



# Does privatization reform alleviate ownership discrimination? Evidence from the Split-share structure reform in China

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This paper investigates the institutional origins of ownership discrimination in bank lending through a staggered quasi-natural experiment of China's Split-share Structure reform. State-owned Enterprises (SOEs) have an advantage over non-SOEs in securing external financing to protect investment opportunities from cash flow fluctuations. This financing privilege declined significantly after the reform, which mandatorily converted SOEs' non-tradable state-owned shares into tradable shares, sharply increasing the likelihood of further privatization. Consistent evidence also exists in terms of bank lending behaviors. Further, we show both direct and indirect evidence that the effects were more pronounced among SOEs under higher threats of privatization. *e.g.*, firms with larger increases in tradable shares, smaller workforce, and in industries peripheral to national strategy. The evidence suggests that banks proactively prefer SOEs for the perceived safety of loans under implicit government guarantee. When this privilege disappeared after the reform, banks reacted by allocating credits more fairly. This paper provides new evidence on the bright side of share structure reforms in mitigating credit misallocation and enlightens policy makers to practical resolutions to the financing inefficiency in emerging capital markets.

A growing strand of literature has indicated that in transition economies, where state-owned banks dominate the financial system, accessibility to credit unfairly tilts towards State-owned Enterprises (SOEs), a trend that cannot be explained by fundamental factors. See, for example, [Brandt and Li](#), [Cull and Di Qi](#), [Song et al.](#), [Rossman and Hart](#), [Loyco et al.](#), [Shleifer](#), [Johnson and Woodruff](#), [Fehr et al.](#), [Liu et al.](#) Specifically, despite being comparatively inefficient in operations, SOEs typically receive disproportionately larger shares of bank credit than non-SOEs. This phenomenon, widely referred to as "Ownership Disparity," has been extensively studied in the literature.

efficiency the ownership discrimination, if existing, may pose severe detriments to non-S Es, as a general lack of stable long-term funding sources incur higher costs and force them to seek trade credit, costly private borrowing, and other informal financing channels (Dinh, [Luo](#) and [Liu](#),

Despite the abundant evidence of S Es' comparatively higher leverage ratio and crude expansion of financing in the last decades ([Laccio et al.](#), [Cull and Xu](#), [Ljungqvist and Wei](#), [Luo et al.](#)), it remains an open question whether non-S Es, on the other side, truly *suffer from discrimination*, or simply *choose* conservative financial strategies ([Luo et al.](#), [Luo et al.](#)), possibly for endogenously lower debt-capacity if discrimination really exists, what are its institutional origins? Do creditors prefer S Es for the merits of the *state-owned property structure itself* i.e., state-player-dominated firms have higher values and outperform those with dispersed private ownership structure, or rather for the *implicit government guarantee* enjoyed by S Es? Further, do banks *proactively* prefer S Es for perceived safer lending, or *passively* do so, as a compromise to the government pressure of "policy lending"?

To answer these interesting and largely unsolved questions, this paper comprehensively investigates the institutional origins of ownership discrimination by taking advantage of a staggered quasi-exogenous reform in China. This landmark reform, namely the Split-share Structure Reform, dismantled the dual-share structure and introduced liberalized legitimacy in the trading rights of state-owned shares. The reform was mandatorily enacted without firms' freedom of choosing whether and when to convert their non-tradable shares. The institutional setting fits neatly in our research mission, i.e., uncovering the real origins of ownership discrimination, for two major reasons. On one hand, the reform does not directly change firms' ownership identity. On the other hand, the probability of privatization increases sharply, as non-tradable shares are switched to tradable ones. Using a staggered Difference-in-Differences (Diff-in-Diff) design, we find a salient decline in ownership discrimination after the reform. Notably, since the de jure nature of ownership structure remains after the reform, this evidence indicates that ownership discrimination isn't due to the intrinsic superiority of state-owned property structure itself, but rather originates from the anticipation of the implicit government guarantee, which is largely eliminated after the reform.

Regarding the existence of ownership discrimination, some seemingly salient facts such as lower static debt ratio and shorter maturity structures of non-S Es could be misleading, as non-S Es may choose conservative leverage far below debt capacity. In this paper, we instead focus on the discrepancy between S Es and non-S Es in their capability of acquiring external financing to offset cash flow fluctuations and protect current investments. Cash flow shocks serve as a good "touch stone" of firms' financial accessibility. Notwithstanding the potential intention of low-leverage policy, all firms would strive to mitigate unintended cash flow shocks and avoid sacrificing current products.

ban s more mar et-oriented and reduces political lending interestingly, another prominent feature of the privatization reform in China is that it occurred around the same period as the public listing of state-owned ban s, which helps us to address this concern and to pin down the major driving force the results show that it is the changes in *firms*, rather than in *banks*, that explains the alleviated ownership discrimination after the reform, indicating that the crux of discrimination lies in the expectation that “S Es never fail” when this privilege is shaken by the reform, ban s proactively react by adjusting credit allocations and attaching a lower weight to ownership in loan granting numerous studies and media reports arbitrarily attribute so-called “policy lending” to ban s’ passive compromise to government manipulation and blame credit misallocation on the irrationality of the banking sector our findings, however, imply that ban s seem to be rather rational in making lending decisions, with the implicit government guarantee expectations taken into consideration

China provides an ideal context for investigating the ownership discrimination As a representative transition economy, China has the salient characteristics of conflict between a swiftly booming economy, ongoing privatization reforms, and an immature financial system, offering a unique environment to test the existence and impacts of ownership discrimination Allen et al , Liao et al , Dollar and Wei , Song et al , First, there is a long-established boundary between state-owned and non-state owned enterprises in China ownership type is clear and crucial more importantly, the linkage between S Es and the government is deep, and the latter has been arguably criticized for its “paternal love” towards S Es Second, the Split-share Structure reform in China occurred in our sample period, providing a unique angle on the evolution of ownership discrimination and its policy implications Third, given China’s rising importance in the world economy, the implications from the reform provide helpful enlightenment for resolving credit misallocation and related financial system deficiencies in transition economies

This paper contributes to the growing body of literature on ownership discrimination by providing novel insights into its institutional origins and mechanisms prior studies have found that S Es rely more on domestic ban s in external financing Dollar and Wei , whereas non-S Es finance the majority of their investments and working capital needs through retained earnings, informal networks, and inter-firm credit Lardy , Dinh , Lee and Liu , Song et al , The financial repression is also manifested by higher precautionary cash holdings and lower capital intensity of non-S Es Egginson et al , Song et al , Cultural and historical factors only partially explain this phenomenon Arrow , Shleifer and Vishny and Sapienza attribute the different financing sources between S Es and non-S Es to the relationship between government and firms and the political nature of transition economies A counterview by Dou et al argue that ban s and firms simply perform credit rationing In this paper, we complement this strand of research using a quasi-exogenous policy shock to distill its real effects and institutional origins

The investigation into the pattern of credit allocation is also related to the broad literature on financial constraints—especially the determinants and consequences of acquiring external financing in frictional capital markets—by financially-constrained firms, such as Small-and-medium-sized Enterprises S Es azzari et al , Fildes , Altig , Gentry et al , Oncet et al , Denis , Cumming and Chou , As has been widely discussed in these studies, one should note that it is difficult to pinpoint the absolute magnitude of a firm’s financial constraints, which is not our research pursuit rather, our paper aims to gauge the impacts of ownership types on the relative accessibility to credits through collectively tracing firms’ investment and financing reactions to cash flow shocks To identify the pure effects of ownership discrimination and exclude possible disturbing factors, we employ a unique exogenous policy shock and illustrate the dynamics of credit allocation culture evolutions In this sense, our work is more institutional- and policy-relevant Hence, we go beyond the existence of ownership discrimination and provide abundant evidence on its real attributions and political implications We also contribute to the nascent studies on the role of ban s whether ban s deliberately choose to prefer S Es, or passively do so as a compromise to policy lending interestingly, we show that ban s seem to “rationally” choose S Es for the government bailout expectations when it disappears, ban s usually react by allocating credit more fairly A recent work by Guan et al finds supportive evidence that loan decisions of ban s show no evidence of severe compromise to local governments’ economic stimulus plans, as speculated by some media and academic work Our findings in this paper substantially deepen our understanding of the real crux of credit misallocation

This paper also complements the literature on gauging the effectiveness of privatization reform in emerging markets Cerretti and Anagnostis , Egginson and Sutter , Guan , Douba et al , Extensive work shows that privatization improves firms’ performance Chen et al , Bai et al , Du and Liu , Guan et al , enhances market valuation Lin and Su , triggers positive stock market reactions Ceraman et al , Calomiris et al , reduces information asymmetry Gul et al , and prevents overinvestment Liu and Siu , A more related paper by Chen et al also investigates the Split-share Structure reform and uncovers a reduction in firms’ average cash holdings and average corporate saving rate, and an increase in investments They attribute the effects to the removal of market frictions, alignment of interests and reduced financial constraints Our paper, from the angle of ownership-induced credit misallocation, examines firms’ investments and financing reactions to cash flow shocks in a methodologically comprehensive multi-equation model, and illustrates the heterogeneous effects among firms

On the macro level, the paper provides abundant political implications It identifies the role of the share structure reforms in accelerating market maturation, especially in emerging markets On the one hand, we alert governments to the detrimental consequences of credit allocation inefficiencies under implicit government bailout protection for S Es On the other hand, by disentangling

Statistics show that S Es finance more than 60% of their investments through bank loans for non-S Es, this percentage is less than 20% Song et al ,

or the estimations of a firm’s level of financial constraints from different perspectives, see azzari et al , Fildes , Gertler and Gilchrist , Luc and Lynch , Middle and Willy , Almeida and Campello , among others

the impact of banning marketization from firm-level share structure reform, our findings provide a practical strategy for the governments seeking cure for credit misallocation. The Split-share Structure reform in China sets a good example of achieving this aim without radically changing firms' ownership structures. It instead exposes SES to the monitoring by the capital market through transformation of their non-tradable shares to tradable ones. Finally, the paper may enlighten policy makers to potential solutions of SE financing difficulty, which is among the most intractable dilemmas faced by governments worldwide.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the institutional backgrounds of the ownership structure in China and the Split-share Structure reform. Section 3 describes the empirical approach and datasets. Section 4 discusses the empirical results. Section 5 provides further tests and Section 6 shows robustness checks. Section 7 concludes.

## 2.1. Ownership structures and the existence of ownership discrimination

Corporate ownership structure plays a crucial role in social credit allocation, asset pricing efficiency, and economic well-being, especially in transition economies. State-ownership was proposed more than sixty years ago, with the primary purpose of addressing monopoly power in social utility sectors, achieving social welfare goals, and combating market failure (Lewis, 1995; Eade, Stiglitz and Weiss, 1997; Greenwald and Stiglitz, 1998; Bai et al., 2003; Lin et al., 2005). Over the subsequent half-century, multiple forms of nationalization evolved. In the real sector, governments exert ultimate control over SES by holding an overwhelmingly large percentage of state-owned shares. In the financial sector, the financial system is dominated by state-owned banks (La Porta et al., 2008), further facilitating governmental interference in credit allocation. SES are supposed to serve political objectives such as social security, welfare, and infrastructure constructions where social benefits exceed costs. As a compensation, SES have relatively relaxed profit-generating goals. Commensurately, their managerial incentives are largely unaligned with value maximization (Yughebaert and Yuan, 2019).

In the institutional landscape of China, the ownership structure is especially crucial. China had long featured a highly government-dominated financial system with state-owned banks as the primary source of social financing, which laid the early foundations for the long-lasting and deeply rooted dominance of state ownership. Market mechanism was first introduced in 1978 during the third plenary session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Communist Party of China. However, in the early 1980s, the dawn of the Chinese market economy, state-owned and collective-owned enterprises still dominated the economy (Jefferson and Su, 2005). The government undervalued market power and advocated a highly centralized regime, according to the guideline of "large in size and collective in nature". The central government owned, operated, and dominated SES. Admittedly, in this early stage of the economy, when pricing mechanisms and resource allocations were immature, SES' affiliations with the government remained somewhat reasonable in terms of propping up the embryonic-stage industry prosperity. However, controversy gradually emerged. SES came under fire for worsening efficiency, managerial ossification and corruption, while enjoying overwhelmingly higher proportion of social credits (Cull and Xu, 2005; Egginsong and Wei, 2006). Banks were blamed for their favoritism towards SES. Entrepreneurs of non-SES openly complained of their inferiority when "knocking on banks' doors". The sharp discrepancy between SES and non-SES in financing conditions, namely the "ownership discrimination", grew to receive wide attention and was regarded as the most important side-effect of the state-ownership-dominated economy.

In response, the government began to tentatively push SES towards market orientation and emphasize "non-public Sectors of the Economy" (SE) and the slogan of "the state regulates the market, the market guides enterprises", which essentially transformed SES from state-operated firms to state-owned but self-sustaining enterprises. Hereafter, reforms on SES were gradually introduced to clarify the managerial compensation, responsibilities, and incentive schemes (Jefferson and Su, 2005). For example, the transformation of profit to tax and the introduction of enterprise contract responsibility system. In the mid-1990s, the government allowed private and foreign shareholders to take stakes in firms while maintaining control rights, and implemented a furlough policy (Xiagan) that helped SES to get rid of redundant labor forces (Laws et al., 2005). However, the wave of mild, incomplete and mostly short-sighted reforms didn't thoroughly cure the persisting problems.

By pulling together the evolution of political regime into an integrated landscape, we can detect how the salient nature of credit allocation in China gradually took shape. The highly centralized economic system, as the starting point of China's economy, set the tone for the financial sector in the following years—the original aim of the capital market was to raise money for SES, i.e., the economic backbone. SES have enjoyed soft-budget constraints (Cull and Xu, 2005; Egginsong and Wei, 2006) and are implicitly sheltered from default, fostering their relentless borrow from the financial markets. We thus make the first hypothesis:

The phenomenon of ownership discrimination exists, i.e., SES have preferential accessibility to credits.

As explicated in the introduction, we examine the existence of ownership discrimination by comparing the abilities to resist cash flow shocks between SES and non-SES using a dynamic multi-equation model (Bartchev et al., 2019). We will elaborate on the

During the conference, the central government set the major principle of economic development as "A Planned Economy Supplemented by Market Regulation".

During an interview, the famous private entrepreneur Liu Chuanzhi appealed to the government by saying, "For private firms, the biggest reform bonus would be for the government to create a very transparent, fair, and equitable competitive environment in the capital market."

The slogan was put forth in 1992, during the thirteenth National Congress of the Communist Party of China.

methodologies and identification strategies in Section

## 2.2. The split-share structure reform in China

China offers a representative background to examine the institutional origins of ownership discrimination that has clear boundaries between state-owned and non-state owned enterprises, and has experienced numerous policy shocks on firms' ownership structure spanning the past years, among which the most influential is the Split-share Structure reform that commenced in 2005 and mostly finished in 2006 (Li et al., 2010).

Section 2.2.1 has elaborated on a series of inherited problems encountered by SOEs in their operations. Despite that the Chinese government had long been aware of the expanding losses of SOEs and the resulting fiscal burdens on local governments, it was extraordinarily cautious about privatization, which lagged far behind the other strands of marketization reforms. From the very beginning, the government tinkered with the problem by attempting to modernize SOEs' operations while maintaining the state ownership. The futility of its short-term palliative solutions (Lau et al., 2005) finally fueled the pace of large-scale *de facto* privatization in 2005, especially named "transformation" (*gaizhi*) for ideological reasons (An, 2005), almost halved the number of SOEs through shareholding conversion. Instead of radically selling state-owned shares, the government chose the form of "corporatization" (Wei et al., 2006), allowing SOEs to raise equity by public offering. Meanwhile, the government reserved control rights by retaining a large stake in about 30% of SOEs (uyghebaert and Yuan, 2006), and these shares were strictly restricted by the regulatory authorities and could not be freely traded in the secondary market to avoid market turbulence (Sun and Song, 2006). Firms maintained a unique *split-share structure*, defined as the coexistence of two classes: tradable and non-tradable domestic shares with otherwise identical rights. Only tradable shares could be traded by investors; non-tradable shares were unlisted, and transactions could only be conducted through negotiations between the counterparties. The persistent transaction barriers between the two types of shares put firms in a dilemma of conflicting share-pricing mechanisms: the dominant role of the government in corporate management through its controlling holdings of non-tradable state-owned shares still left the firms unmotivated to improve their performance. A series of short-term reforms was phased in to repair the system, but mostly failed in the end.

The Chinese government came to realize the importance of implementing a thorough reform to dismantle the dual share structure. In January 2005, the State Council issued the document *Some Opinions of the State Council on Promoting the Reform, Opening, and Steady Growth of Capital Markets*. One year later, on April 29, 2005, the China Securities Regulatory Commission (CSRC) issued the *Notice of the China Securities Regulatory Commission on Piloting the Share-Trading Reform of Listed Companies*, which announced the official start of the Split-share Structure reform. During the reform, state-owned shares, as well as other types of non-tradable shares, were converted into tradable shares. Following the guidelines, firms chose their conversion date, drew up and voted for the proposals, hired qualified security firms, and accomplished the reform. Extensive studies have documented substantial achievements of the reform, such as enhanced corporate governance, better risk management, and superior stock performance of listed SOEs (Liao et al., 2006; Li et al., 2010; Iirth et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2010).

The reform opened up a full-share circulation environment in the secondary market and endowed SOEs with liberalized legitimacy in trading state-owned shares. As such, the SOEs' privileged position eroded with the rising expectation of privatization through sales of tradable state-owned shares after the reform. Even though the conversion of non-tradable shares to tradable shares did not immediately change firms' ownership structures, the reform essentially exposed SOEs to fierce market competition and substantial threats of being privatized. In this vein, their implicit protection from bankruptcy and corporate takeover became far less certain.

This weakened their advantages in securing favorable financing from banks, the bond market, etc., which, after the reform, would judge them rather by quality and growth prospects. Besides, SOEs' internal control and external monitoring by shareholders may also be strengthened as the holders of tradable shares are generally more incentivized to improve firms' performance, governance, and risk management. Accordingly, we propose [Hypothesis 1](#).

The Split-share Structure reform reduces ownership discrimination and enhances credit allocation efficiency.

The investigation into [Hypothesis 2](#) is largely related to our research agenda of answering why creditors prefer SOEs from the standpoint of lenders. Such as banks, they prefer SOEs either for the superiority of state ownership structure itself (i.e. they believe that state ownership is the optimal organization form in a transition economy like China, as the government acting as owner can improve firm value and reduce agency problems), or for the implicit government guarantee (i.e., lenders are attracted by government bailout protection on SOEs, even if they are worse in quality). We describe these two plausible connotations of ownership discrimination derived from [Hypothesis 2](#) as follows:

*Creditors prefer SOEs as they believe state-player-dominated ownership structures are superior to private ones.*

According to An (2005), during this wave of privatization, more than 50% of small SOEs were privatized or restructured. As estimated by the national Bureau of Statistics, three quarters of large and medium industrial SOEs were privatized. In addition, city-level statistics show that about 80% of SOEs were privatized by 2006 (An et al., 2006).

The establishment of the Shanghai and Shenzhen Exchange in the early 2000s enabled more than 1000 large and medium-sized SOEs to be listed on the primary market for equity financing (Liao et al., 2006). They argue that the absolute dominance of SOE non-tradable shareholders is wiped out and external monitoring through corporate takeovers are virtually in effect after the reform.

### Creditors prefer SOEs for the perceived implicit government guarantee behind SOEs.

Arguably, *Hypothesis 2a* relates to the long-lasting debate in academia regarding the merits and shortcomings of public and private ownership, which is a key dichotomy in shaping the basic structure of an economy (see, for example, [Ardhan and Oemer](#), [Shleifer and Vishny](#), [Stiglitz](#), [Egginson and Effer](#), [Egginson](#)). Some work advocates the merits of state-ownership, especially in underdeveloped economies with weak investor protections and law enforcements (the state ownership, to some extent, enhances firm value, strengthens social and economic stability, curbs the agency problem of large shareholders' expropriation on minority shareholders, and reduces the probability of low-price-disposal of assets by the local governments ([Ewbery and Ollitt](#), [Wei and Arela](#), [Chen et al.](#), [Effer and Stiglitz](#), [Liu](#), [Egginson et al.](#))). In contrast, *Hypothesis 2b* is unrelated to the value judgement of ownership structure, but refers to the inherent benefits enjoyed by SOEs (governments will bail them out if they run into distress). Along this line, even though banks also deem SOEs as less productive and lower in quality, they still prefer them, for the perceived "safer loans"

Typically, these two competing hypotheses are highly intertwined and hard to distinguish. As noted earlier, this reform helps untangle the two possible institutional origins of ownership discrimination by transforming non-tradable state-owned shares to tradable ones, the reform increases the prospect of further privatization and cripples the "unbreakable" status of SOEs, while not altering the ownership type *per se*. Besides, this reform is mandatorily implemented without freedom for firms to endogenously choose whether and when to convert non-tradable shares. As such, if banks prefer SOEs for the merits of state-owned property structure (*Hypothesis 2a*), we should not observe salient changes in banks' lending preferences since ownership type remains unchanged. If *Hypothesis 2* is identified, it essentially sustains the proposition that credit misallocation stems from the expected implicit government guarantee, which becomes largely uncertain after the reform (*Hypothesis 2b*). This hypothesis is highly compatible with the condition in China, where the government has a long history of owning, operating, and dominating SOEs. The linkage between local governments and SOEs was even strengthened after the wave of "regionally decentralized authoritarianism (DA)", which delegates of fiscal allocations with and regulatory power over SOEs to the provincial, municipal, prefecture, and county township governments ([Du and Liu](#), [Liu et al.](#)). SOEs' dual economic and political orientations largely determine the cadre assessments and promotion opportunities of local officials. Therefore, local governments have a strong tendency to protect SOEs by closely interfering with banks, guiding loans towards state-owned sectors and rescuing financially distressed SOEs. On the other hand, shareholders of SOEs may also abuse the easy access to credits and irrationally expand lending for private benefits. Besides, SOEs' boards of directors are usually led by former party secretaries or retired politicians, elected by their largest shareholder (i.e. the governments). The "paternal love" of the local governments for SOEs may in turn encourage banks to lend "riskless money" to them ([Accio et al.](#)).

However, there is one possible counterargument that the non-marketization of the banking sector, rather than firms, should be responsible for the existence of ownership discrimination. In this sense, the alleviation of ownership discrimination after the Split-share Structure Reform essentially results from the marketization of the banking sector. Indeed, China's four largest banks are state-owned, dominate the financial system, and are primarily oriented at supporting SOEs ([Oyreau-Debray and Wei](#)). It is probable that the "umbilical cord" between state-owned banks and state-owned enterprises facilitates SOEs' occupation of disproportional credits, jeopardizing market efficiency ([Randt and Li](#), [Allen et al.](#)).

To exclude this alternative explanation, we consider the marketization reform of China's banking sector starting in 2005, which was aimed at rescuing the deteriorating operations and non-performing loans of state-owned banks. This reform was also part of the protocols when China joined the WTO in 2001—the Chinese government promised to open the banking sector to competition within five years. China Construction Bank (CCB) led the first shot: it re-capitalized, introduced strategic investors, underwent financial restructuring, and ultimately listed its shares on the Hong Kong and Shanghai Stock Exchange. The other three state-owned banks followed marketization in succession. Meanwhile, a series of joint-stock commercial banks burgeoned. We include the indicator of the banking-sector reform in the empirical design (details in Section 3), and show that the observed effects of the Split-share Structure Reform remain even after controlling for the wave of banking sector reform, suggesting that the latter is not the dominant power. The discussion also translates into the policy implications: in order to mitigate ownership discrimination, which one should make a change

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The opponents, in contrast, argue that private firms have much better risk-sharing, resource allocation efficiency, and higher productivity ([Johnson and Woodruff](#), [Egger et al.](#)). Using samples of firms in different countries, a large strand of literature has uncovered many side effects of state ownership: bad risk management, lower investment efficiencies, and inactiveness in blazing new trails in highly competitive markets ([Egginson and Effer](#), [Danov and Urell](#), [Allen et al.](#)). Besides, the lack of legal protection for minority and outside shareholders, tunneling, and managerial perks also erode SOEs' value ([Shleifer](#), [Shleifer and Vishny](#), [Akerlof](#), [Liu et al.](#), [Levine](#)).

The starting time and designated finishing time of the reform were set forth by the China Securities Regulatory Commission (CSRC) on August 17th, 2005 ([Liu et al.](#), [Liu et al.](#)).

SOEs perform important roles in cadre assessments. Local officials' political pursuits hinge critically on SOEs' contribution of profit dividend remittances and tax revenues, reduction of unemployment rates, and fundamental constructions, among others.

With political interventions in SOEs' operations, managerial compensation packages remain largely opaque and unaligned with market incentives. See, for example, [Allen et al.](#),

These four state-owned banks are Bank of China, Industrial and Commercial Bank of China, Construction Bank of China, and Agriculture Bank of China.

[Allen et al.](#) point out that China scores poorly on creditor rights, investor protection, accounting standards, and anti-corruption measures compared with other countries.

ban s or rms? he evidence suggests the latter—the crux of credit misallocations lies more on the side of rms, rather than ban s n the following sections, we will comprehensively expound on these issues

### 3.1. Empirical methodology

#### 3.1.1. A multi-equation model

Although it is tempting to take the existence of ownership discrimination as a given, we have to be very cautious in reality, a firm's leverage is distinct from its overall debt capacity, especially when there is excess liquidity in the market. A non-S E may choose to maintain a leverage far below its debt capacity. As we have expounded in the introduction, our major focus is the differential reactions of investment and financing behaviors to abrupt cash flow shocks between S Es and non-S Es. Cash flow shocks  $CF$  serve as an ideal "touch stone" of a firm's financial accessibility. Firms unable to adequately fulfill financial needs have no choice but to cancel or postpone their planned investments. Hence, from a dynamic perspective, corporate investments and financing decisions have a hedging effect. When firms encounter cash flow shocks—particularly negative shocks, they have two options: *Option A) Adjusting investment decisions*: on the edge of nearly exhausted cash flow, a firm without sustainable financing may be compelled to terminate certain investments, abandon valuable projects, and thus relinquish profits. Alternatively, *Option B) Adjusting financing decisions*: the firm could seek to expand lending to maintain current investments. Apparently, firms should prefer *Option B*, as it is a much less costly strategy for accommodating fluctuations in cash flow and minimizing negative impacts on corporate investment opportunities. If ownership discrimination exists, we expect non-S Es' investment behaviors to be more sensitive to cash flow shocks, whereas financing behaviors should be less sensitive to cash flow shocks, since their disadvantageous status in financing decisions. *Option B* forces them to adjust investment decisions instead. *Option A*. Along this line, we examine the existence and magnitude of ownership discrimination by comparing firms' multifaceted financial reactions to cash flow fluctuations collectively in a multi-equation model proposed by [Batachev et al.](#) The model bears the advantage of reflecting the interdependent nature of financial policies subject to the constraint of "sources of cash equal uses of cash", as well as this interdependent of financial decision-making along periods, which facilitates our investigation into financing and investments behaviors as a whole. Specifically, the ex-post constraints that sources of funds must equal uses of funds can be expressed as



### 3.1.2. The tests on the existence of ownership discrimination

The multi-equation model acknowledges the interdependent and intertemporal nature of firms' financial decisions on both ends: how firms adjust their investments during cash flow shocks, coefficients of  $CAPX$  on  $CF$ , and how they raise funds for mitigating the shocks, coefficients of incremental short- and long-term bank loans,  $SLOAN$  and  $LLOAN$ , on  $CF$ .

We gauge the existence of ownership discrimination by comparing the capabilities to resist cash flow shocks between  $S$  Es and non- $S$  Es with the model. If non- $S$  Es have inferior access to bank loans, we should detect higher response of  $CAPX$  and lower adjustments of  $SLOAN$  and  $LLOAN$  to cash flow shocks, suggesting lower flexibility in financing to protect investments. *Hypothesis 1*. Accordingly, we incorporate an interaction term of  $CF$  and the ownership dummy variable  $SOE$  into equation (1), i.e.,  $SOE*CF$  to identify the differences between these two types of firms.

### 3.1.3. The tests on the impacts of the reform

To assess the effects of the Split-share Structure reform on ownership discrimination, we employ the Diff-in-Diff methodology by introducing a dummy variable,  $REF$ , which equals one when the firm has already undergone the reform in a particular year and zero otherwise. We focus on the triple interaction term  $SOE*CF*REF$  to detect the impacts of the reform. If the reform effectively reduces the discrimination, we should find a significantly positive coefficient of  $CAPX$  on  $CF*SOE*REF$ , offsetting its negative coefficient on  $SOE*CF$ . Besides, on the financing side, the coefficients of  $\Delta SLOAN$  and  $\Delta LLOAN$  on  $CF*SOE*REF$  should both be positive, opposite to their coefficients on  $SOE*CF$ , indicating a reduction in  $S$  Es' comparative advantage in credit market.

Alternatively, from the angle of bank lending behaviors, we could also directly detect the changes in banks' loan-granting preferences after the reform based on a similar Diff-in-Diff design by examining the coefficients of bank lending characteristics including the amount, maturity, interest rate, collateral, etc. on the interaction term of the  $S$  E indicator  $SOE$  and post-reform dummy  $REF$ , we could further gauge whether the reform effectively achieves the purpose of efficient credit re-allocation. Details will be provided in Section 3.2.

## 3.2. Data and descriptive analysis

The annual financial data and firms' actual controller data of Chinese A-share listed firms on Shanghai and Shenzhen stock markets are derived from the CSMA and ESSE database, the leading and most commonly used financial data providers in mainland China. The data on Split-share Structure reform is derived from the "Split-share Structure reform Dataset" of the ESSE database. We restrict the sample period to around four years before and after the Split-share Structure reform, spanning from 2007 to 2014. Chinese listed firms were not required to disclose actual controllers' information in their Annual Report until 2008 and the data available is relatively complete after 2008. For most listed firms, or a firm to be included in our sample, the firm must be normally operated without particular transfer or Stop trading  $S$  issues and have available information on the specific timing of the reform. Observations with missing values for the dependent and independent variables are deleted. Financial firms are excluded since their capital structure and financial decisions are typically different from non-financial firms. After deleting the outliers, in total, 1,020 valid observations are obtained.

We gauge the ownership types of the firms based on the "nature of actual controllers" from the CSMA database. Firms with state-owned shares as controllers or directly owned by the central and local government institutions are regarded as State-owned Enterprises ( $S$  Es). Other firms, controlled by private shareholders, foreign entities, etc., are categorized as non-State-owned Enterprises (non- $S$  Es). The dummy variable  $SOE$  equals to one when the firm is  $S$  E in the specific year and zero otherwise.

Table 1 reports the descriptive analyses of the dependent and independent variables. We scale the variables by total assets for normalization. The sample consists of 1,020 firms, including  $S$  Es and non- $S$  Es for the entire sample period, and 1,020 firms that switched ownership in certain years during the period. Notably, out of the 1,020 firms underwent a change from  $S$  Es to non- $S$  Es in the same year as it underwent the Split-share Structure reform. As shown in Panel A of Table 1, the percentage of capital expenditure to total assets varies averages 15.5% with a maximum of 25.5%. The average cash flow over total assets is 10.5%. Our summary statistics are basically similar to those in prior research.

As we mainly focus on the differences in financial accessibility and financing behaviors of  $S$  Es and non- $S$  Es, in Panel B of Table 1, we report the summary statistics of these two subsamples and the  $t$ -statistics of their differences. We find a significantly higher percentage of capital expenditure to total assets for non- $S$  Es, indicating their active investments and higher aspiration to expand capital spending, which, if absent of discrimination, should be favorably received by the market (Connell and Uscarella, 2010). In sharp contrast, the cash flow of non- $S$  Es are lower than  $S$  Es by 10.5% in total assets, significant at the 1% level, with a higher fluctuation. Non- $S$  Es' size of incremental short-term and long-term financing are both lower than those of  $S$  Es, but their asset sales are significantly higher. We justify this evidence as a manifestation of the inferior financing conditions for non- $S$  Es: lacking of easy access to bank loans, they have to see asset sales to avoid cash flow exhaustion. The differences in leverage are consistent with the

In the regressions with interaction terms, the separate variables and interactions of variables in the triple-interaction term are all included, i.e.,  $CF$ ,  $SOE$ ,  $REF$ ,  $SOE*CF$ ,  $CF*REF$ ,  $SOE*REF$  are all controlled.

Since the changes in cash flow and other variables cover two periods and the lagged values of the variables are involved in the regressions, the effective data set used in the multi-equation analysis spans from 2007 to 2014.

To remove any possible outlier effects, we cannot winsorize the continuous variables in the regression because the model requires the matching of cash in flow and out flow. Therefore, we directly cut the outliers of the continuous variables at the 1st and 99th percentiles.



Descriptive analysis of variables

This table provides a summary statistics of the main variables in the paper, including the capital expenditure, cash flow, incremental short- and long-term loans etc. Panel A reports the sample size, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values. All the values are divided by total assets of the specific firm in the year as defined in Table 1. Panel B divides the sample into two groups based on the ownership. Panel C reports the results of the ownership comparison tests are conducted for each variable with t-values listed in the last column. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Panel A: Summary Statistics of the full sample					
Variable	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max
CAPX	1,000	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.05
CF	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ACQUI	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ASSETS	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
EQUITY	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
DIV	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ΔSLOAN	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ΔLLOAN	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ΔOTHERSD	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ΔOTHERLD	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ΔCASH	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
MB	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
SIZE	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
SOE	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
ROE	1,000	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03

Panel B: Ownership comparison tests between SOEs and non-SOEs						
Variables	Non-SOEs (N = 500)		SOEs (N = 500)		Diff	t-value
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev		
CAPX	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	***
CF	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	***
ACQUI	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	p

prior literature besides, non-SOEs are smaller in size, but higher in market-to-book ratio MB, implying favorable growth opportunities. Overall, we can tentatively infer that SOEs generally underperform non-SOEs whereas enjoy more privileged access to financial market. We will elaborate on it in the following sections.

4.1. Ownership discrimination in China

Before introducing the time node of the Split-share Structure Reform, we first get a flavor of the existence and magnitude of the ownership discrimination in China based on the dynamic model in Eq. (1).

We start with a pilot regression with all firms in the sample to illustrate the patterns of firms' investment and financing decisions in reaction to cash flow shocks. The formatting of variables' coefficients, t-statistics, and the adjusted R-squares are reported in a slightly special manner. Each row of the table corresponds to each of the equations in the regression model, which includes the lagged value of ten dependent variables and control variables: firm size, market-to-book ratio, and ROE. We also control for year and industry fixed effects. For brevity, we present only the core results of interest. The multi-equation model is estimated under the constraints in Eq. (2).

Since several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign, in the table, their signs for the coefficients and t-values are adjusted accordingly for easy reading. The results are shown in Panel A of Table 2. We find that on the whole, when a firm experiences

a positive/negative cash flow shock equivalent to % of total assets, its capital expenditure increases/decreases by around %.

The coefficients of incremental short-term and long-term loans are  $-0.001$  and  $-0.002$ , respectively, both significant at the 1% level, suggesting increased bank lending in response to cash flow plummets. The same is true for other financing channels, such as an increase in asset sales. The results justify our discussion in Section 4 that when cash flow fluctuates, firms tend to reach out for financing *Option B* rather than slashing promising investments *Option A*. In this vein, do SMEs have an advantage in seeking external financing to smooth the impacts of cash flow fluctuations?

To detect the existence of ownership discrimination, we introduce an interaction term of ownership dummy *SOE* and cash flow

CF into the multi-equation model results are shown in Panel A of Table 4. In the regression with CAPX as dependent variable, the coefficient of the interaction term  $SOE*CF$  is  $-0.0001$ , significantly negative at the 1% level. As for firms' financing behaviors, in the equations with SLOAN and LLOAN as dependent variables, the coefficients of  $SOE*CF$  are both significantly negative at the 1% level, indicating that SOEs eventually take out more loans than non-SOEs following cash flow fluctuations. SOEs' higher availability of bank loans guarantees flexibility in expanding leverage, mitigating the cash flow shocks on investments. In other words, higher sensitivity of financing to cash flow offsets sensitivity of investments to cash flow. In contrast, non-SOEs have no choice but to revisit Option A, i.e., to downsize or abandon investment projects. Supportive evidence also exists in the equation of incremental cash holding, i.e. SOEs are less motivated in cash holding management, likely due to their more flexible financing environment. Overall, the evidence proves Hypothesis 1.

#### 4.2. Privatization reform and ownership discrimination

The Split-share Structure reform provides an ideal quasi-natural experiment to uncover the underlying economic connotations of ownership discrimination. Firms' ownership types are unaffected, but they're exposed to higher risks of privatization when their non-tradable shares are converted to tradable shares. As such, SOEs prefer SOEs for the simple reason that they believe the state-owned property structure is superior, we should not observe any changes after the reform, as it doesn't immediately alter firms' identity of ownership *per se*. Otherwise, if ownership discrimination stems from the implicit government guarantee behind SOEs, it should be evidently reduced, as the reform greatly undermines the certainty of such protection.

To test Hypothesis 2 and the two sub-hypotheses, we use a staggered Diff-in-Diff setting by interacting the time dummy variable REF with the  $SOE*CF$  term and construct a triple interaction term,  $SOE*CF*REF$ , in the multi-equation model. Results are reported in Panel A of Table 4. Focusing on the first equation with the firm's capital expenditure CAPX as dependent variable, we find a positive coefficient on  $SOE*CF*REF$ , opposite to the negative coefficient of  $SOE*CF$  also shown in Panel A of Table 4. The coefficient of the triple interaction term is  $0.0001$  and significantly positive at the 1% level. Hypothesis 2 is identified. The significant results suggest that ownership discrimination diminishes along with weakened government bailout expectation. As such, the Hypothesis 2b is more likely to be true.

Supportive evidence also lies in the side of firms' financing behaviors. In the equations with incremental short-term bank loans SLOAN and incremental long-term loans LLOAN as dependent variables, coefficients on  $SOE*CF*REF$  are both positive, i.e.,  $0.0001$  and  $0.0001$ , respectively, opposite to those on  $SOE*CF$ , suggesting that the reform narrows the gap between SOEs and non-SOEs in taking out bank loans during cash flow shocks.

Consistently, we also observe changes in corporate savings rates after the reform from the last equation of Table 4. The negative coefficient of  $REF*CF$  suggests reduced sensitivity of cash holding to cash flow shocks, a widely used proxy for corporate savings rates. The reduction is more pronounced among non-SOEs, manifested as the negative coefficient of the triple interaction term, opposite to that of  $REF*CF$ , consistent with the evidence in Chen et al. (2019). It serves as supplementary evidence of firms' reduced propensity of excess cash accumulation after the reform, especially for non-SOEs, possibly for enhanced financing environment. The coefficients in other equations also exhibit aligned evidence with prior studies.

#### 4.3. Parallel test and placebo test on the identification strategy

In order to verify the staggered privatization reform as a valid quasi-exogenous shock, we conduct a dynamic test on the parallel-trend assumption by examining the patterns of ownership discrimination around the time of the reform. We conduct multi-equation regressions similar to the baseline model in Table 4, while replacing the REF variable in the triple interaction term with a series of indicators  $REF(-2)$ ,  $REF(-1)$ ,  $REF(0)$ ,  $REF(1)$ , and  $REF(2+)$ , which equals to one if it is two years prior to, one year prior to, the current year of, one year after, two and more years after the firm's region has undergone the reform, respectively, and zero otherwise. If it is the reform that triggers the mitigated discrimination, we should observe significant coefficients of the triple interaction terms only after the shock. Results in Appendix Table A.1 validate this prediction. The coefficients of pre-event periods suggest that the treatment and control groups are reasonably comparable. Salient impacts of the reform on ownership discrimination gradually appear in post-event periods, both economically and statistically significant, supporting our interpretation that the reform indeed leads to a pronounced decrease in ownership discrimination, and the effects persist for at least two years.

To further verify the parallel trend assumption, we track the dynamics of the changes in ownership discrimination between the treated and untreated firms. Specifically, we divide the sample period into eight sub-periods, with  $T-4$  representing four or more years before the reform and  $T+4$  representing four or more years following the reform. Numbers in the middle represent one year in each period. We plot the point estimate of the triple interaction term for each sub-period as well as the associated confidence interval, and normalize the point estimate immediately before the event date to zero for easy comparison. As shown in Appendix Fig. A.1, the treatment group and control group share a common trend before the exogenous event with insignificant differences, whereas after the event, the reduced ownership discrimination becomes prominent and remains for the following four or more periods afterward. The figure further validates the quasi-natural experiment, and indicates the effectiveness and persistence of the reform in mitigating the unfairness in credit accessibility.

For instance, in the first equation with CAPX as the dependent variable, the coefficient of  $SOE*CF$  is significantly positive, consistent with Chen et al. (2019), which validates our empirical findings.

ownership discrimination and split-share structure reform

This table illustrates the effects of the Split-share Structure Reform on the ownership discrimination by introducing the firm-level listing time of the reform  $E_{it}$  and construct a triple interaction term,  $C_{it} * S_{it} * E_{it}$ . The reform time dummy  $E_{it}$  equals 1 when the firm has already undergone the reform in the year and 0 otherwise. Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multivariate model. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for industry and year fixed effects. For brevity, only core results are presented. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign especially in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The adjusted t-squares for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \*  $p < 0.10$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Dependent variables	Independent variables										CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Adj. R <sup>2</sup>
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	SOE*REF	CF*REF	CF	REF	SOE						
CAPX	**	- *	*	- ***	***	- ***	-	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ACQUI	-	- ***		- ***	***	-	-	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ASSETS SALES	- ***	- ***	- ***	-	- ***	***	-	***	***	ES	ES	,	
STKISSUE	***	- ***	-	- ***	***	- ***	-	***	- ***	ES	ES	,	
DIV	- **	-	-	- ***	***	-	-	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ΔSLOAN	**	- ***	-	***	- ***	-	***	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ΔLLOAN	-	- **	-	-	- ***	-	***	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ΔOTHERSD	- ***	- ***	-	***	- ***	-	***	***	-	ES	ES	,	
ΔOTHERLD	-	-	-	***	- ***	-	**	**	-	ES	ES	,	
ΔCASH	***	- ***	-	- ***	***	-	***	***	-	ES	ES	,	

We then conduct a placebo test on the timing of the reform. Specifically, we conduct  $T$  times simulations to generate a series of random years in the range of the real reform years, and accordingly, construct a “false” reform indicator  $REF$  to re-estimate the benchmark model for  $T$  times. We then plot the empirical cumulative distribution function and density of the estimated coefficients on  $SOE*CF*REF$  in Appendix Fig. A. As expected, the distribution of the estimated coefficients on the placebo reform indicator is centered around zero. Our benchmark estimate from Table 1 is plotted as a vertical line at the value  $\beta$ , which lies outside the range of coefficients estimated in the simulation practice, proving the credibility of our findings.

#### 4.4. Who is responsible for ownership discrimination? Banks vs. firms

We have uncovered reduced ownership discrimination after the reform. Taking a step further, an interesting but yet not fully explored challenge is whether the results stemmed from the privatization/marketization of the lenders/banks, rather than the borrowers/firms. This counterargument posits that banks are compelled by local governments to tilt towards SOEs, while this policy lending is largely alleviated after banking sector/marketization. In most of the studies on credit misallocation, it is hard to fully exclude this alternative explanation. We argue that in this paper, the staggered Diff-in-Diff setting largely alleviates this concern, as the post-reform indicator,  $REF$ , varies among firms. In this section, we provide further evidence by taking advantage of the marketization reform on China's banks, which happened almost around the same period. We measure the marketization process of the whole banking sector with the loans extended by listed banks over the total bank loans in the economy ( $REF_{Bank}$ ), and include the triple interaction term  $SOE*CF*REF_{Bank}$  into the baseline model.

Table 1 reports the results in the equation with capital expenditure as dependent variable, the coefficient on  $SOE*CF*REF_{Bank}$  is insignificant, and the coefficient on  $SOE*CF*REF$  remains significantly positive, indicating that the alleviation of ownership discrimination is unlikely to be caused by marketization of the banking sector. Rather, banks seem to rationally adjust their credit allocations when the real-sector Split-share Structure reform cripples the government bailout expectations on SOEs. The evidence also indirectly implies that before the reform, banks proactively rather than compelled to favor SOEs for “safer” loans. Therefore, the political implications for policymakers may be that the resolution of the long-lasting credit allocation distortions in the capital market lies more on the side of firms, rather than banks.

#### 4.5. Direct evidence of accessibility to bank loans

In this section, we aim at directly gauging the influences of the Split-share Structure reform on the differential accessibility to bank loans between SOEs and non-SOEs. We extract a documentation of the loans issued by Chinese banks from the CSA database. This dataset covers the information on bank loans, including the loan covenant, the borrowers' names and stock ID, the lending banks, etc.

To examine the effect of the reform, we perform a Diff-in-Diff design based on the staggered reform as an exogenous shock, similar to that in the baseline regressions. We employ the logarithm of the loan amount  $LnAmount$ , loan term  $LnTerm$ , the interest rate  $Rate$ , and a dummy indicator of whether the loan is backed by collateral  $Collateral$  as dependent variables, respectively, and regress them on the interaction of the SOE indicator  $SOE$  and post-reform dummy  $REF$ , and both of the separate terms. We follow the literature to include a series of control variables in the regressions, including an indicator of whether the lending bank is among the “big four” banks  $Bank4$ , whether the loan package is syndicated  $Syndicated$ , whether the loan is issued in local currency  $Currency$ , as well as the category of the loan purpose declared by the borrower  $LoanPurpose$  (Raham et al., Demiroglu and James, Cerueiro et al., Ertan et al.). Detailed definitions of the variables are reported in Table A. Moreover, consistent with our baseline model, we also control for the firm-level financial characteristics, i.e. the lagged values of cash flow  $CF$  and the ten dependent variables in the baseline model, plus firm size, market-to-book ratio and ROE. We also include industry and year fixed effects in the regressions. Table 2 shows the regression results.

We find a salient decline in the differences between SOEs and non-SOEs in terms of loan amount, maturity, interest rate, and collaterals after the reform, with coefficients significant at the 1% level, and the signs are opposite to those of the coefficients on the ownership indicator  $SOE$ . The evidence indicates that SOEs' privileged accessibility to bank lending manifested as larger-scale loan amount, longer loan terms, lower borrowing costs, and less collateral requirements prominently diminishes after the Split-share Structure reform, which is in line with the findings in our baseline model.

Taken together, the direct evidence on the side of bank lending powerfully complements our major findings in the previous sections that the Split-share Structure reform ameliorates the inferior lending status for non-SOEs. The reform proves to serve as an effective catalyst to mitigate ownership discrimination towards non-SOEs and enhance the efficiency of the financing environment.

See Chetty et al. or Laerrara et al. for similar practice of simulations in their placebo tests.

We thank the anonymous referee for encouraging us to complement our findings with direct evidence of bank lending behaviors.

The China Listed Firm's Loan Research Series of the CSA database provides comprehensive documentation of bank lending to listed firms, which is collected from the announcements of the firms. Despite the possible limitations of incomplete coverage of entire bank loans and missing variables (especially the interest rates), the dataset arguably provides helpful evidence on the changes in bank lending towards listed firms in our sample period.

the real origins of the privatization reform: the firms vs. the banking sector

This table includes the impacts of the banking sector's privatization/financialization reform. We denote a variable  $E_{it}$  indicating the ratio of loans extended by banks that have already gone public to all bank loans. Similar to the firm's privatization reform indicator,  $E_{it}$ , we construct the triple interaction term,  $C_{it} * S_{it} * E_{it}$ , and include the other interaction terms in the regression. The results of the multi-equation regressions are reported with only the core results presented for brevity. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio,  $E_{it}$ , etc. We also control for industry and year fixed effects. Definitions of variables and table structures are exactly the same as in Table 1. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The Adjusted R-squares for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \*  $p < 0.10$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Dependent variables	Independent variables							CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	SOE*REF	CF*REF	SOE*CF*REFBank	SOE*REFBank	CF*REFBank			
CAPX	**	- *	***	- ***	-	- *	-	ES	ES	,
ACQUI		-	*	- ***	- **	- *	***	ES	ES	,
ASSETS	***	-	- ***	-	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
STKISSUE	***	- ***	-	- ***	-	- **	- **	ES	ES	,
DIV	- **	-	***	- ***	-	- **	-	ES	ES	,
ΔSLOAN	***	-	-	-	- ***	-	***	ES	ES	,
ΔLLOAN	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
ΔOTHERSD	- ***	- ***	-	***	**	- *	- **	ES	ES	,
ΔOTHERLD	-	-	-	***	-	*	-	ES	ES	,
ΔCASH	***	- ***	-	***	-	-	-	ES	ES	,



### 5.1. Negative cash flow shocks

One may doubt that a firm's reactions to cash flow may be asymmetrical for positive and negative shocks. Indeed, our proxy for ownership discrimination is more about firms' access to external funds after negative cash flow shocks than about retiring debt after positive cash flow shocks. Therefore, in this section, we perform a robustness check by restricting the sample to the observations with negative cash flow shocks ( $CF < 0$ ). For brevity, we put the results in Appendix [Table A](#). As shown in Panel A, the interaction of the ownership dummy

insolvency risks and ownership discrimination

This table reports the impacts of the reform on firms with high or low insolvency risks. The two subsamples are divided based on the median value of the Z-scores. Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for industry and year fixed effects. For brevity, only core results are presented. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The Adjusted R-squares for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \* p < \*\* p < \*\*\* p <

Dependent variables	Independent variables										
	High Z-score						Low Z-score				
	<i>SOE*CF*REF</i>	<i>SOE*CF</i>	<i>CONTROL</i>	<i>YEAR &amp; IND FE</i>	Adj	<i>SOE*CF*REF</i>	<i>SOE*CF</i>	<i>CONTROL</i>	<i>YEAR &amp; IND FE</i>	Adj	
<i>CAPX</i>	**	—	**	ES	ES		—	ES	ES		
<i>ACQUI</i>		—	***	ES	ES		—	***	ES	ES	
<i>ASSETS</i>	***	—	***	ES	ES	—	—	ES	ES		
<i>STKISSUE</i>	***	—	***	ES	ES	—	—	***	ES	ES	
<i>DIV</i>	—	***	*	ES	ES	—	—	ES	ES		
$\Delta$ <i>SLOAN</i>	**	—	***	ES	ES	—	—	***	ES	ES	
$\Delta$ <i>LLOAN</i>	—	—		ES	ES	—	*	—	*	ES	
$\Delta$ <i>OTHERSD</i>	—	***	***	ES	ES	—	—	***	ES	ES	
$\Delta$ <i>OTHERLD</i>	*	—	**	ES	ES						

### 5.3. Privatization probability and ownership discrimination

#### 5.3.1. The composition of shares and the effects of Split-share structure reform

The primary goal of the Split-share Structure reform is to dismantle the dual-share structure by converting state-owned shares and other types of non-tradable shares into tradable shares. We can therefore infer that the decrease in the percentage of non-tradable shares is a determinant of the extent to which the reform impacts a firm (see also Liao et al., 2019). Holders of newly-converted shares are free to sell those shares based on their evaluation of firms' performance. More converted shares transferred into tradable ones makes it easier for outsiders to take over firms without the protection of non-tradable state-owned shares. We thus reasonably expect that the effects of the reform should be more evident among firms with a larger surge in the percentage of tradable shares, since they generally experience more intense shocks in the state control dilution and face higher threats of privatization after the reform.

We divide all firms into two subsamples according to the ratio of the non-tradable shares transferred among total shares. Table 4 shows that the effects of the reform exist only in the high-conversion-ratio group. In the lower-conversion-ratio group, the coefficient of the capital expenditure on the triple interaction term is insignificant. This evidence is consistent with our prediction and further justifies the effects of the reform.

#### 5.3.2. Industrial characteristics and the effects of the Split-share structure reform

We make a further investigation into the heterogeneous effects of the reform on firms in different industries. Some industries are considered as strategically important for the country, since they bear crucial roles in social security, industrialization, and national power. The market tends to expect that even if the firms in nationally-strategic industries undergo the Split-share Structure reform, the government will retain actual control over these firms for the sake of national competence. As such, the impacts of the reform should be comparatively weaker. We divide the sample into sub-groups of nationally-strategic industries (mining, water, electricity, public transportation, and energy) and the rest, and re-conduct the baseline regressions. Results are shown in Table 5. We find evidence consistent with our predictions.

#### 5.3.3. Two alternative proxies for the likelihood of further privatization

Generally, if the state holds predominantly higher shares of a firm ex-ante, investors and banks may believe that the firm is tightly controlled by the government (Lian et al., 2019), and thus the conversion of non-tradable shares should not easily lead to substantive alternation of ownership type. Accordingly, we split the ownership indicator *SOE* into strongly- and weakly-controlled subgroups: *Strong* and *Weak*. Specifically, following Lian et al. (2019), for an S-E, if the government's direct shareholding is higher than 50% in the fiscal year of the reform, *Strong* equals one and *Weak* equals zero; otherwise, *Weak* equals one and *Strong* equals zero. For non-S-Es, both are zero. We replace the interaction terms in the baseline model with these two dummies and construct the interaction terms separately. Results are shown in Table A of the online Appendix. We find stronger impact of the reform on ownership discrimination among firms with weaker government control, which is in line with our main arguments.

Another proxy for the likelihood of privatization is the scale of workforce. People usually believe that in fear of massive layoffs and social instability, the government would be very cautious in switching a firm with a large workforce into a private one, even if they accomplish the transformation of non-tradable shares. To test this prediction, we divide the sample into two groups based on the ratio of each firm's headcount to the total number of employees of all listed firms in the city where it is headquartered in the specific year. The results are shown in online Appendix Table A. We find that the significant effects of the reform only exist among firms with smaller workforce, which presumably possess a higher possibility of realized privatization.

Overall, the evidence reinforces our findings that stronger threats of privatization lead to more thorough reductions in ownership discrimination after the reform.

### 5.4. External financing dependence, privatization, and ownership discrimination

If the Split-share Structure reform indeed reduces ownership discrimination and improves the external financing environment for S-Es and non-S-Es, firms in industries that rely more on external financing should benefit more. We posit that firms belonging to industries with higher external dependence should exhibit more pronounced effects of the reform relative to the financially self-sufficient firms. We follow Kaplan and Zingales (1995) to construct industry-level External Financing Dependence (*FD*). *FD* measures the percentage of a firm's capital needs that cannot be met by internal financing. It is defined as the industrial average capital expenditure minus the operating cash flow divided by the capital expenditure. We divide firms into two subsamples based on *FD*, and re-conduct the multi-equation regressions for both of the sub-groups. Results in Table 6 are aligned with our predictions.

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There is a compulsory lock-up period, i.e., a deliberately prolonged gap before the transferred tradable shares are eligible to be sold after the reform. Meanwhile, a large part of the tradable stocks is under constraints of selling price, shares, etc. The lock-up period and selling constraints are aimed at maintaining the stability of the market by avoiding large supply shocks, while in effect impeding the effective marketization and privatization process of S-Es. Therefore, when we evaluate the scale of non-tradable shares transferred into tradable ones, we consider the difference between the ratio of unconstrained tradable shares to total shares after the reform and the ratio of tradable shares to total shares before the reform.

Following Kaplan and Zingales (1995), the denominator and numerator are summed for all years to avoid annual fluctuations. The median rather than the mean value is used here to avoid the impacts of outliers.

### *5.5. Heterogeneous effects of the reform: direct evidence*

In the previous sections, we have illustrated the heterogeneous effects of the Split-share Structure reform among firms with different characteristics, such as the level of insolvency risks, the threats of being privatized, and the external financing dependence, among others. In this section, we supplement these findings using the direct evidence from the perspective of bank lending behaviors, and examine whether the actual amount of funding

the effects of the reform on firms in strategic and non-strategic industries

This table examines the cross-sectional variation among firms in different industries. The mining, water, electricity, public transportation, energy industries are categorized as nationally-strategic industries. Others are regarded as non-nationally-strategic industries. Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for industry and year fixed effects. The table structures are exactly the same as Table 1 or brevity, only core results are presented. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The adjusted t-statistics are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level.  $p < 0.01$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.1$ .

Dependent variables	Independent variables									
	on-nation-strategic-industry					on-nation-strategic-industry				
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Ad	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Ad
CAPX			ES	ES		**	—	**	ES	ES
ACQUI	—		ES	ES		—	—	***	ES	ES
ASSETSALLES	*	*	ES	ES		—	—		ES	ES
STKISSUE	—		ES	ES		***	—	***	ES	ES
DIV	—		ES	ES		—	—	***	ES	ES
ΔSLOAN	—	**	ES	ES		—	—	***	ES	ES
ΔLLOAN	—		ES	ES		—	—		ES	ES
ΔOTHERSD	—		ES	ES		—	***	***	ES	ES
ΔOTHERLD	—		ES	ES		—	—		ES	ES
ΔCASH	—	**	ES	ES		***	—	***	ES	ES

and  $uang$ , etc. We require at least nonmissing observations of cash flow within the estimation window. We replace the variable  $CF$  with the cash flow volatility  $CVCF$  and re-conduct the baseline regressions. Results in Table 1 show a significantly positive coefficient of  $SOE*CVCF*REF$  in the first equation with  $CAPX$  as the dependent variable, similar to that in the baseline model. The results based on the alternative proxy further strengthen our main findings.

### 6.2. Propensity-Score-Matched (PSM) alternative control groups

To address the concern that firms with different ownership structures are not fundamentally comparable, we employ the Propensity Score Matching (PSM) approach to match the S Es in our sample with fundamentally similar non-S Es. We then re-estimate the baseline regressions using the matched sample. As firms' characteristics may change after the reform, the selection of the matched non-S E group is based on characteristics at the end of 2014, the last-year-end before the reform was announced. Specifically, the dependent variable is an indicator of state ownership  $SOE$ . We include the set of control variables in the baseline model when estimating the logistic regression. Each of the S Es is matched with up to two non-S Es with the nearest estimated propensity score with replacement. Note that since some firms from the pool of potential matched non-S Es can be suitable for multiple S Es, we eventually construct a sample consisting of S Es and non-S Es.

Table A in the Appendix reports the univariate comparisons of the pre-treatment firm-level characteristics between the two types of firms. As shown in the results, none of the observed differences between S Es and matched non-S Es is statistically significant, proving that the propensity score matching process removes meaningful observable differences. After forming the relatively comparable S control group, we re-estimate the baseline regression model using S Es and matched non-S Es. The results are reported in Table 1. We find that the effects of the Split-share Structure reform continue to hold.

We follow the practice of the previous studies to use a five-year window in the estimation of the coefficient of variation. The results are robust if we use other estimation windows of four or six years, or if we use the standard deviation of the residuals from time-series models to deal with the seasonality of cash flow shocks.

### External financing dependence and the effects of the reform

We divide the sample into two groups based on the industry-level dependence of external financing of the firms [Lambert and Larcker](#) and [Zingales](#), the industry-level External Financing Dependence (ED) is calculated as the percentage of firms' capital needs that cannot be gained by internal financing. We divide the sample into two groups based on the median of ED. Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for industry and year fixed effects. For brevity, only core results are presented. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fourth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The adjusted t-squares for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01.

Dependent variables	Independent variables									
	High external financing dependence					Low external financing dependence				
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Ad	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Ad
CAPX	**		ES	ES			–	ES	ES	
ACQUI	–		ES	ES			–	***	ES	ES
ASSETSALES	–	–	**	ES	ES	***	–	***	ES	ES
STKISSUE	***			ES	ES	***	–	***	ES	ES
DIV	–	–		ES	ES	–	***		ES	ES
ΔSLOAN				ES	ES	**	–	***	ES	ES
ΔLLOAN		–		ES	ES	–	–		ES	ES
ΔOTHERSD	–	***	–	ES	ES	–	***	***	ES	ES
ΔOTHERLD	–			ES	ES				ES	ES
ΔCASH	***	–		ES	ES	***	–	***	ES	ES

### 6.3. Additional control variables

One possible concern may be that the changes in other aspects of the firms rather than in the lenders' preference may also affect firms' investments and financing behaviors after the reform. Specifically, by transferring the non-tradable shares to tradable shares and opening the door to further privatization of S Es, the reform reduces the conflicting interests between controlling shareholders in S Es, the major controller is the government agents and private shareholders, and facilitates the incorporation of more information on firms' performance into the stock market. As such, the reform may demotivate the government to subsidize S Es, especially those with higher probability of further privatization. Also, the reform may improve corporate governance, spur technological innovation, increase stock price informativeness, and reduce the agency costs of firms [Jiang et al.](#), [Lou et al.](#), [Cumming and Lou](#), [Chen et al.](#), [Lambert et al.](#) To rule out these confounding effects, we conduct a series of tests by introducing further control variables into the baseline regressions and examining whether our evidence still holds.

First, we exclude the alternative explanation that the mitigated gap between S Es and non-S Es in their responses of CAPX to cash flow shocks lies not in enhanced credit allocation, but in the reduction in S Es' financial subsidies from the government. Chinese local governments have a long history of close intervention with S Es by means of favorable subsidies [Eckstein et al.](#), [Föllmer and Zhang](#),

We collect the government subsidy dataset from the Financial Statement Annotations Series of the CSA Database, and standardize the subsidy amounts by firm's total assets. We incorporate *Subsidy* and its interactions with the ownership indicator *SOE*, the reform indicator *REF*, and the triple interaction term into the baseline model.

Second, we consider whether the observed effects of the reform in our main findings are due to the increase in S Es' motivation of technology innovations. We construct a variable *Pat* as the logarithm of one plus the total number of invention and utility model



Alternative proxy for cash flow shocks: cash flow volatility

We use the cash flow volatility  $CVC$  to proxy for cash flow shocks in the multi-equation model, and re-estimate our baseline regressions.  $CVC$  is calculated as the coefficient of variation in a firm's quarterly cash flow over the past five years (quarters preceding each of the sample years). The coefficient of variation is the standard deviation of quarterly cash flow scaled by the absolute value of the mean over the same

regression results using propensity-score-matched sample

Using the propensity-score-matched S subsample, this table estimates the impacts of the Split-share Structure reform on the ownership discrimination in China. For brevity, we don't report the detailed coefficients on these variables. When we reconduct the multi-equation regression of firms' investment and financing behaviors on cash flow shocks (Bartov et al., 2002). Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Only core results are presented. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for year and industry fixed effects. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The adjusted t-squares for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01.

Dependent variables	Independent variables									
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	SOE*REF	CF*REF	CF	REF	SOE	CONTROL	YEAR & ID FE	Adj. R <sup>2</sup>
CAPX	**	-	- *	- ***	***		**	ES	ES	
ACQUI		-	-	- ***	***		-	ES	ES	
ASSETSALLES		-	-	-	***	-	-	ES	ES	
STKISSUE	-		-	-	***	***	-	ES	ES	
DIV	-	- *	-	- ***	***			ES	ES	
ΔSLOAN	-	-	-	***	- ***		*	ES	ES	
ΔLLOAN	-	-	-	-	***			ES	ES	
ΔOTHERSD	-	- *	-	***	- ***		-	ES	ES	-
ΔOTHERLD	-	-	-	***	- ***	-		ES	ES	
ΔCASH	- **	**	-	- *	***	- ***		ES	ES	

patents that are applied for by a firm and eventually granted to a firm in a year (see [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002; [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002; [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002). We follow the literature to use the four-year-ahead innovation output variable in the regression, as the observable outputs of innovation usually take 4-5 years to emerge (see [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002; [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002; [Lerner and Ross](#), 2002).

robustness check ruling out confounding effects

This table shows the robustness of the effects of the Split-share Structure reform on the ownership discrimination by excluding the effects of other possible changes on government subsidy, firms' innovation, agency costs, and stock price informativeness etc. after the reform. The government subsidy  $Subsidy$  is measured as the total amount of government subsidies divided by firm's total assets. We proxy for firms' innovation as the logarithm of one plus the total number of invention and utility model patents that are applied for by a firm and eventually granted to a firm in a year. [Aharne and Lian, 2019](#). We include the four-year-ahead proxy for innovation. The measurement of stock price informativeness  $Info$  is the logit transformation of  $Info$ , where  $Info$  is estimated by regressing each firm's daily stock return on the value-weighted market return, industry return and their lagged values for each year. We measure the agency conflicts as the degree of separation of control and cash flow rights  $SE$ . We include these variables and their interactions with the ownership indicators and reform indicators into the regressions, denoted as "ADD CONTROL" in the eighth column of the table including  $Info$ ,  $A$ ,  $SE$ , their interactions with  $S$ ,  $E$  and  $E$ , and the triple interaction terms  $S * E * A$ ,  $S * E * Info$ ,  $S * E * SE$ . For brevity, we don't report the detailed coefficients on these variables. When we reconduct the multi-equation regression of firms' investment and financing behaviors on cash flow shocks [Bartov et al., 2019](#). Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Only core results are presented. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for year and industry.

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robustness check regression results with additional controls of other events

This table reports the impact of the Split-share Structure reform on the ownership discrimination with additional control variables of other events, i.e. the value-added tax (VAT) reform indicator  $Dum\_A$ , and foreign bank entry indicator  $Dum\_FB$ . The dummy variable  $Dum\_A$  equals 1 if the firm belongs to the specific industry and city that has already undergone the VAT reform in the year, and 0 otherwise. The dummy variable  $Dum\_FB$  equals 1 if the firm is located in the city that has already been open to foreign banks in the year, and 0 otherwise. For brevity, we don't report the detailed coefficients on these variables. When we re-estimate the multi-equation regression of firms' investment and financing behaviors on cash flow shocks (Bartov et al., 2010), each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. Only core results are presented. Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, etc. We also control for year and industry fixed effects. As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign specifically in the first, second, fourth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive. The adjusted t-statistics for the equations are reported in the last column. Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \*  $p < 0.10$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Dependent variables	Independent variables												Ad		
	$SOE*CF*REF$	$SOE*CF$	$SOE*REF$	$CF*REF$	$CF$	$REF$	$SOE$	$Dum\_VAT$	$Dum\_FB$	$CONTROL$	$YEAR \& IND FE$				
$CAPX$	**	-	*	*	-	***	***	-	***	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
$ACQUI$	-	-	***	-	***	***	-	***	-	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
$ASSETSALLES$	***	-	***	-	***	-	***	***	***	-	-	**	ES	ES	,
$STKISSUE$	***	-	***	-	***	***	-	***	-	***	-	-	ES	ES	,
$DIV$	-	**	-	-	-	***	***	-	***	-	**	**	ES	ES	,
$\Delta SLOAN$	**	-	***	-	***	-	***	-	***	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
$\Delta LLOAN$	-	**	-	-	***	-	***	-	***	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
$\Delta OTHERSD$	-	***	***	-	***	-	***	-	***	-	-	-	ES	ES	,
$\Delta OTHERLD$	-	-	-	-	***	-	***	-	**	-	-	-	ES	ES	,

We include these two indicators of events *Dum\_FB* and *Dum\_VAT* into the baseline regressions to address the disturbing impacts of these policy shocks, and report the results in Table 1. The evidence shows that our findings still hold.

Last, we consider the massive economic stimulus plan issued by the Chinese government in November 2008, with a magnitude of trillion RMB equivalent to billion USD at that time, which may affect bank loans and trigger spillover effects on firms' financial decisions. Following Yang and Cheng, Kurbanova and Weidenmier, Wen and Wu, and following the literature, we regard 2008–2009 as the stimulus period. Wen and Wu, 2010, and re-conduct the baseline regressions using the pre-stimulus sample period. Since the large wave of Split-share Structure reform was largely concentrated in 2005–2006, this subsample essentially covers more than 80% of the privatized firms in our sample. We report robust results in Panel A of Online Appendix Table A1.

Further, the trillion RMB economic stimulus plan features salient imbalance in industry distribution. Preferential stimulus package was provided to Agriculture, Forestry, Machinery, Building materials, Real Estate, Metallurgy, Construction, Transportation, Medicine, Geological exploration and water conservancy, Education and broadcasting, Social service, Information technology, and Financial insurance industries. Accordingly, we delete firms of these key supported industries from the full sample and re-conduct the baseline regressions. The results shown in Panel B of Online Appendix Table A1 provide supportive evidence to our findings. The results suggest that even after excluding the impacts of the massive stimulus package, the mitigated ownership discrimination after the reform remains prominent.

In this paper, we go beyond the widely debated existence and impacts of ownership discrimination and examine its institutional origins based on a quasi-natural experiment in China—the Split-share Structure reform. Specifically, we employ a multi-equation model that holds cash sources equal to cash uses and reflects the interdependent nature of firm's financial decisions over time to provide solid evidence of credit misallocation between SOEs and non-SOEs using a staggered Diff-in-Diff design with the reform as an exogenous shock. We show that the advantageous financing status of SOEs is significantly weakened after the conversion of firms' non-tradable shares to tradable shares, which increased their probability of being privatized. Interestingly, we find that the reform on SOEs, rather than the near-simultaneous marketization of the banking sector, takes the major effects. Our findings indicate that the implicit government guarantee is likely to be the origin of ownership discrimination.

Further, we provide supportive evidence from the perspective of the lenders. We show that SOEs' favorable accessibility to bank credits (larger-scale loan amounts, longer terms, lower borrowing costs and less collateral requirements) is indeed mitigated after the Split-share Structure reform. We proceed to show that the impacts of the reform are more pronounced among firms with higher ratios of converted shares, firms in non-strategic industries, firms with smaller workforces, and firms that experience looser ex-ante state control.

Clarifying the institutional origins of ownership discrimination and the real effects of privatization reforms has practical implications for our understanding of the capital markets. Our work provides concrete evidence of the positive role played by the reform in improving credit allocation efficiency in the financial sector and fostering growth of non-SOEs in the real sector. In this respect, the findings should be of interest to both academia and policymakers.

Definition of the variables

Variables	Description
CASH	The cash and cash equivalents in the financial statement of cash flows divided by total assets
LLOAN	The long-term bank loans in the Balance Sheet divided by total assets
SLOAN	The short-term bank loans in the Balance Sheet divided by total assets, including short-term bank loans and the long term loans maturing in less than one year
OTHERLD	The short-term liabilities in the Balance Sheet other than the long-term bank loans divided by total assets
OTHERSD	The long-term liabilities in the Balance Sheet other than the short-term bank loans divided by total assets
STKISSUE	Sale of common and preferred stock divided by total assets
DIV	Dividends per share multiplied by the shares divided by total assets
ASSETS/ALES	The sales of assets divided by total assets
CAPX	The increase of fixed assets + the increase of construction in process + the increase of intangible assets + the increase of deferred tax assets divided by the total assets
ACQUI	Acquisitions divided by total assets
SIZE	The log value of total assets
MB	Market value of equity - book value of equity + book value of total assets divided by book value of total assets
NWC	Total current assets - Cash and equivalents - Total current liabilities - Debt in current liabilities divided by total assets

continued on next page

Refer to the press conference with the theme of "Economics, social development, and macro-control of China" by Zhang Jing, director of the National Development and Reform Commission, on March 1, 2010. The webpage is <http://lianghui.people.com.cn/npc>



continued

Variables	Description
CF	Operating income before depreciation - interest expense - Cash taxes - Change in net working capital divided by total assets
SOE	A dummy variable indicating the ownership of the firm or state-owned firms SOE = 1 and otherwise 0
REF	A dummy variable which equals 1 when the firm has already undergone the Split-share Structure reform and otherwise 0
REFBank	The ratio of loans extended by listed banks to the total bank loans in the economy
LnAmount	The logarithm of the total amount of the loan
LnTerm	The logarithm of loan term
Rate	The interest rate of the loan
Collateral	A dummy variable which equals 1 if the loan is backed by collaterals and otherwise 0
Bank4	A dummy variable which equals 1 if the lending bank is among the "big four" banks in China, i.e. the Industrial and Commercial Bank of China, the China Construction Bank, the Agricultural Bank of China, the Bank of China, and otherwise 0
LoanPurpose	The category of the loan purpose declared by the borrower
Syndicated	A dummy variable which equals 1 if the loan package is syndicated and otherwise 0
Currency	A dummy variable which equals 1 if the loan is issued in local currency and otherwise 0
LoanPurpose	A series of indicators on the category of the loan purpose declared by the borrower. According to the database, the purpose is categorized into supporting the ordinary operation, supporting business expansion and new projects, international trading and import export, debt payoff, financial restructuring, and others
Strong	or an SOE, if the direct shareholding by the government is higher than 30% in the fiscal year of the reform, Strong equals 1 or non-SOEs, it equals 0
Weak	or an SOE, if the direct shareholding by the government is lower than or equal to 30% in the fiscal year of the reform, Weak equals 1 or non-SOEs, it equals 0
CVCF	The cash flow volatility, measured as the coefficient of variation in a firm's quarterly cash flow over the past five years quarters preceding each of the sample years. The coefficient of variation is the standard deviation of operating cash flow scaled by the absolute value of the mean over the same period
FD	External financing dependence, measured as the percentage of a firm's capital needs that cannot be met by internal financing
Subsidy	The total amount of government subsidies enjoyed by the firm standardized by the total assets of the firms
Pat	The measure of firm's innovation, calculated as the logarithm of one plus the total number of invention and utility model patents that are applied for by a firm and eventually granted to a firm in a year
Info	Firm's stock price informativeness, calculated as first regressing each firm's daily stock return on the value-weighted market return, industry return and their lagged values for each year, and then take logit transformation of the residuals
Sep	The degree of the separation of control rights and cash flow rights
Dum_FB	A dummy indicator of the foreign bank entry in China, which equals 1 if the firm's location has already gained access to foreign banks by the end of the year and otherwise 0
Dum_VAT	A dummy indicator of the VAT reform, which equals 1 if the firm's location has already finished the VAT reform by the end of the year, and otherwise 0

This table provides a brief introduction of the variables in the model and empirical analysis according to the Appendix. All the variables are divided by total assets as a means of standardization following the practice of [Baber et al.](#)

A parallel test

Dependent variables	Independent variable						CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
	SOE*CF*REF (-2)	SOE*CF*REF (-1)	SOE*CF*REF (0)	SOE*CF*REF (1)	SOE*CF*REF (2+)				
CAPX			*	*	***		ES	ES	0.12
ACQUI			-				ES	ES	0.08
ASSETSALES		**	-	*			ES	ES	0.15
STKISSUE	***	***	-	***	***	***	ES	ES	0.25
DIV		-					ES	ES	0.05
ΔSLOAN		-					ES	ES	0.08
ΔLLOAN	-	**	-	-	-	-	ES	ES	0.10
ΔOTHERSD	-	***	-	-	***	-	ES	ES	0.12
ΔOTHERLD		**	-	***		**	ES	ES	0.10
ΔCASH	**	***	***	***	***	***	ES	ES	0.15

This table estimates the dynamic effect of the privatization reform on our proxy for ownership discrimination, i.e. the reaction of firms' investments to cash flow shocks. All variables are as defined in [Table A](#) in Appendix. We conduct the multi-equation regressions similar to the baseline model in [Table 1](#), while replace the SOE variable in the triple interaction term with a series of indicators SOE<sub>t-2</sub>, SOE<sub>t-1</sub>, SOE<sub>t</sub>, SOE<sub>t+1</sub>, and SOE<sub>t+2</sub>, which equals to one if it is two years prior to, one year prior to, the current year of, one year after, two and more years after the firm has underwent the reform, respectively and zero, otherwise. Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model. For brevity, we omit the separate terms in the interactions, and control variables including the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio

and E etc We also control for year and industry fixed effects As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign especially in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive The Adjusted R-squares for the equations are reported in the last column Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level \* p < 0.10 \*\* p < 0.05 \*\*\* p < 0.01

Subsample of negative cash flow shocks

Panel A: The ownership discrimination													
Dependent variables	Independent variables										Ad		
	SOE*CF	CF	SOE	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE								
CAPX	- ***	***	- ***	ES	ES								
ACQUI	- *	***	- ***	ES	ES								
ASSETS SALES	- ***	- ***	-	ES	ES								
EQUI	- *	- ***	- ***	ES	ES								
DIV	-	***	- ***	ES	ES								
ΔSLOAN	- ***	- ***	- *	ES	ES								
ΔLLOAN	- ***	- ***	- *	ES	ES								
ΔOTHERSD	***	- *	***	ES	ES								
ΔOTHERLD	**	- ***	***	ES	ES								
ΔCASH	**	***		ES	ES								

Panel B: The effects of the Split-share Structure reform on the ownership discrimination													
Dependent variables	Independent variables										Ad		
	SOE*CF*REF	SOE*CF	SOE*REF	CF*REF	CF	REF	SOE	CONTROL	YEAR & IND FE				
CAPX	**	-	**	**	-	***	***	-	***	-	***	ES	ES
ACQUI	-	-	-	-	***	***	-	-	-	-	-	ES	ES
ASSETS SALES	***	-	***	-	**	-	***	**	-	-	-	ES	ES
STKISSUE	-	**	-	***	-	***	-	-	-	-	-	ES	ES
DIV	-	-	-	***	***	***	-	***	-	**	-	ES	ES
ΔSLOAN	-	-	***	***	-	***	-	-	-	**	-	ES	ES
ΔLLOAN	-	-	-	-	-	***	*	-	-	-	-	ES	ES
ΔOTHERSD	-	***	***	-	***	***	-	***	***	***	-	ES	ES
ΔOTHERLD	-	-	-	**	-	***	-	-	-	-	-	ES	ES
ΔCASH	-	*	*	-	*	***	***	***	-	-	-	ES	ES

This table re-estimate the regression results using the subsample of negative cash flow shocks Each row in the table corresponds to each of the equations in the multi-equation model Panel A re-estimates the existence of ownership discrimination in Panel B re-estimates the impacts of the reform on the discrimination in Panel C Control variables include the lagged values of the ten dependent variables, firm size, market-to-book ratio, E etc We also control for industry and year fixed effects For brevity, only core results are presented As several dependent variables in the model have a minus sign especially in the first, second, fifth and tenth equations, their signs for the coefficients and t-values in the table are adjusted accordingly to make the results more intuitive The Adjusted R-squares for the equations are reported in the last column Coefficients are reported with t-statistics in parentheses \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level \* p < 0.10 \*\* p < 0.05 \*\*\* p < 0.01

the privatization reform and bank lending subsample tests

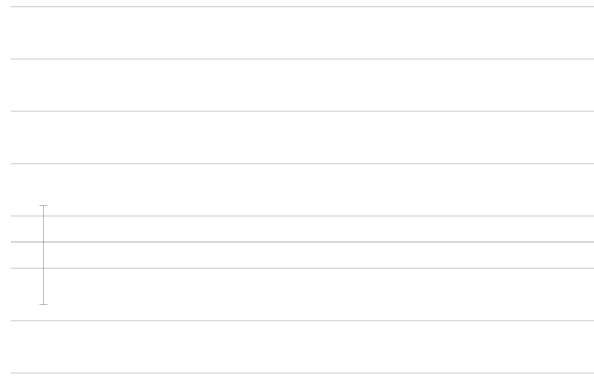
Dependent variable <i>Ln(Amount)</i>	High Z-score	Low Z-score	High changes	Low changes
<i>REF*SOE</i>	— ***	—	— **	*
<i>SOE</i>	— ***	— ***	— ***	—
<i>REF</i>	— ***	— **	—	—
Control variables	ES	ES	ES	ES
Industry	ES	ES	ES	ES
Ad				
Dependent variable <i>Ln(Amount)</i>	vs.		High dependence	Low dependence
	Non-strategic-industry	Strategic-industry		
<i>REF*SOE</i>	— **	—	— ***	
<i>SOE</i>	— ***	— ***	— ***	—
<i>REF</i>	— ***	—		— **
Control variables	ES	ES	ES	ES
Industry	ES	ES	ES	ES
Ad				

This table reports the heterogeneous effects of the Split-share Structure reform on the scale of bank lending among firms with different characteristics. We first split the full sample into two subsamples according to the level of insolvency risks, changes in non-tradable shares, whether the industry is among the nationally-strategic industries, and the external financing dependence, respectively. In each subsample, we regress the logarithm of loan amount *Ln(Amount)* on the interaction of the ownership indicator *SOE* and the reform time dummy *REF*, and both of the separate terms. Control variables include the indicators of whether the loan is issued by “big four” banks (*Big4*), whether the loan package is syndicated (*Syndicated*), whether it is issued in local currency (*Currency*), and the category of the loan purpose declared by the borrower (*Loan purpose*). We also control for the lagged values of cash flow (*CASH*) and the ten dependent variables in our baseline model (*CA*, *AC*, *ASSETS*, *SALES*, *SIZE*, *DEBT*, *LEV*, *ROE*, *ROA*, *ROD*, *ROE*, *ROA*, *ROD*, *CASH*), plus firm size, market-to-book ratio, *LEV* and industry dummies etc. We control for year and industry fixed effects or brevity, only core results are presented. The adjusted *R*-squares are reported. Coefficients are reported with *t*-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \* *p* < 0.10, \*\* *p* < 0.05, \*\*\* *p* < 0.01.

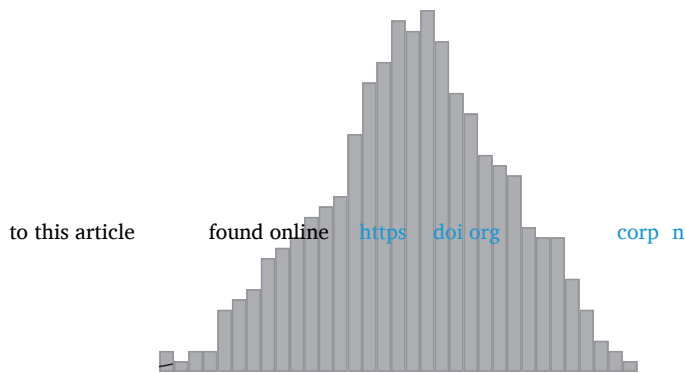
propensity score matching-post-match differences

Variable	S E	on-S E	Diff	<i>t</i> -value
<i>ACQUI</i>			—	
<i>ASSETS</i>				—
<i>STKISSUE</i>			—	
<i>DIV</i>				—
<i>ΔSLOAN</i>			—	
<i>ΔLLOAN</i>		—	—	
<i>ΔOTHERSD</i>			—	
<i>ΔOTHERLD</i>		—	—	
<i>ΔCASH</i>	—			—
<i>MB</i>				—
<i>SIZE</i>			—	
<i>ROE</i>			—	

This table presents the statistics of post-match differences between *SE* and matched non-*SE*s, including the sample average of firm characteristics, the sample-mean differences (on-*SE*s minus *SE*s) between the two groups and the *t*-statistics. All variables and table structures are exactly the same as those in Table 1. Coefficients are reported with *t*-statistics in parentheses. \*\*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 1% level, \*\* denotes test statistical significance at the 5% level, \* denotes test statistical significance at the 10% level. \* *p* < 0.10, \*\* *p* < 0.05, \*\*\* *p* < 0.01.



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