.01	0.994	-.4045181	.4077854
2007	.1649881	.1058775	1.56	0.120	-.042889	.3728652
2008	-.2618375	.2660464	-0.98	0.325	-.7841858	.2605109
2009	.1510703	.1232157	1.23	0.221	-.0908481	.3929888
2010	.2822299	.1210857	2.33	0.020	.0444936	.5199663
2011	.2484846	.0976051	2.55	0.011	.0568493	.4401199
2012	.2114243	.1109001	1.91	0.057	-.006314	.4291626
2013	.2801794	.1132567	2.47	0.014	.0578142	.5025446
2014	.22915	.1049276	2.18	0.029	.023138	.435162
2015	-1.046246	.3581823	-2.92	0.004	-1.749491	-.3430002
2016	-.0388263	.1705277	-0.23	0.820	-.3736358	.2959833
2017	.1980465	.1483659	1.33	0.182	-.0932511	.4893441
2018	.1925316	.0953893	2.02	0.044	.0052468	.3798164

2019	.1510989	.1216741	1.24	0.215	-.0877928	.3899906
2020	-.7715395	.3820813	-2.02	0.044	-1.521708	-.0213713
2021	.5090156	.1560545	3.26	0.001	.2026225	.8154088
2022	.2598875	.1362734	1.91	0.057	-.007668	.5274431
_cons	11.0391	1.164948	9.48	0.000	8.751869	13.32632

Appendix J: Event Study Regression Output (Entire Sample)

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0000399	.0000551	0.72	0.469	-.0000681	.0001479
_cons	.0002596	.0007393	0.35	0.725	-.0011896	.0017087

mean_aret_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	8.79e-06	.0000669	0.13	0.895	-.0001224	.00014
log_revt_w	-.0001048	.0000992	-1.06	0.291	-.0002992	.0000897
log_ebit_w	.000058	.0000933	0.62	0.534	-.0001249	.0002409
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0000775	.0003091	0.25	0.802	-.0005283	.0006834
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0005063	.0010314	-0.49	0.624	-.0025282	.0015157
sqrt_npm_w	.0022094	.0025747	0.86	0.391	-.0028378	.0072567
sqrt_roa_w	.0012481	.002236	0.56	0.577	-.0031352	.0056313
sqrt_roe_w	-.0021871	.0017493	-1.25	0.211	-.0056164	.0012421
_cons	.0004823	.0025289	0.19	0.849	-.0044751	.0054398

car_winsor	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0001195	.0001658	0.72	0.471	-.0002055	.0004445
_cons	.0007599	.002226	0.34	0.733	-.0036037	.0051235

car_winsor	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0000307	.0002018	0.15	0.879	-.0003649	.0004263

log_revt_w	-.0003019	.0002995	-1.01	0.313	-.000889	.0002852
log_ebit_w	.0001751	.00028	0.63	0.532	-.0003738	.000724
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0002358	.000928	0.25	0.799	-.0015833	.0020549
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0014656	.0031038	-0.47	0.637	-.0075501	.0046188
sqrt_npm_w	.0065105	.0077374	0.84	0.400	-.0086572	.0216783
sqrt_roa_w	.0034647	.0067523	0.51	0.608	-.0097717	.0167012
sqrt_roe_w	-.0064957	.0052523	-1.24	0.216	-.0167918	.0038004
_cons	.0013772	.0076002	0.18	0.856	-.0135214	.0162758

Appendix K: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Air Pollution)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	-.0261551	.0076916	-3.40	0.001	-.0412812	-.0110291
log_ebit_w	.0195784	.0043044	4.55	0.000	.0111136	.0280431
sqrt_debt_at_w	.4841329	.2953167	1.64	0.102	-.0966242	1.06489
sqrt_gpm_w	-.7504893	.5088148	-1.47	0.141	-1.751103	.2501241
sqrt_npm_w	-.0897811	.2628227	-0.34	0.733	-.6066368	.4270747
sqrt_roa_w	1.661767	.6757493	2.46	0.014	.3328674	2.990667
sqrt_roe_w	.0440784	.1207645	0.36	0.715	-.1934118	.2815687
year						
2001	-.0003114	.1081503	-0.00	0.998	-.2129952	.2123724
2002	.0876737	.1023874	0.86	0.392	-.113677	.2890244
2003	.2405645	.0983776	2.45	0.015	.0470994	.4340297
2004	.3464926	.1040591	3.33	0.001	.1418544	.5511309
2005	.3723503	.0983383	3.79	0.000	.1789625	.5657381
2006	.5522193	.1098176	5.03	0.000	.3362566	.7681819
2007	.5690235	.1122665	5.07	0.000	.348245	.789802
2008	.683213	.1244489	5.49	0.000	.4384771	.9279488
2009	.4836618	.1160625	4.17	0.000	.2554183	.7119053
2010	.639145	.1288467	4.96	0.000	.3857606	.8925294
2011	.7602072	.1374639	5.53	0.000	.4898766	1.030538
2012	.7369364	.13181	5.59	0.000	.4777246	.9961482
2013	.7671147	.1333546	5.75	0.000	.5048652	1.029364
2014	.8376959	.1296572	6.46	0.000	.5827176	1.092674
2015	.7767814	.1314497	5.91	0.000	.5182781	1.035285

2016	.6811559	.1356267	5.02	0.000	.4144383	.9478734
2017	.803684	.1413936	5.68	0.000	.5256254	1.081743
2018	.810552	.1358685	5.97	0.000	.5433587	1.077745
2019	.8173134	.1275861	6.41	0.000	.566408	1.068219
2020	.8326577	.1398765	5.95	0.000	.5575826	1.107733
2021	.9891374	.1440377	6.87	0.000	.705879	1.272396
2022	1.190277	.1627985	7.31	0.000	.8701245	1.51043
_cons	14.25507	.3215098	44.34	0.000	13.6228	14.88734

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	.0360975	.0297949	1.21	0.226	-.0224958	.0946909
log_revt_w	.8271122	.2780066	2.98	0.003	.2803964	1.373828
sqrt_debt_at_w	.2304194	.9926155	0.23	0.817	-1.721616	2.182455
sqrt_gpm_w	3.091551	2.452993	1.26	0.208	-1.7324	7.915501
sqrt_npm_w	.7817058	1.962164	0.40	0.691	-3.077002	4.640413
sqrt_roa_w	-1.008211	2.592268	-0.39	0.698	-6.106053	4.089632
sqrt_roe_w	3.071409	2.106738	1.46	0.146	-1.071611	7.214429
year						
2001	.5880177	.3735237	1.57	0.116	-.1465379	1.322573
2002	-.1480442	.1705015	-0.87	0.386	-.4833451	.1872568
2003	.3087955	.3087112	1.00	0.318	-.2983028	.9158938
2004	-.1927573	.1723163	-1.12	0.264	-.5316272	.1461125
2005	-.2302956	.2112516	-1.09	0.276	-.6457338	.1851427
2006	-.5921787	.4639624	-1.28	0.203	-1.504587	.3202299
2007	-.0742023	.3225243	-0.23	0.818	-.7084646	.5600601
2008	-.9034199	.4561979	-1.98	0.048	-1.800559	-.0062807
2009	-.0130149	.2010913	-0.06	0.948	-.4084724	.3824425
2010	-.3662307	.23175	-1.58	0.115	-.8219802	.0895188
2011	-.3549216	.2318822	-1.53	0.127	-.8109312	.101088
2012	-.3211028	.3172395	-1.01	0.312	-.9449723	.3027668
2013	-.3430881	.2280777	-1.50	0.133	-.7916158	.1054397
2014	-.228426	.3132073	-0.73	0.466	-.844366	.387514

2015	-2.119584	.8960451	-2.37	0.019	-3.881708	-.3574606
2016	-.3639653	.2451793	-1.48	0.139	-.8461244	.1181939
2017	-.3671562	.2511415	-1.46	0.145	-.8610403	.1267278
2018	-.6236257	.2565242	-2.43	0.016	-1.128095	-.1191562
2019	-.6750526	.2877557	-2.35	0.020	-1.240941	-.1091646
2020	-2.072815	.8634224	-2.40	0.017	-3.770784	-.3748453
2021	-.4680354	.283802	-1.65	0.100	-1.026148	.0900775
2022	-.694065	.3763922	-1.84	0.066	-1.434262	.0461317
_cons	-1.970358	4.748873	-0.41	0.678	-11.30929	7.368572

Appendix L: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Water Pollution)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	-.0056237	.0087616	-0.64	0.522	-.0229397	.0116923
log_ebit_w	.018916	.0157129	1.20	0.231	-.0121381	.0499701
sqrt_debt_at_w	.4638147	.508849	0.91	0.364	-.5418469	1.469476
sqrt_gpm_w	-.9265826	1.039831	-0.89	0.374	-2.981648	1.128483
sqrt_npm_w	-3.148756	1.50887	-2.09	0.039	-6.130805	-.166708
sqrt_roa_w	4.037178	1.331842	3.03	0.003	1.404997	6.669359
sqrt_roe_w	.566031	.6420287	0.88	0.379	-.7028397	1.834902
year						
2001	-.385363	.1615218	-2.39	0.018	-.704586	-.06614
2002	-.2950452	.1800202	-1.64	0.103	-.6508274	.060737
2003	-.3381008	.1771466	-1.91	0.058	-.6882038	.0120021
2004	-.0591099	.1792806	-0.33	0.742	-.4134305	.2952106
2005	-.132195	.1801084	-0.73	0.464	-.4881515	.2237614
2006	.1953573	.2335343	0.84	0.404	-.2661872	.6569018
2007	.156376	.1629244	0.96	0.339	-.1656191	.478371
2008	.1535618	.1656969	0.93	0.356	-.1739126	.4810362
2009	-.0416977	.1833094	-0.23	0.820	-.4039805	.3205851
2010	.0501849	.2199574	0.23	0.820	-.3845269	.4848967
2011	.1755866	.1859192	0.94	0.347	-.1918541	.5430272
2012	.287667	.2436656	1.18	0.240	-.1939004	.7692343
2013	.2938964	.1942531	1.51	0.132	-.0900149	.6778078

2014	.4701533	.2170022	2.17	0.032	.041282	.8990245
2015	.4096188	.2044189	2.00	0.047	.0056164	.8136211
2016	.5121929	.2051125	2.50	0.014	.1068196	.9175661
2017	.3006332	.2072096	1.45	0.149	-.1088846	.7101509
2018	.6739268	.240943	2.80	0.006	.1977401	1.150113
2019	.420512	.1959484	2.15	0.034	.0332503	.8077737
2020	.4785824	.2238304	2.14	0.034	.0362162	.9209485
2021	.581325	.2026194	2.87	0.005	.1808791	.9817709
2022	0	(omitted)				
_cons	15.70914	.484028	32.46	0.000	14.75253	16.66574

	Robust					
log_ebit_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	.1351475	.1227928	1.10	0.273	-.1075335	.3778284
log_revt_w	.8182977	.3672854	2.23	0.027	.0924147	1.544181
sqrt_debt_at_w	4.506835	2.497082	1.80	0.073	-.4282622	9.441931
sqrt_gpm_w	1.995038	2.314314	0.86	0.390	-2.578846	6.568922
sqrt_npm_w	16.15445	8.99979	1.79	0.075	-1.63225	33.94114
sqrt_roa_w	4.18346	4.020572	1.04	0.300	-3.76258	12.1295
sqrt_roe_w	-9.18044	4.046419	-2.27	0.025	-17.17756	-
						1.183317
year						
2001	.7693547	.6661561	1.15	0.250	-.5471999	2.085909
2002	.5570668	.4921857	1.13	0.260	-.4156623	1.529796
2003	.793485	.6424209	1.24	0.219	-.4761607	2.063131
2004	1.189183	1.080056	1.10	0.273	-.9453811	3.323748
2005	.7102844	.5628376	1.26	0.209	-.4020771	1.822646
2006	.9582164	.7010093	1.37	0.174	-.4272204	2.343653
2007	.3394733	.5838384	0.58	0.562	-.8143933	1.49334
2008	.6999946	.6479594	1.08	0.282	-.580597	1.980586
2009	-.5345873	.7049237	-0.76	0.449	-1.92776	.8585856
2010	.7316671	.6102448	1.20	0.232	-.4743876	1.937722
2011	.7970306	.6538928	1.22	0.225	-.4952877	2.089349

2012	.9150738	.9124277	1.00	0.318	-.8881988	2.718346
2013	.0296379	.6463311	0.05	0.963	-1.247736	1.307012
2014	1.596331	1.159139	1.38	0.171	-.6945287	3.887191
2015	-1.541261	1.763851	-0.87	0.384	-5.027241	1.944718
2016	.0537252	.5268808	0.10	0.919	-.9875734	1.095024
2017	.6257105	.6865763	0.91	0.364	-.7312016	1.982623
2018	.2555074	.7286415	0.35	0.726	-1.18454	1.695555
2019	.078946	.6274672	0.13	0.900	-1.161146	1.319038
2020	-.021767	.5638139	-0.04	0.969	-1.136058	1.092524
2021	1.234221	1.472136	0.84	0.403	-1.675227	4.14367
2022	0	(omitted)				
_cons	-5.302943	8.377899	-0.63	0.528	-21.86057	11.25468

Appendix M: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Hazardous Waste Violations)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	-.0283799	.0145689	-1.95	0.053	-.0571267	.0003668
log_ebit_w	.00849	.0082281	1.03	0.304	-.0077453	.0247253
sqrt_debt_at_w	1.139882	.374139	3.05	0.003	.401647	1.878117
sqrt_gpm_w	-.4702362	.8196679	-0.57	0.567	-2.08757	1.147097
sqrt_npm_w	-1.6044	1.106027	-1.45	0.149	-3.786766	.5779654
sqrt_roa_w	-.5364104	.7828947	-0.69	0.494	-2.081185	1.008364
sqrt_roe_w	.4660858	.2455313	1.90	0.059	-.0183859	.9505576
year						
2001	-.1443161	.1039374	-1.39	0.167	-.3494008	.0607687
2002	-.1308378	.1552067	-0.84	0.400	-.4370851	.1754094
2003	.1128627	.124362	0.91	0.365	-.132523	.3582485
2004	-.2311785	.2132192	-1.08	0.280	-.6518935	.1895366
2005	.2204505	.1221994	1.80	0.073	-.0206681	.4615691
2006	.4455045	.0891404	5.00	0.000	.2696165	.6213926
2007	.5455683	.1382097	3.95	0.000	.2728588	.8182777
2008	.2929549	.1245018	2.35	0.020	.0472934	.5386164
2009	.1452358	.160378	0.91	0.366	-.1712152	.4616869
2010	.4197369	.0976442	4.30	0.000	.2270695	.6124042

2011	.7315608	.1189096	6.15	0.000	.4969334	.9661881
2012	.5461511	.1259123	4.34	0.000	.2977064	.7945957
2013	.5730976	.1250406	4.58	0.000	.3263729	.8198224
2014	.7763745	.1284286	6.05	0.000	.5229648	1.029784
2015	.5117827	.1240118	4.13	0.000	.2670881	.7564774
2016	.5119249	.1203708	4.25	0.000	.2744144	.7494355
2017	.605396	.1523733	3.97	0.000	.3047395	.9060525
2018	.5341329	.0952462	5.61	0.000	.3461973	.7220685
2019	.7062273	.1225156	5.76	0.000	.4644848	.9479698
2020	.5709695	.1179416	4.84	0.000	.3382521	.8036868
2021	.544902	.241702	2.25	0.025	.0679859	1.021818
2022	.8470864	.1531584	5.53	0.000	.5448808	1.149292
_cons	15.65834	.7775387	20.14	0.000	14.12413	17.19255

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	.1479312	.0993446	1.49	0.138	-.0480913	.3439538
log_revt_w	.4111751	.3627873	1.13	0.259	-.3046611	1.127011
sqrt_debt_at_w	-1.661447	2.615591	-0.64	0.526	-6.822418	3.499525
sqrt_gpm_w	-.4964719	2.974841	-0.17	0.868	-6.366301	5.373357
sqrt_npm_w	-4.033307	5.990882	-0.67	0.502	-15.85426	7.787643
sqrt_roa_w	-2.575602	2.756692	-0.93	0.351	-8.014988	2.863785
sqrt_roe_w	7.071912	4.657807	1.52	0.131	-2.118673	16.2625
year						
2001	-.1832276	.6742146	-0.27	0.786	-1.513559	1.147104
2002	.1656177	.5223283	0.32	0.752	-.865018	1.196253
2003	-.1268913	.4198302	-0.30	0.763	-.9552822	.7014995
2004	-.1035063	.4692331	-0.22	0.826	-1.029377	.8223642
2005	-.278435	.7064771	-0.39	0.694	-1.672425	1.115555
2006	-1.235318	1.120892	-1.10	0.272	-3.447014	.9763783
2007	-.0923015	.7868044	-0.12	0.907	-1.64479	1.460187
2008	-.7890183	.8168609	-0.97	0.335	-2.400813	.8227765
2009	-.2238871	.6970805	-0.32	0.748	-1.599336	1.151562

2010	-.5474116	.7544387	-0.73	0.469	-2.036038	.9412144
2011	-.6791512	.7605544	-0.89	0.373	-2.179844	.821542
2012	-.5846065	1.093644	-0.53	0.594	-2.742539	1.573325
2013	-.4331365	1.025663	-0.42	0.673	-2.45693	1.590657
2014	-.4336613	.858365	-0.51	0.614	-2.12735	1.260028
2015	-.4121057	.8292547	-0.50	0.620	-2.048355	1.224144
2016	.8130158	.8358021	0.97	0.332	-.8361529	2.462185
2017	-.0311748	1.127415	-0.03	0.978	-2.255741	2.193391
2018	.9835438	2.114401	0.47	0.642	-3.188502	5.155589
2019	-1.080218	1.517124	-0.71	0.477	-4.073742	1.913306
2020	-.9667024	1.795829	-0.54	0.591	-4.510155	2.57675
2021	-.5876494	1.166851	-0.50	0.615	-2.89003	1.714732
2022	-.8318846	1.056056	-0.79	0.432	-2.915649	1.25188
_cons	9.497934	7.382709	1.29	0.200	-5.06931	24.06518

Appendix N: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Pipeline Safety Violations)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	.0161306	.0284267	0.57	0.574	-.0415214	.0737826
log_ebit_w	.2100177	.1043735	2.01	0.052	-.0016615	.421697
sqrt_debt_at_w	-.3928911	.8833529	-0.44	0.659	-2.184414	1.398632
sqrt_gpm_w	-.354676	1.133836	-0.31	0.756	-2.654202	1.94485
sqrt_npm_w	-7.954347	3.271285	-2.43	0.020	-14.58882	-1.319873
sqrt_roa_w	1.960729	1.103576	1.78	0.084	-.2774269	4.198885
sqrt_roe_w	2.298333	1.913957	1.20	0.238	-1.583353	6.180018
year						
2003	.0925265	.1754688	0.53	0.601	-.2633408	.4483938
2004	.21961	.1180368	1.86	0.071	-.0197797	.4589998
2005	.4599746	.1266853	3.63	0.001	.2030448	.7169044
2006	.4557936	.145155	3.14	0.003	.1614055	.7501817
2007	.656857	.1415744	4.64	0.000	.3697307	.9439833
2008	.6727438	.1844489	3.65	0.001	.2986641	1.046824
2009	.3564225	.1112417	3.20	0.003	.1308139	.5820311
2010	.6144041	.1302429	4.72	0.000	.3502592	.8785489

2011	.5668127	.1662369	3.41	0.002	.2296686	.9039568
2012	.4249401	.1409394	3.02	0.005	.1391016	.7107785
2013	.9075096	.2092901	4.34	0.000	.4830497	1.33197
2014	.8006307	.1720434	4.65	0.000	.4517106	1.149551
2015	.5257975	.1218553	4.31	0.000	.2786636	.7729314
2016	.5781651	.0985959	5.86	0.000	.3782034	.7781268
2017	.3761214	.1616369	2.33	0.026	.0483064	.7039363
2018	1.029047	.2236321	4.60	0.000	.5754999	1.482594
2019	1.099937	.25758	4.27	0.000	.5775406	1.622333
2020	.8107221	.2468533	3.28	0.002	.3100803	1.311364
2021	.6768674	.1611519	4.20	0.000	.3500361	1.003699
2022	1.137085	.2712598	4.19	0.000	.5869448	1.687225
_cons	16.56434	2.184724	7.58	0.000	12.13352	20.99517

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	-.1021023	.0463395	-2.20	0.034	-.1960831	-.0081215
log_revt_w	.2594875	.0912748	2.84	0.007	.0743736	.4446013
sqrt_debt_at_w	-1.497792	.7004216	-2.14	0.039	-2.918313	-.077271
sqrt_gpm_w	1.774249	.6645493	2.67	0.011	.426481	3.122018
sqrt_npm_w	-3.489963	1.985926	-1.76	0.087	-7.517607	.5376802
sqrt_roa_w	-.6073668	1.329203	-0.46	0.650	-3.303115	2.088382
sqrt_roe_w	6.425183	2.643308	2.43	0.020	1.064307	11.78606
year						
2003	.2868229	.1537483	1.87	0.070	-.0249931	.598639
2004	.2002138	.1452607	1.38	0.177	-.0943885	.4948161
2005	.2393923	.145262	1.65	0.108	-.0552127	.5339972
2006	.1016395	.1612284	0.63	0.532	-.2253468	.4286259
2007	.2619944	.170189	1.54	0.132	-.0831648	.6071537
2008	.4055751	.1253692	3.24	0.003	.1513145	.6598357
2009	.170825	.1772202	0.96	0.342	-.1885942	.5302443
2010	.4668058	.1051578	4.44	0.000	.253536	.6800756
2011	.472594	.1721212	2.75	0.009	.1235161	.8216719

2012	.3197425	.1385951	2.31	0.027	.0386585	.6008264
2013	.5130874	.2356597	2.18	0.036	.0351474	.9910274
2014	.3563533	.1631726	2.18	0.036	.025424	.6872826
2015	.2338138	.1216443	1.92	0.063	-.0128922	.4805199
2016	.0863478	.1757343	0.49	0.626	-.2700578	.4427534
2017	.0453293	.1779699	0.25	0.800	-.3156104	.406269
2018	.4143637	.2187472	1.89	0.066	-.0292762	.8580037
2019	.1334231	.273181	0.49	0.628	-.4206137	.6874599
2020	-.033643	.5127749	-0.07	0.948	-1.073599	1.006313
2021	.572998	.2932517	1.95	0.059	-.0217439	1.16774
2022	.7960628	.3469281	2.29	0.028	.09246	1.499666
_cons	6.53551	2.008216	3.25	0.002	2.46266	10.60836

Appendix O: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Oil and Gas Drilling Violations)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	.0149166	.0364889	0.41	0.686	-.0602337	.090067
log_ebit_w	.0064654	.0045125	1.43	0.164	-.0028283	.0157591
sqrt_debt_at_w	-.7227443	.4035716	-1.79	0.085	-1.553916	.1084269
sqrt_gpm_w	-1.439278	.6767834	-2.13	0.043	-2.83314	-.0454168
sqrt_npm_w	-.184125	.4018925	-0.46	0.651	-1.011838	.643588
sqrt_roa_w	1.900745	.7694034	2.47	0.021	.3161292	3.485361
sqrt_roe_w	.4517735	.3118341	1.45	0.160	-.1904609	1.094008
year						
2001	-.8693721	.2896807	-3.00	0.006	-1.465981	-.2727634
2002	-.0158116	.1982046	-0.08	0.937	-.4240217	.3923985
2003	.3364148	.1810846	1.86	0.075	-.0365359	.7093656
2004	.4258301	.1853153	2.30	0.030	.044166	.8074941
2005	.4498291	.1953659	2.30	0.030	.0474655	.8521926
2006	.4500695	.189	2.38	0.025	.0608167	.8393222
2007	.7118285	.2199587	3.24	0.003	.2588151	1.164842
2008	.8905786	.2298533	3.87	0.001	.417187	1.36397
2009	.5984398	.2848885	2.10	0.046	.0117009	1.185179
2010	.674908	.1852485	3.64	0.001	.2933816	1.056434

2011	.9471648	.2747842	3.45	0.002	.3812361	1.513094
2012	.8678297	.2653617	3.27	0.003	.3213071	1.414352
2013	1.060318	.2328296	4.55	0.000	.5807966	1.53984
2014	1.061887	.2503615	4.24	0.000	.5462577	1.577516
2015	.4799512	.2223595	2.16	0.041	.0219932	.9379092
2016	.6182401	.3022671	2.05	0.051	-.0042907	1.240771
2017	.8231793	.2463599	3.34	0.003	.3157916	1.330567
2018	.9033245	.219524	4.11	0.000	.4512064	1.355443
2020	.6677407	.3514732	1.90	0.069	-.0561318	1.391613
2021	.905686	.2574007	3.52	0.002	.3755593	1.435813
2022	.7820924	.2561696	3.05	0.005	.2545012	1.309684
_cons	15.60012	.5915981	26.37	0.000	14.3817	16.81854

	Robust					
log_ebit_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_vtype_w	-.1141211	.4327822	-0.26	0.794	-1.005453	.7772105
log_revt_w	1.938061	1.661806	1.17	0.255	-1.484493	5.360615
sqrt_debt_at_w	4.09481	4.704784	0.87	0.392	-5.594875	13.78449
sqrt_gpm_w	-.7502672	9.316538	-0.08	0.936	-19.93804	18.4375
sqrt_npm_w	-12.54828	8.724195	-1.44	0.163	-30.51609	5.419539
sqrt_roa_w	11.89706	6.943083	1.71	0.099	-2.402491	26.1966
sqrt_roe_w	-.3509156	7.335417	-0.05	0.962	-15.45849	14.75666
year						
2001	2.385092	2.475751	0.96	0.345	-2.713814	7.483997
2002	.6265961	.8491666	0.74	0.467	-1.122295	2.375487
2003	.6981486	1.611654	0.43	0.669	-2.621115	4.017412
2004	.8450921	1.354805	0.62	0.538	-1.94518	3.635364
2005	.5454728	1.249086	0.44	0.666	-2.027068	3.118014
2006	-.0761269	1.770203	-0.04	0.966	-3.721928	3.569675
2007	.5545662	1.986179	0.28	0.782	-3.536045	4.645177
2008	-4.663	5.151495	-0.91	0.374	-15.2727	5.946703
2009	-2.295807	2.94898	-0.78	0.444	-8.369345	3.777731
2010	-.2865818	1.728638	-0.17	0.870	-3.846778	3.273615

2011	-1.869064	3.12374	-0.60	0.555	-8.302528	4.564399
2012	.7320069	2.242631	0.33	0.747	-3.886778	5.350791
2013	.5464063	2.167475	0.25	0.803	-3.917593	5.010405
2014	.5133219	1.954378	0.26	0.795	-3.511794	4.538438
2015	-11.61008	6.800778	-1.71	0.100	-25.61655	2.396385
2016	-8.837076	6.661329	-1.33	0.197	-22.55634	4.882188
2017	-1.891555	2.875539	-0.66	0.517	-7.813838	4.030729
2018	2.636514	2.251202	1.17	0.253	-1.999922	7.272951
2020	-14.04775	5.702197	-2.46	0.021	-25.79164	-2.303854
2021	-2.219357	2.884818	-0.77	0.449	-8.16075	3.722037
2022	2.603045	2.529746	1.03	0.313	-2.607065	7.813155
_cons	-14.30157	29.5119	-0.48	0.632	-75.08246	46.47933

Appendix P: Event Study Regression Output (Across all Chosen Violations)

Regression for Air Pollution

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_vtype_w	.0001245	.0001377	0.90	0.366	-.0001457	.0003946
log_revt_w	.0001488	.0001927	0.77	0.440	-.0002291	.0005267
log_ebit_w	.0000169	.0001664	0.10	0.919	-.0003093	.0003432
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.000424	.0009517	0.45	0.656	-.0014426	.0022905
sqrt_gpm_w	.0016549	.0019713	0.84	0.401	-.0022115	.0055213
sqrt_npm_w	.0006836	.0048932	0.14	0.889	-.0089137	.0102809
sqrt_roa_w	.0003464	.005236	0.07	0.947	-.0099232	.010616
sqrt_roe_w	-.0005803	.0047536	-0.12	0.903	-.0099037	.0087432
_cons	-.0038422	.005512	-0.70	0.486	-.0146531	.0069687

Regression for Water Pollution Violation

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_vtype_w	.0003421	.0002633	1.30	0.195	-.000176	.0008602
log_revt_w	.0009651	.0004307	2.24	0.026	.0001176	.0018126
log_ebit_w	-.0013247	.0003776	-3.51	0.001	-.0020678	-.0005816
sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.0013737	.0022285	-0.62	0.538	-.0057591	.0030117
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0015852	.0053293	-0.30	0.766	-.0120724	.008902

sqrt_npm_w	.0275022	.0109978	2.50	0.013	.0058602	.0491442
sqrt_roa_w	.0028497	.0079431	0.36	0.720	-.0127812	.0184806
sqrt_roe_w	-.0171897	.0061999	-2.77	0.006	-.0293902	-.0049893
_cons	.0080489	.0101154	0.80	0.427	-.0118567	.0279546

Regression for Hazardous Waste Violation

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_vtype_w	.0000677	.0002181	0.31	0.757	-.0003613	.0004966
log_revt_w	-.0001229	.0003178	-0.39	0.699	-.0007479	.0005021
log_ebit_w	.0001733	.0001563	1.11	0.268	-.0001341	.0004807
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0005877	.0010263	0.57	0.567	-.0014309	.0026062
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0022158	.0050788	-0.44	0.663	-.0122045	.007773
sqrt_npm_w	-.0070483	.0227878	-0.31	0.757	-.0518665	.0377699
sqrt_roa_w	.0094668	.0095592	0.99	0.323	-.0093339	.0282675
sqrt_roe_w	-.004881	.0072375	-0.67	0.501	-.0191154	.0093534
_cons	.004401	.0148362	0.30	0.767	-.0247782	.0335803

Regression for Pipeline Safety Violation

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_vtype_w	-.0007958	.0005978	-1.33	0.185	-.0019773	.0003856
log_revt_w	.0003478	.000655	0.53	0.596	-.0009466	.0016422
log_ebit_w	-.0033971	.001659	-2.05	0.042	-.0066756	-.0001187
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0006326	.0012993	0.49	0.627	-.001935	.0032002
sqrt_gpm_w	.0041268	.0058622	0.70	0.483	-.0074576	.0157112
sqrt_npm_w	-.0262575	.0173845	-1.51	0.133	-.0606113	.0080963
sqrt_roa_w	-.0115896	.0094517	-1.23	0.222	-.0302673	.0070882
sqrt_roe_w	.0478121	.0246502	1.94	0.054	-.0008997	.0965239
_cons	.01196	.0191292	0.63	0.533	-.0258417	.0497616

Regression for Oil and Gas Drilling Violation

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_vtype_w	.0004007	.0007165	0.56	0.577	-.0010144	.0018159

log_revt_w	.0003488	.0010864	0.32	0.749	-.0017969	.0024945
log_ebit_w	.000146	.0002298	0.64	0.526	-.0003077	.0005998
sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.0026149	.0055711	-0.47	0.639	-.0136178	.0083879
sqrt_gpm_w	.0021757	.0080108	0.27	0.786	-.0136455	.017997
sqrt_npm_w	-.0233293	.0164132	-1.42	0.157	-.0557454	.0090868
sqrt_roa_w	.0122364	.0224134	0.55	0.586	-.0320299	.0565027
sqrt_roe_w	.0161345	.0203151	0.79	0.428	-.0239877	.0562566
_cons	.0022881	.0253369	0.09	0.928	-.0477522	.0523284

Appendix Q: Penalty Amounts across Industries (winsorized)

industry_group	N	Min	Max
Manufacturing	2,135	5	117,153.8
Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	558	5	117,153.8
Transportation and Warehousing	278	5	117,153.8

Appendix R: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Manufacturing)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0388605	.0075277	-5.16	0.000	-.0536654	-.0240557
log_ebit_w	.0310195	.0108139	2.87	0.004	.0097518	.0522872
sqrt_debt_at_w	.6207086	.2762087	2.25	0.025	.0774871	1.16393
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0666609	.772046	-0.09	0.931	-1.585049	1.451727
sqrt_npm_w	1.596424	.4963866	3.22	0.001	.6201774	2.572671
sqrt_roa_w	-.0480167	.6312267	-0.08	0.939	-1.289455	1.193421
sqrt_roe_w	.2130251	.1300067	1.64	0.102	-.0426601	.4687102
_cons	13.03667	.5006389	26.04	0.000	12.05206	14.02128

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0756699	.0491923	1.54	0.125	-.021077	.1724168
log_revt_w	.4064897	.1585888	2.56	0.011	.0945919	.7183875
sqrt_debt_at_w	-.2264778	.3610523	-0.63	0.531	-.9365618	.4836063
sqrt_gpm_w	-1.447055	1.626265	-0.89	0.374	-4.645441	1.751331

sqrt_npm_w	-1.31735	.9243452	-1.43	0.155	-3.135266	.500566
sqrt_roa_w	2.529496	2.58028	0.98	0.328	-2.545159	7.604152
sqrt_roe_w	2.026614	1.496044	1.35	0.176	-.9156661	4.968893
_cons	8.596183	1.952849	4.40	0.000	4.7555	12.43687

Appendix S: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction)

	Robust					
log_revt_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0034135	.0147588	0.23	0.818	-.0260076	.0328346
log_ebit_w	.0154165	.0073741	2.09	0.040	.0007164	.0301166
sqrt_debt_at_w	-1.026265	.6134099	-1.67	0.099	-2.249076	.196545
sqrt_gpm_w	-1.583513	.5581414	-2.84	0.006	-2.696148	-.4708783
sqrt_npm_w	-.3322549	.2833643	-1.17	0.245	-.8971314	.2326216
sqrt_roa_w	2.38747	.7338827	3.25	0.002	.9245013	3.850438
sqrt_roe_w	.4716734	.3535159	1.33	0.186	-.2330476	1.176394
_cons	15.22248	.6246376	24.37	0.000	13.97728	16.46767

	Robust					
log_ebit_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0717754	.151388	0.47	0.637	-.230011	.3735618
log_revt_w	.8879703	.4061319	2.19	0.032	.0783611	1.697579
sqrt_debt_at_w	4.147265	3.249049	1.28	0.206	-2.329596	10.62413
sqrt_gpm_w	2.054644	2.919563	0.70	0.484	-3.765399	7.874688
sqrt_npm_w	3.857988	3.093311	1.25	0.216	-2.308414	10.02439
sqrt_roa_w	6.857715	4.636889	1.48	0.144	-2.385755	16.10119
sqrt_roe_w	-3.5738	3.751687	-0.95	0.344	-11.05265	3.905052
_cons	-4.05712	7.025521	-0.58	0.565	-18.06224	9.948001

Appendix T: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Transportation and Warehousing)

	Robust					
log_revt_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	

log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.006368	.0118849	-0.54	0.596	-.0305767	.0178407
log_ebit_w	.0538544	.0200482	2.69	0.011	.0130176	.0946913
sqrt_debt_at_w	1.303384	.8215322	1.59	0.122	-.3700227	2.97679
sqrt_gpm_w	.7636407	1.073963	0.71	0.482	-1.423951	2.951233
sqrt_npm_w	-4.294792	2.826768	-1.52	0.138	-10.05273	1.463146
sqrt_roa_w	3.867914	2.464391	1.57	0.126	-1.151887	8.887715
sqrt_roe_w	.5524996	.4487632	1.23	0.227	-.3616011	1.4666
_cons	15.24237	.9600082	15.88	0.000	13.28689	17.19784

	Robust					
log_ebit_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0444767	.0454688	0.98	0.335	-.0481401	.1370935
log_revt_w	.8910292	.5975112	1.49	0.146	-.3260612	2.10812
sqrt_debt_at_w	-1.622618	1.745881	-0.93	0.360	-5.178861	1.933625
sqrt_gpm_w	.0278393	1.747799	0.02	0.987	-3.532312	3.58799
sqrt_npm_w	7.501579	7.064081	1.06	0.296	-6.887483	21.89064
sqrt_roa_w	.7587307	.9779299	0.78	0.444	-1.233247	2.750709
sqrt_roe_w	-.3470452	1.093907	-0.32	0.753	-2.57526	1.88117
_cons	-3.37614	11.85249	-0.28	0.778	-27.51887	20.76659

Appendix U: Event Study Regression Output (Across all Chosen Industries)

Regression for Industry: Manufacturing

	Robust					
mean_aret_w	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0000294	.0001007	0.29	0.770	-.000168	.0002268
log_revt_w	-9.47e-06	.0001351	-0.07	0.944	-.0002744	.0002555
log_ebit_w	.0000563	.0001038	0.54	0.587	-.0001472	.0002599
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0002405	.0004084	0.59	0.556	-.0005602	.0010412
sqrt_gpm_w	.0022245	.001545	1.44	0.150	-.0008046	.0052536
sqrt_npm_w	-.0073259	.0069017	-1.06	0.289	-.0208575	.0062057
sqrt_roa_w	.0020609	.0033969	0.61	0.544	-.0045991	.0087208
sqrt_roe_w	.0002097	.0023745	0.09	0.930	-.0044458	.0048651
_cons	.0020058	.0051334	0.39	0.696	-.0080589	.0120705

Regression for Industry: Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0002269	.0002587	0.88	0.381	-.0002807	.0007344
log_revt_w	-.000152	.0003831	-0.40	0.692	-.0009038	.0005997
log_ebit_w	-.0000226	.0001472	-0.15	0.878	-.0003116	.0002663
sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.000048	.0025974	-0.02	0.985	-.0051451	.0050491
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0028635	.0030218	-0.95	0.344	-.0087933	.0030663
sqrt_npm_w	.0044194	.004843	0.91	0.362	-.0050844	.0139232
sqrt_roa_w	.0003383	.0076913	0.04	0.965	-.0147547	.0154314
sqrt_roe_w	-.0019414	.0055198	-0.35	0.725	-.0127733	.0088905
_cons	.0055701	.0099994	0.56	0.578	-.0140524	.0251927

Regression for Industry: Transportation and Warehousing

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	.0001632	.0002491	0.66	0.513	-.0003264	.0006529
log_revt_w	-.0006368	.0007235	-0.88	0.379	-.0020587	.000785
log_ebit_w	.0016176	.0000976	16.57	0.000	.0014258	.0018095
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0020377	.0010392	1.96	0.051	-4.66e-06	.0040801
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0062535	.0057229	-1.09	0.275	-.0175006	.0049935
sqrt_npm_w	.0035592	.0112047	0.32	0.751	-.0184611	.0255796
sqrt_roa_w	.0032709	.0139855	0.23	0.815	-.0242145	.0307563
sqrt_roe_w	-.0116934	.0104415	-1.12	0.263	-.0322138	.0088269
_cons	-.0100522	.0130457	-0.77	0.441	-.0356905	.0155861

Appendix V: Company Sizes Across long-term Dataset

size_group	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Large	1,118	18,375,672	6,595,551.270	9,754,967	30,569,000
Medium	1,112	5,877,083	1,938,344.989	2,945,786	9,723,375
Small	1,117	1,456,477.7	803,987.287	123,662	2,934,010.3

Very Large	1,108	99,896,271	107,993,048.899	30,699,000	5.523e+08
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Appendix W: Penalty Amounts across Company Sizes

size_group	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Large	1,118	533.5612	8727.143	5	263400
Medium	1,112	832.0178	9019.66	.408	270000
Small	1,118	5059.755	57900.17	5	1028000
Very Large	1,108	7784.157	147565	5	4675000

Appendix X: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Small Companies)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0536227	.0164333	-3.26	0.001	-.0859737	-.0212717
log_ebit_w	3.800582	1.711975	2.22	0.027	.4303403	7.170824
sqrt_debt_at_w	.2720236	.2723812	1.00	0.319	-.2641936	.8082408
sqrt_gpm_w	-.2037961	.3826668	-0.53	0.595	-.9571247	.5495325
sqrt_npm_w	.8797044	.5841549	1.51	0.133	-.2702792	2.029688
sqrt_roa_w	-.8207521	.7695781	-1.07	0.287	-2.335765	.6942607
sqrt_roe_w	.2458276	.2034805	1.21	0.228	-.1547498	.646405
_cons	-44.37755	25.64897	-1.73	0.085	-94.87083	6.115731

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0003479	.001367	-0.25	0.799	-.003039	.0023432
log_revt_w	.0354005	.0052509	6.74	0.000	.0250634	.0457376
sqrt_debt_at_w	.0036245	.0264272	0.14	0.891	-.0484008	.0556498
sqrt_gpm_w	.043868	.0519713	0.84	0.399	-.0584441	.1461801
sqrt_npm_w	-.0283069	.1302074	-0.22	0.828	-.2846369	.2280231
sqrt_roa_w	.1070358	.0442447	2.42	0.016	.0199344	.1941372
sqrt_roe_w	.0063708	.0145012	0.44	0.661	-.0221767	.0349183
_cons	14.50623	.0849029	170.86	0.000	14.33909	14.67338

Appendix Y: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Medium Companies)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.033071	.0115423	-2.87	0.005	-.0558385	-.0103034
log_ebit_w	.0190516	.0134049	1.42	0.157	-.00739	.0454931
sqrt_debt_at_w	1.403198	.3698258	3.79	0.000	.6737062	2.13269
sqrt_gpm_w	-.3371215	.6340376	-0.53	0.596	-1.587779	.9135357
sqrt_npm_w	-.0001304	.4235103	-0.00	1.000	-.8355164	.8352556
sqrt_roa_w	.9205933	.9340785	0.99	0.326	-.9219029	2.76309
sqrt_roe_w	.4150581	.1551071	2.68	0.008	.1091049	.7210113
_cons	13.12289	.404175	32.47	0.000	12.32565	13.92014

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0247566	.0157953	1.57	0.119	-.0064001	.0559132
log_revt_w	.1392495	.0559857	2.49	0.014	.0288161	.249683
sqrt_debt_at_w	-.5167918	.4512097	-1.15	0.254	-1.406816	.3732321
sqrt_gpm_w	4.256131	2.371051	1.80	0.074	-.4208339	8.933096
sqrt_npm_w	.1147828	2.19492	0.05	0.958	-4.214759	4.444325
sqrt_roa_w	.8876265	1.054064	0.84	0.401	-1.191544	2.966797
sqrt_roe_w	-.2907766	1.465874	-0.20	0.843	-3.182255	2.600701
_cons	11.05759	1.298229	8.52	0.000	8.496798	13.61838

Appendix Z: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Large Companies)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.0167624	.0079759	-2.10	0.038	-.0325429	-.000982
log_ebit_w	.0265111	.0207164	1.28	0.203	-.0144769	.0674991
sqrt_debt_at_w	.1425842	.3979063	0.36	0.721	-.6446832	.9298516
sqrt_gpm_w	-1.692059	.5573414	-3.04	0.003	-2.794772	-.5893452
sqrt_npm_w	.4980571	.4665295	1.07	0.288	-.4249829	1.421097
sqrt_roa_w	1.181974	.5756623	2.05	0.042	.0430123	2.320936
sqrt_roe_w	.3041479	.1558923	1.95	0.053	-.0042888	.6125846
_cons	15.26151	.4233664	36.05	0.000	14.42387	16.09915

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0477354	.0289861	1.65	0.102	-.0096143	.1050852
log_revt_w	.4057185	.1896298	2.14	0.034	.0305313	.7809057
sqrt_debt_at_w	3.050769	1.796841	1.70	0.092	-.5043242	6.605863
sqrt_gpm_w	2.156086	2.534814	0.85	0.397	-2.859105	7.171277
sqrt_npm_w	6.856745	3.754456	1.83	0.070	-.5715387	14.28503
sqrt_roa_w	1.494189	1.915721	0.78	0.437	-2.296112	5.284491
sqrt_roe_w	-1.392196	1.198147	-1.16	0.247	-3.762759	.978367
_cons	1.817302	2.930183	0.62	0.536	-3.980137	7.614742

Appendix AA: Fixed Effect Panel Regression Output (Very Large Companies)

log_revt_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	-.004336	.0060338	-0.72	0.474	-.0163084	.0076364
log_ebit_w	.0221168	.0072979	3.03	0.003	.0076363	.0365974
sqrt_debt_at_w	.3976595	.3913179	1.02	0.312	-.3788	1.174119
sqrt_gpm_w	-.1482276	.5391684	-0.27	0.784	-1.218055	.9215995
sqrt_npm_w	-.3044297	.5690203	-0.54	0.594	-1.433489	.82463
sqrt_roa_w	.2524212	.8668186	0.29	0.772	-1.467535	1.972377
sqrt_roe_w	.5760856	.2376975	2.42	0.017	.1044422	1.047729
_cons	16.44033	.3211542	51.19	0.000	15.80309	17.07757

log_ebit_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t 	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_yearly_w	.0464145	.0604721	0.77	0.445	-.0735753	.1664043
log_revt_w	1.130904	.4211038	2.69	0.008	.295343	1.966466
sqrt_debt_at_w	-1.05174	1.054164	-1.00	0.321	-3.143431	1.03995
sqrt_gpm_w	-.3083801	2.592558	-0.12	0.906	-5.452577	4.835817
sqrt_npm_w	-1.935342	3.327433	-0.58	0.562	-8.537691	4.667006
sqrt_roa_w	8.866184	5.130827	1.73	0.087	-1.314491	19.04686
sqrt_roe_w	4.39804	3.402401	1.29	0.199	-2.353061	11.14914

_cons	-9.342844	7.379525	-1.27	0.208	-23.98542	5.299735
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Appendix AB: Event Study Regression Output (Across all Chosen Size Groups)

Regression for Small Companies

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	-.0000144	.0002079	-0.07	0.945	-.0004221	.0003933
log_revt_w	-.000233	.0003839	-0.61	0.544	-.000986	.00052
log_ebit_w	.0000337	.0002119	0.16	0.874	-.000382	.0004494
sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.0002062	.000675	-0.31	0.760	-.00153	.0011177
sqrt_gpm_w	.0013304	.0027091	0.49	0.623	-.0039831	.0066438
sqrt_npm_w	-.0038088	.0065958	-0.58	0.564	-.0167454	.0091279
sqrt_roa_w	.0047098	.0054284	0.87	0.386	-.0059372	.0153568
sqrt_roe_w	-.0044593	.0029167	-1.53	0.126	-.01018	.0012614
_cons	.007826	.0055338	1.41	0.157	-.0030278	.0186797

Regression for Medium Companies

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	-1.85e-06	.0001592	-0.01	0.991	-.0003141	.0003104
log_revt_w	.0004198	.0003805	1.10	0.270	-.0003265	.0011661
log_ebit_w	-.0009321	.0003187	-2.92	0.003	-.0015571	-.000307
sqrt_de_ratio_w	.0009229	.000561	1.65	0.100	-.0001774	.0020233
sqrt_gpm_w	-.0016419	.0023736	-0.69	0.489	-.0062973	.0030134
sqrt_npm_w	.0039811	.004897	0.81	0.416	-.0056231	.0135853
sqrt_roa_w	.0005636	.0052822	0.11	0.915	-.0097962	.0109233
sqrt_roe_w	-.0021908	.0029671	-0.74	0.460	-.00801	.0036284
_cons	.0034069	.0068437	0.50	0.619	-.0100153	.0168292

Regression for Large Companies

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	-.0000174	.000123	-0.14	0.888	-.0002585	.0002238
log_revt_w	-.0000344	.0004073	-0.08	0.933	-.0008333	.0007645
log_ebit_w	-4.28e-06	.0002619	-0.02	0.987	-.000518	.0005094

sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.0003687	.000463	-0.80	0.426	-.0012767	.0005394
sqrt_gpm_w	.0000696	.0020759	0.03	0.973	-.0040021	.0041412
sqrt_npm_w	.0054832	.0041977	1.31	0.192	-.00275	.0137163
sqrt_roa_w	-.002481	.0043649	-0.57	0.570	-.0110422	.0060803
sqrt_roe_w	.0035158	.0032341	1.09	0.277	-.0028274	.0098591
_cons	-.0052705	.0068288	-0.77	0.440	-.0186643	.0081233

Regression for Very Large Companies

mean_aret_w	Robust					
	Coefficient	std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
log_total_penalty_date_w	-6.90e-06	.0000893	-0.08	0.938	-.0001821	.0001683
log_revt_w	-.0000465	.0002105	-0.22	0.825	-.0004594	.0003664
log_ebit_w	.0000541	.0000999	0.54	0.588	-.0001418	.0002499
sqrt_de_ratio_w	-.0004684	.0006358	-0.74	0.461	-.0017154	.0007786
sqrt_gpm_w	.0003715	.0017169	0.22	0.829	-.002996	.003739
sqrt_npm_w	.0038927	.0047748	0.82	0.415	-.0054722	.0132576
sqrt_roa_w	-.0009935	.0038825	-0.26	0.798	-.0086083	.0066214
sqrt_roe_w	.0034859	.0056954	0.61	0.541	-.0076846	.0146563
_cons	-.004996	.0059045	-0.85	0.398	-.0165766	.0065846