



Does Debt Management Matter for REIT Returns?

Zhilan Feng¹ · Stephen M. Miller² · Dogan Tirtiroglu³ 

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Abstract

Asset and debt management are two essential managerial tasks in any firm. The traditional view holds that asset management is the primary driver of real estate investment trust (REIT) returns for the following reasons: (1) interest tax shields are not a source of incremental value for REITs and (2) the plain tangibility of real estate assets helps to diminish the financial distress costs of REITs. This paper examines empirically whether debt management also matters for the operating returns (i.e., ROA, ROE, Δ ROA or Δ ROE) of a portfolio of REITs. Both applying a novel dynamic decomposition method to Δ ROA or Δ ROE and also defining ROA and ROE under the net income and the funds from operations metrics guide the empirical approach of this paper. Our findings show that the effects of debt management on REITs' operating profitability cannot be ruled out. However, the direction of these effects appears to be opposite to that of asset management. These results call for renewed and further investigations into the optimal capital structure questions for REITs.

Keywords Asset and debt management · REIT · ROA and ROE · Dynamic decomposition · FFO and NI

✉ Dogan Tirtiroglu
dtirtiroglu@ryerson.ca

Zhilan Feng
zfeng@clarkson.edu

Stephen M. Miller
stephen.miller@unlv.edu

¹ Economics & Financial Studies, Clarkson University, The David D. Reh School of Business, Capital Region Campus, 80 Nott Terrace, Schenectady, NY 12308, USA

² Economics, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV 89154-6005, USA

³ Real Estate Management Department, Ryerson University, Ted Rogers School of Management, Toronto, ON M5G 2C3, Canada

Introduction

Asset and debt management are two essential managerial tasks in any firm. Whether managers can create incremental value through debt management practices has been a long-standing and one of the most debated topics in Finance. Modigliani and Miller (MM) (1958) demonstrate in their path-breaking paper that, under a set of highly restrictive assumptions, including the absence of corporate taxes, and when the no-arbitrage condition is invoked, debt management alone is not capable of creating any incremental value. They attribute value creation solely on asset management in this tightly defined economic environment. The ensuing rich literature has offered various ways, through mainly relaxing the restrictive assumptions, by which debt management can add incremental firm value. A crucial source of incremental value from debt financing stems from the tax deductibility of interest expense in a more realistic world with taxation of corporate profits (MM, 1963; Graham, 2000; Graham and Harvey, 2001). Parsons and Titman (2008) and Graham and Leary (2011) cover the pertinent literature. Building on these contributions, especially those by MM (1958, 1963), Myers (1974) formulates the Adjusted Present Value (APV) method, which prescribes a two-stage decision-making process for the levered asset valuations or capital budgeting projects: find (i) the value of the proposed project as if it were an all-equity financed project (i.e., pure asset management value) and (ii) all incremental value(s) from debt financing effects and add them to that in (i). This method reveals remarkably that a proposed project that may be rejected under all-equity financing can become acceptable once incremental values from debt financing effects are added to the value arrived under all-equity financing.

Given this background, we study empirically whether debt management matters for REIT returns. REITs provide at least three unique angles in exploring this question. First, the legal framework that defines REITs exempts them from paying corporate taxes for as long as they pay the minimum of a legally binding percentage of their cash flows in dividends. Thus, samples of REITs embrace naturally MM's (1958) crucial assumption of "no taxes" (see Howe and Shilling, 1988). The no-taxes status suggests that asset management may be the only determinant of REITs' returns. Second, lessened default risk and financial distress costs, arising from asset tangibility, make Equity REITs'¹ access to debt markets better and easier (Glover, 2016; Reindl et al., 2017; among others). This comparative advantage may motivate REIT managers to take debt management for granted. In spite of the industry's observed large appetite for using debt financing, financial distress does not appear to be a factor for debt management to affect REIT returns. Thus, the static trade-off theory of capital structure exempts REITs from its coverage. Third, REITs are, at least in theory, a pass-through investment vehicle that routinely use a lot of long-term leverage. These characteristics, combined with reliable data availability, uniquely permit the separation of the asset- and debt-management functions. In our view, no other pass-through investment vehicle can

¹ While Equity REITs own and operate income-producing properties, Mortgage REITs invest in mortgages and mortgage related securities.

offer an insight into this separation. Mutual funds offer rich data, but they do not use significant leverage. Hedge funds, some private equity funds, some CDOs, and some CDSs use leverage, but they offer little or no public data.² Thus, studying REITs permits us to address a question fundamental to both Finance and Real Estate.

Three ingredients shape our empirical approach. First, we take a portfolio (or industry) approach and focus initially on the return on assets (ROA) and the return on equity (ROE) of the portfolio. While ROA is mainly a measure of asset management, ROE is an amalgam measure of both asset management and debt management. The annually-constructed value-weighted portfolio comprises of a sample of listed U.S. Equity REITs between 1989 and 2015. By comparing the magnitude and significance levels of the coefficient estimates for the portfolio's ROA, ROE, *change in ROA* (Δ ROA) or *change in ROE* (Δ ROE) in our models, we are able to infer whether REITs' debt management policies matter to their operating profitability. Second, Bennet's (1920) dynamic decomposition method helps us to explore this question further and from a relatively novel perspective. This method separates the portfolio's Δ ROA or Δ ROE, between time (t-1) and (t), into those that originate from (i) improved profitability of surviving individual REITs (the "within" effect), (ii) shifts of resources from less to more profitable surviving REITs (the "between or reallocation" effect), (iii) entries of REITs (the "entry" effect), and (iv) exits of REITs (the "exit" effect), respectively. Given that mismanagement or ineffective debt management may be the sources of exits and that the entrants may face some initial constraints in accessing the debt markets, empirical results, especially on the Bennet effects of the survivors, should add some depth to the results from the first set of estimations. Third, the recent literature on REITs debates comparatively the benefits and pitfalls of using net income (NI) or funds from operations (FFO). While emerging evidence favors the use of FFO,³ this debate is still evolving and currently missing evidence at the portfolio level. We define ROA and ROE in terms of both NI and FFO and study their differential effects on the empirical results. Certainly, the addition, among others, of depreciation expense at time t to a REIT's NI(t) in measuring its FFO(t) relates to the management of depreciation expenses and hence asset management.⁴

The two-stage structure of Myers' (1974) APV model prescribes some empirically testable relations. The first set of time-series estimations examines the relation between the current and own lagged values across each of these four profitability measures: ROA, ROE, Δ ROA, and Δ ROE. Any statistical significance of the coefficient estimates of the own lags and their magnitudes could reveal whether the observed significance relates to the sample firms' asset- or debt-management policies or both.

² We thank an anonymous referee for this excellent point.

³ The National Association of Real Estate Investment Trusts (NAREIT) in the United States for a long time and REALPAC in Canada in recent years have promoted the use of FFO.

⁴ Other FFO adjustments, such as including a REIT's interest in unconsolidated partnerships and joint ventures, and adding back interest expense on convertible debt (some REITs treat convertible debt as equity), also suggest that FFO might be a more comprehensive performance measure to asset management policies.

The second set of time-series estimations supplements the initial analyses by replacing the own-lags above with the lags of the Bennet effects in the estimation models. To our knowledge, examining financial data, by focusing on the Bennet effects that make up the temporal change in a profitability measure, is new in the literature. If the first set of estimations above detects statistical significance, then this supplementary extension can reveal which Bennet effect(s) may be the source(s) of the initially observed significance in the own lags. These additional estimations are useful in at least two ways. First, findings of lack of significance in the first set of analyses and then of significance in the second set would suggest that some significant underlying relations either stay invisible or wash out in the first set of estimations. Second, an understanding of the source(s) of significant relation(s) between any of the dependent variables and the lagged Bennet effects should be useful to the (i) REIT managers in managing their assets and debt contracts, (ii) investors in their investment or portfolio rebalancing decisions, and (iii) policy-makers in dispensing their oversight duties of this sufficiently regulated sector.

Our main findings indicate that the sample Equity REITs' asset management policies, as expected, exert considerably more influence than debt management policies on REITs' operating returns, and that debt management still surfaces as a source of incremental value, pulling down the positive value created by asset management. This result is consistent with the observation that some pressure factors, which are to motivate managers for better and more intense debt management, are missing in REITs' environment. Further, the Bennet "within" effect dominates other Bennet effects in our analyses; the use of the FFO measure, along with the "within" effect, helps to identify asset management's more pronounced role in generating REITs' operating profits; and the FFO results differ from their NI measure counterparts even at the portfolio level.

This paper unfolds as follows. The following two sections (i) provide a literature review and develop hypotheses, and (ii) introduce the Bennet dynamic decomposition, leaving its details to an appendix. The next two discuss (i) the data and the sample, and (ii) specify the empirical models and report the findings. The final section concludes the paper and offers ideas on how to apply the Bennet decomposition to some other financial data.

Literature Review and Development of Hypothesis

This section covers the pertinent literature on asset management and debt management and the NI and FFO measures and postulates some empirically testable hypotheses. The Bennet decomposition is deferred to Section 3; it requires algebraic formulations and their explanations.

Firms produce their profits by managing their portfolios of assets and liabilities. A literature search does not generate any published papers on how asset- or debt-management policies may affect either stock returns or operating profitability in the REIT industry. A few papers consider REITs' firm-level operating performance. Harrison et al. (2011) report that enhanced liquidity strongly associates with better firm-level operating performance. Ghosh et al. (2013) find improvements in industry-adjusted operating performance prior to a seasoned equity offering and declines in operating

cash-flow measures after the offering. They attribute this mean reverting behavior to asymmetric information. Huang et al. (2009) find that operating performance of REITs peak at the announcement year and decline in the years that follow the announcement and that post-buyback operating performance is stronger than its pre-buyback counterpart. Xu and Ooi (2018) consider whether the growth of REITs over the last two decades relates to the existence of scale economies. They find that large REITs with more free cash flows have a higher propensity to engage in bad growth activities. Beracha et al. (2019) show empirically that (i) operational performance (i.e., ROA and ROE) negatively associates with previous-year operational efficiency (i.e., the ratio of operational expenses to revenue) suggesting that more efficient REITs generate better operating results, (ii) more efficient REITs have lower levels of credit risk and total risk, and (iii) operational efficiency partially explains the cross-sectional stock return of REITs. While Beracha et al. (2019) focus on ROA and ROE, they do not pursue the asset and debt management implications of these measures.

Myers' (1974) APV method is helpful in developing empirically testable relations. So, a brief coverage of its structure should be useful here. The APV method is one of at least three approaches to asset valuation or capital budgeting problems under debt financing and maximizes total assets. To start, consider a project or asset financed under 100% equity financing. That is,

$$APV = NPV_{AE} \quad (1.a)$$

where NPV_{AE} indicates, in a capital budgeting context, the net present value of the all-equity financed project or firm. Pure asset management (i.e., that without any interference from debt financing) is the sole driver of this equation. Now consider the same project's valuation under debt financing. Incremental values from debt financing effects enter into Equ. (1.a). That is,

$$APV = NPV_{AE} + NPVF \quad (1.b)$$

where NPVF indicates all incremental values that can originate from debt financing. The NPVF may be a sum of a series of value calculations that can originate from debt financing.⁵

Following MM (1958) and Myers (1974), REITs' exemption from corporate taxes leads to the prediction that debt management is either not relevant or less relevant than asset management. This prediction receives support from the view that financial distress costs may be a less important leverage consideration for REIT managers. Commercial real estate assets in REITs' portfolios are visible and serve as collateral in their borrowing deals. Thus, asset tangibility is readily available for REITs, giving the managers a venue to relax on financial distress and its costs and ultimately on debt management. Industry observers' views concur with the prediction that asset management is the main driver of REITs' returns.

⁵ Inselbag and Kaufold (1989) provide an excellent demonstration of the APV method with a numerically driven example of a leveraged corporate buyout. The Flow-to-Equity (FTE) and the Weighted Average Cost of Capital methods are the alternatives to the APV method. For capital budgeting or asset valuation problems without cash flow related complications, all three methods provide the same result.

Meanwhile, intensity of debt is one of the key observed characteristics of the REIT industry. Thus, other debt management effects, such as those arising from agency problems (see, e.g., Jensen and Meckling, 1976), asymmetric information (see, e.g., Myers and Majluf, 1984), labor market dynamics (see Berk et al., 2010; Chemmanur et al., 2013; Kim, 2020; Matsa, 2010, among others), and/or product/input market interactions (see, e.g., Brander and Lewis, 1986), make REITs' debt management relevant, potentially as relevant as their asset management. Which of the two management tasks dominates the other and whether debt management adds any incremental value are empirical matters and also the focus of this paper.

The literature on REITs debates the use of NI versus FFO. The FFO measure has received increasing research attention (Bhattacharya et al. 2003; Lougee and Marquardt, 2004; Ben-Shahar et al. 2011). Further, a NAREIT (2018) report points out that "FFO has gained wide acceptance by REITs and investors." NAREIT has championed the use of the FFO metric since the 1990s so as to provide a more informative measurement of REITs' operating performance. Earlier studies find evidence that analysts and investors value FFO information (e.g., Ben-Shahar et al., 2011; Fields et al., 1998; Vincent, 1999). Feng et al. (2020) provide evidence that both NI and FFO contain valuable information for investors and that a possible intentional inclusion and/or omission of, "good" vs. "bad" news, respectively, in FFO may occur and that FFO adjustments relate to CEOs' involvement in hiding subpar performance. So, there appears to exist a growing consensus in the recent literature that the FFO metric provides additional valuable information to the NI metric for *firm-level analyses*. To our knowledge, whether FFO does so at an aggregated level (i.e., portfolio- or industry-level) remains an open question. Further, definition of the FFO puts more emphasis on asset management than debt management since management of depreciation expenses is an asset management topic. Hence, we argue that FFO is a more comprehensive measure (relative to NI) in studying REITs' asset management policies.

Counterarguments also exist against the adoption of FFO. The FFO measure is not audited, is voluntarily reported, and is not prepared according to the *Generally Accepted Accounting Principles* (GAAP) (see, Vincent, 1999). Thus, self-selection bias may be present in FFO since managers may engage in cherry-picking of financial items in calculating and reporting FFO and making accounting assumptions in estimating some of the recurring, non-cash revenues and expenses. Measurement errors of these items raise concerns about likely enhancements in the levels of noise in the FFO measure.

Given this discussion,⁶ studying whether measuring profitability in terms of FFO, instead of the conventional NI, affects REITs' profitability constitutes another contribution of our paper. Further, we address carefully the selection bias in the data.

⁶ Previous research also reports mixed evidence. For example, Graham and Knight (2000) find evidence that FFO has higher incremental information content than NI. Fields et al. (1998) find that, while FFO is better in predicting one-year-ahead FFO and cash flows from operations (CFO), NI is better in predicting contemporaneous stock prices and one-year-ahead NI. Gore and Stott (1998) find that FFO is, in fact, more closely associated with stock returns than NI and that NI predicts dividends better than FFO does. Meanwhile, Ben-Shahar et al. (2011) report counter evidence that FFO explains better REITs' dividend policy than NI. Vincent (1999) reports that all four measures - FFO, earnings-per-share (EPS), CFO, and earnings-before-interest-tax-depreciation-and-amortization (EBITDA) - are associated with stock returns, but their statistical significance depends on the model specifications.

Portfolio Profitability Metrics and the Bennet Dynamic Decomposition

Applying Bennet’s (1920) dynamic decomposition to the annual change of a portfolio’s profitability captures four effects (or components): (i) improved profitability of individual REITs (the “within” effect), (ii) shifts of resources from less to more profitable REITs (the “between or reallocation” effect), (iii) entries of more profitable REITs (the “entry” effect), and (iv) exits and conversions of less profitable REITs (the “exit and conversion” effect).⁷ The sum of these effects equals the annual change in the portfolio’s profitability. We apply separately this decomposition to the annual changes in the sample portfolio’s *ROA* and *ROE* and also define each measure by either annual net income (NI) or annual funds from operations (FFO). To our knowledge, bringing the Bennet decomposition effects that make up the temporal change in a profitability measure between (t-1) and (t) is new in the literature.

Since we apply the Bennet dynamic decomposition to a sample portfolio of U.S. Equity REITs, our derivation of the various dynamic decompositions employs the sample portfolio’s ROE as an illustration. At time *t*, the ROE (R_t) equals net income (NI_t) divided by total equity (E_t). That is,

$$R_t = \frac{NI_t}{E_t} \tag{2}$$

where $NI_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} NI_{i,t}$, $E_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} E_{i,t}$, and n_t is the number of REITs in the portfolio. After substitution and rearrangement, we get

$$R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t}, \tag{3}$$

where $r_{i,t}$ equals the ratio of net income to equity for REIT *i* in period *t* and $\theta_{i,t}$ equals the *i*-th REIT’s share of equity in the portfolio. We want to decompose the change in the portfolio ROE into the “within,” “between,” “entry,” and “exit and conversion (‘exit’ for short from now on)” effects. The change in the portfolio *ROE*, R_t , equals the following:

$$\Delta R_t = R_t - R_{t-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t-1}. \tag{4}$$

An appendix provides the details of the derivation that leads to the four components of the Bennet dynamic decomposition:

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,\Delta t} \bar{\theta}_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} (\bar{r}_i - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,\Delta t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_t^{enter}} (r_{i,t} - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}^{exit}} (r_{i,t-1} - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,t-1}. \tag{5}$$

⁷ Note that the reverse effect could occur. That is, we could see worsened profitability of individual REITs (“within” effect), shifts of resources from more to less profitable REITs (“between” effect), entries of less profitable REITs (“entry” effect), and exits of more profitable REITs (“exit and conversion” effect) between 1989 and 2015.

where $\bar{\theta}_i = (\theta_{i,t} + \theta_{i,t-1})/2$; $\bar{r}_i = (r_{i,t} - r_{i,t-1})/2$; $\bar{R} = (R_t + R_{t-1})/2$.

The “within” effect equals the summation of each REIT’s *Change in ROE* weighted by its average share of the portfolio’s total equity between period (t-1) and period (t). The “between (reallocation)” effect equals the summation of the difference between each REIT’s ROE and the average portfolio ROE between period (t-1) and (t), multiplied by the change in that REIT’s share of equity in the portfolio. The “entry” effect equals the summation of the difference between each entering REIT’s ROE in period t and the portfolio’s average ROE in period t between period (t-1) and period (t) times the entering REIT’s share of equity in the portfolio in period (t). Finally, the “exit” effect equals the summation of the difference between each exiting REIT’s ROE in period (t-1) and the portfolio’s average ROE between period (t-1) and period (t), multiplied by the exiting REITs’ share of equity in the portfolio in period (t-1).

Our approach can offer insights into dynamic changes in the portfolios of financial assets or in industry level analyses, commonly observed in Finance or empirical Microeconomics. It is well-known that research results on returns from portfolio level analyses are more reliable and robust than their equivalents from individual assets or firms obtained from panel data, time series, or cross-sectional explorations. Further, the dynamic decomposition methods split the surviving firms’ contributions to the temporal change in a profitability metric into the “within” and “between” effects. The “between” effect sums across all sample REITs simultaneously the (i) difference in a REIT’s average profitability between (t-1) and (t) from its industry counterpart and (ii) change in this REIT’s market cap from (t-1) to (t). Thus, the “between” effect has a different meaning than investors’ active reallocation of assets within actual REIT portfolios.⁸ Tracking investors’ active portfolio reallocations poses a major data challenge for all researchers.

Exits in this context could be arising from insolvency, mergers and acquisitions or conversions from the public domain to the private domain. All these events are likely to be related to exiting firms’ above-average use of leverage. Similarly, firms that enter into an industry are likely to face constraints in accessing the debt markets for a while. Given this background, empirical results, especially on the “within” and “between” Bennet effects of the survivors, should be useful in unearthing more detailed evidence on our research questions. Under the Bennet survivor effects, (i) asset management is likely to dominate debt management since exiting and entering REITs should be more closely affiliated with leverage use and (ii) the FFO measurements are likely to boost asset management’s role given that this measure can lessen the influence of debt management.

An appendix shows that some other portfolio or industry performance decomposition methods, for example, Bailey et al. (1992) and Haltiwanger (1997), are special cases of the Bennet (1920) dynamic decomposition and that all of these decomposition methods closely relate to the literature on price indexes, such as the Laspeyres (Laspeyres, 1871) and Paasche (Paasche, 1974) indexes. The dynamic decomposition of such industry performance requires micro-level information on firms

⁸ We are grateful to a referee for this insightful point.

- REITs in our paper - within an industry.⁹ We can apply the same steps above and as detailed in Appendix 1 to other portfolio performance metrics. To save space, we do not report the year-by-year results for each of the four Bennet decomposition effects for ΔROA and ΔROE for our sample portfolio. These results are available from the authors upon request.

Data and Sample

We build our database by merging distinct variables with annual frequency available in COMPUSTAT and CRSP/ZIMAN databases and as compiled and kindly provided to us by NAREIT.¹⁰ When a variable does not appear in these sources or contains missing values, data collected from either Internet searches or the EDGAR database enter into our database.

Our sample covers the listed U.S. Equity REITs that report (i) ROA and ROE between -100% to 100% so as to avoid the distortions due to outliers and (ii) FFO between 1989 and 2015. Feng et al.'s (2011) classification of REITs, especially between 1993 and 2015, guides us in identifying the sample firms. Computations of *ROA* and *ROE* use both NI and FFO to elicit evidence on whether the latter offers any incremental information over the former. Data on FFO do not exist for each of the listed sample REIT and are available only between 1989 and 2015. The NI data exist for a larger number of REITs and over a longer period of time. This FFO data limitation defines the selection of our sample and sample period. The average of the yearly ratio of the number of FFO reporting listed REITs to the total number of listed REITs is about 84%. This ratio is greater than 92% after 2006. Despite our efforts to build a comprehensive database, missing data remain an obstacle, reduce somewhat our sample size and sample period, and keep the data at an annual frequency. Panels A and B of Table 1 tabulate the descriptive statistics for our key variables of *NI*, *FFO*, *TA*, *TE*, *ROE (NI-based)* = NI/TE ; *ROE (FFO-based)* = FFO/TE ; and *ROA (NI-based)* = NI/TA ; *ROA (FFO-based)* = FFO/TA by sample year and for the entire sample period. In unreported work, we examine whether there is something different about the REITs for which the information is available.¹¹ All mean differences in (i) total assets, (ii) total equity, (iii) NI, (iv) ROE, and (v) ROA between the 3855 observations for the full sample and the 3064 observations for the

⁹ The availability of micro-level (i.e., establishment-level) data for manufacturing industries spawned a series of such applied microeconomic research. McGuckin (1995) describes the Longitudinal Research Database (LRD) at the U.S. Bureau of the Census upon which this research relies. For banking data at the individual bank level, see the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago at <https://www.chicagofed.org/banking/financial-institution-reports/commercial-bank-data>. In sum, aggregate industry data contain important firm- and plant-level dynamics that collectively determine overall industry dynamics.

¹⁰ We thank Brad Case for kindly providing us with data from NAREIT's resources, Erkan Yonder for helping us in identifying and collecting some of our data from various sources, and Steve Cauley for his comments that guided us in cross checking our data vis-a-vis the CRSP/ZIMAN database.

¹¹ We gratefully acknowledge a referee for this point and will share these mean differences upon request.

Table 1 Annual means and standard deviations of sample REITs' NI, FFO, total assets, total equity, ROA and ROE, during the sample period of 1989–2015

Year	No. of REITs	Net Income (\$Million)			Fund from Operations (\$Millions)			Total Assets (\$Million)			Total Equity (\$Million)		
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
1989	19	5.941	6.995	11.111	8.298	170.061	119.862	95.238	54.186				
1990	20	6.007	9.125	11.505	9.664	172.204	118.104	88.859	54.629				
1991	41	4.547	8.083	9.888	11.352	152.128	142.479	88.695	75.098				
1992	51	4.148	9.049	10.560	11.574	167.703	153.607	97.683	84.887				
1993	90	6.818	13.031	14.845	15.075	264.702	218.855	154.763	138.041				
1994	134	10.602	12.520	20.870	19.409	336.906	325.312	172.922	163.849				
1995	144	14.818	17.986	29.043	28.628	440.500	426.909	225.101	242.804				
1996	137	22.678	26.737	40.546	41.294	648.893	695.515	342.402	369.735				
1997	151	30.662	32.713	57.262	62.121	1083.200	1387.650	581.840	789.169				
1998	152	51.410	113.290	90.571	117.005	1705.280	2398.110	800.305	1091.160				
1999	143	59.434	73.176	106.864	125.877	1766.710	2221.190	846.614	1105.680				
2000	131	68.784	90.984	119.197	149.362	1909.670	2567.950	890.482	1238.790				
2001	124	59.181	93.838	118.744	163.664	2080.870	3109.720	954.801	1511.010				
2002	116	68.116	117.091	129.722	194.187	2360.960	3293.610	1037.940	1538.740				
2003	119	77.534	134.025	129.241	191.007	2469.210	3222.030	1069.760	1477.690				
2004	126	75.956	112.325	129.841	181.839	2547.450	3517.070	1071.490	1471.220				
2005	128	85.045	145.539	130.104	190.651	2772.930	3624.970	1102.430	1455.210				
2006	112	122.030	195.269	173.453	243.306	3616.790	4756.820	1368.920	1740.310				
2007	108	135.953	224.894	202.652	285.796	3944.430	4968.590	1396.320	1658.270				
2008	105	86.578	169.266	184.293	264.255	4092.660	4990.860	1455.190	1618.570				
2009	104	29.000	134.271	146.635	241.555	3766.180	4309.640	1568.280	1803.780				
2010	113	19.831	228.571	152.056	279.079	3973.670	4989.170	1708.440	2019.380				
2011	116	71.163	190.783	200.076	317.337	4219.220	5556.350	1858.750	2427.400				
2012	125	90.840	215.478	229.032	359.821	4550.880	5831.170	1994.680	2501.970				

Table 1 (continued)

Panel A: Net income, funds from operations, total assets and total equity.														
Year	No. of REITs	Net Income (\$Million)	Fund from Operations (\$Millions)	Total Assets (\$Million)	Total Equity (\$Million)									
						ROA (%) – NI-based		ROA (%) – FFO Based		ROE (%) – NI-based		ROE (%) – FFO Based		
Year	No. of REITs	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TEQW-Mean	TEQW-Mean
2013	146	110.092	244.930	234.738	371.928	4550.190	3.938	7.025	4.297	6.692	5.524	6.196	6.953	2585.790
2014	157	138.968	271.514	270.122	399.221	4942.780	3.717	7.092	5.167	6.970	4.969	10.950	6.915	2715.390
2015	152	151.623	307.217	298.064	431.225	5279.840	2.789	6.927	4.650	6.709	4.341	7.431	4.468	2900.260
All	3064	66.699	164.792	134.058	246.527	2611.870	2.676	6.470	4.295	6.291	2.397	10.900	4.667	1799.040
Panel B: NI- and FFO-based ROA and ROE														
						ROA (%) – NI-based		ROA (%) – FFO Based		ROE (%) – NI-based		ROE (%) – FFO Based		
Year	No. of REITs	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TATW-Mean	EW-Mean	Std Dev	TEQW-Mean	TEQW-Mean
1989	19	3.700	4.273	3.938	7.025	4.297	6.692	5.524	6.196	6.953	11.495	6.682	11.815	11.815
1990	20	3.600	6.534	3.717	7.092	5.167	6.970	4.969	10.950	6.915	11.804	6.824	12.967	12.967
1991	41	3.448	4.802	2.789	6.927	4.650	6.709	4.341	7.431	4.468	9.998	7.349	10.751	10.751
1992	51	2.664	5.995	2.676	6.470	4.295	6.291	2.397	10.900	4.667	9.550	5.762	10.463	10.463
1993	90	3.465	7.443	2.601	6.474	6.180	5.548	3.481	12.730	4.468	10.111	7.891	9.530	9.530
1994	134	3.719	4.916	3.196	6.622	3.409	6.217	5.549	12.510	5.983	14.542	14.535	11.648	11.648
1995	144	3.639	3.736	3.425	7.105	3.068	6.609	6.358	10.090	6.539	15.300	15.467	12.618	12.618
1996	137	3.727	2.880	3.510	6.638	2.894	6.224	7.076	5.763	6.645	13.790	8.482	11.782	11.782
1997	151	3.309	2.598	2.851	5.652	2.467	5.303	6.280	6.300	5.296	11.668	8.016	9.851	9.851
1998	152	2.968	2.394	3.020	5.673	2.152	5.353	5.352	10.098	6.429	14.939	19.981	11.396	11.396
1999	143	3.442	1.998	3.367	6.149	1.960	6.049	8.115	7.019	7.055	22.082	84.668	12.623	12.623
2000	131	3.594	3.377	3.602	6.142	2.566	6.242	8.664	11.968	7.724	15.694	15.493	13.386	13.386
2001	124	2.825	3.392	2.844	5.921	3.099	5.784	5.625	10.970	6.211	17.098	32.907	12.621	12.621
2002	116	2.738	2.769	2.885	5.520	2.872	5.535	6.058	7.590	6.563	13.561	9.536	12.581	12.581
2003	119	2.687	4.059	3.187	4.938	3.732	5.338	5.223	11.472	7.373	13.999	26.412	12.344	12.344
2004	126	3.154	4.361	2.960	4.958	3.129	5.121	7.188	10.001	7.069	11.847	14.909	12.219	12.219

Table 1 (continued)

Panel A: Net income, funds from operations, total assets and total equity.													
Year	No. of REITs	Net Income (\$Million)	Fund from Operations (\$Millions)	Total Assets (\$Million)	Total Equity (\$Million)								
2005	128	2,900	3,081	4,686	3,206	4,703	6,890	11,027	7,746	12,881	14,505	11,825	
2006	112	3,532	3,478	3,561	5,045	2,595	4,899	8,125	8,833	9,030	11,956	21,591	12,423
2007	108	3,116	2,893	3,489	5,001	2,831	5,159	7,852	11,987	9,947	20,373	48,426	14,774
2008	105	2,209	3,210	2,079	4,614	3,183	4,507	6,016	9,797	5,886	14,004	13,031	12,760
2009	104	1,068	4,309	0,760	3,815	4,612	3,912	2,247	14,055	1,824	8,633	16,545	9,386
2010	113	0,762	3,752	0,499	3,785	3,930	3,845	0,970	9,520	1,161	8,827	10,597	8,975
2011	116	1,188	3,828	1,691	4,478	2,673	4,746	1,966	9,659	3,842	10,431	7,697	10,786
2012	125	1,681	2,606	2,107	4,644	2,392	5,042	3,514	7,019	4,814	11,246	8,361	11,508
2013	146	1,871	2,743	2,426	4,813	2,502	5,188	3,829	7,741	5,422	11,178	9,169	11,601
2014	157	2,054	3,662	2,913	4,724	3,163	5,482	4,428	12,123	6,537	12,352	12,794	12,309
2015	152	2,260	2,989	2,939	5,163	2,750	5,686	5,411	10,686	6,675	14,054	17,200	12,914
All	3064	2,745	3,779	2,819	5,438	3,328	5,524	5,472	10,219	6,046	13,452	25,235	11,773

We construct our sample mainly from COMPUSTAT data, supplemented by the CRSP/Ziman and EDGAR databases and various internet searches. We restrict each REIT's ROE to fall between -100% to 100% where $ROA = NI/TA$ or $ROA = FFO/TA$ ($ROE = NI/TE$ or $ROE = FFO/TE$) by each sample year. To calculate the Bennett dynamic decomposition between two years, say 1999 and 2000, we need to identify and separate entrants (REITs that entered the industry), exits (REITs that exited the industry or converted to private ownership), and stays (REITs that stayed in the industry). To do so, we matched REIT ID numbers and tickers in our merged database. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in both 1999 and 2000, then the REIT stays in the industry. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 1999, but not in 2000, then the REIT exits. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 2000, but not in 1999, then the REIT enters. Panel A reports for the sample of REITs year-by-year summary statistics on NI, FFO, Total Assets and Total Equity. In Panel B, EW, TATW and TEQW indicate equally weighted, total assets weighted, and total equity weighted, respectively. The EW- and TATW-weighted (TEQW-weighted) ROA (ROE) values follow from eq. 2 and refer to the sample portfolio level ROA or ROE (e.g., for NI-based portfolio ROA in a given sample year = Sum of net income across all sample REITs / Sum of their total assets)

FFO sample are statistically not significant. That is, our FFO sample exhibits the fundamental statistical characteristics of the full sample.

To calculate the dynamic decomposition between two years, say 1999 and 2000, we need to identify and separate entrants (REITs that entered the industry), exits (REITs that exited the industry or converted to private ownership), and stays (REITs that stayed in the industry). To do so, we matched REIT ID numbers and tickers in our merged database. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in both 1999 and 2000, then the REIT stays in the industry. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 1999, but not in 2000, then the REIT exits. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 2000, but not in 1999, then the REIT enters. Table 2 provides the number of REITs for each category for the (i) full NAREIT sample in the industry and (ii) our sample of REITs.

Panels A and B of Fig. 1 compare the *ROA* and *ROE* using NI and FFO between 1989 and 2015; Panels A and B of Fig. 2 compare the ΔROA and ΔROE using NI and FFO between 1989 and 2015. Figure 1 data come from Table 1, Panel B; Fig. 2 data come from our own unreported computations. We note that the *NI ROA* and *FFO ROA* as well as the *NI ROE* and *FFO ROE* move together, although the FFO measures are larger than the NI measures. The changes in the two measures of *ROA* and *ROE* look like a much closer match to the levels data. But, in fact, the correlations of the changes are nearly identical (NI-based correlation = 0.74 and the FFO based correlation = 0.87) to the correlations of the levels data (NI-based correlation = 0.75 and the FFO based correlation = 0.86).

Some compromises, arising from data limitations, have not only shaped the construction of the sample portfolio but also defined the sample period. The first restriction originates from the above-mentioned availability of the FFO data. To compare the results across the NI and FFO measures, the sample portfolio follows from the availability of FFO data.

The second restriction has its roots in the lack of data on REITs that exit from the sample at some point during the study period. Finding (reliable) data and information, such as whether they were in fact conversions or bankrupt entities, on several exits has not been possible. Thus, it will be prudent to interpret with caution the reported empirical results on the “exit” effects from the Bennet dynamic decomposition.

The third restriction pertains to the data frequency, which is annual since publicly available data sources do not provide some of the essential variables pertinent to this study at higher frequencies. Studying annual data raises degrees of freedom concerns, pre-empting the pursuit of some of our research questions, and also puts a lid on some of our other research questions. Nonetheless, we still produce a rich set of results and brand-new evidence on U.S. REITs. To the extent that our Equity REIT sample proxies for the *FTSE NAREIT All Equity Index*, our conclusions also relate to this index’s operating profitability.

Table 2 Evolution of the annual number of sample REITs for the sample period of 1989 to 2015

Time period	All Publicly Traded REITs: No of REITs in each component			Sample REITs: No of REITs in each component		
	Enter	Stay	Exit	Enter	Stay	Exit
1989–1990	1	71	1	1	19	0
1990–1991	20	71	1	16	25	0
1991–1992	4	88	3	2	49	0
1992–1993	55	88	4	36	54	0
1993–1994	47	140	3	43	91	0
1994–1995	14	180	7	8	136	0
1995–1996	8	184	10	6	131	1
1996–1997	27	173	19	25	126	0
1997–1998	23	183	17	16	136	0
1998–1999	7	184	22	4	139	3
1999–2000	5	173	18	4	127	2
2000–2001	6	165	13	5	119	2
2001–2002	7	157	14	5	111	2
2002–2003	10	157	7	7	112	0
2003–2004	21	153	14	14	112	2
2004–2005	13	160	14	11	117	2
2005–2006	4	160	13	3	109	0
2006–2007	3	145	19	3	105	2
2007–2008	2	125	23	0	105	0
2008–2009	2	120	7	2	102	3
2009–2010	12	122	0	10	103	0
2010–2011	9	133	1	9	107	1
2011–2012	11	139	3	10	115	1
2012–2013	28	148	2	23	123	0
2013–2014	18	170	6	14	143	1
2014–2015	20	186	2	16	136	0

We construct our sample mainly from COMPUSTAT data, supplemented by the CRSP/Ziman and EDGAR databases and various interest searches. We restrict each REIT's *ROA* and *ROE* to fall between -100% to 100% . To calculate the Bennet dynamic decomposition between two years, say 1999 and 2000, we need to identify and separate entrants (REITs that entered the industry), exits (REITs that exited the industry or converted to private ownership), and stays (REITs that stayed in the industry). To do so, we matched REIT ID numbers and tickers in our merged database. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in both 1999 and 2000, then the REIT stays in the industry. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 1999, but not in 2000, then the REIT exits. If a REIT ID number or ticker exists in 2000, but not in 1999, then the REIT enters

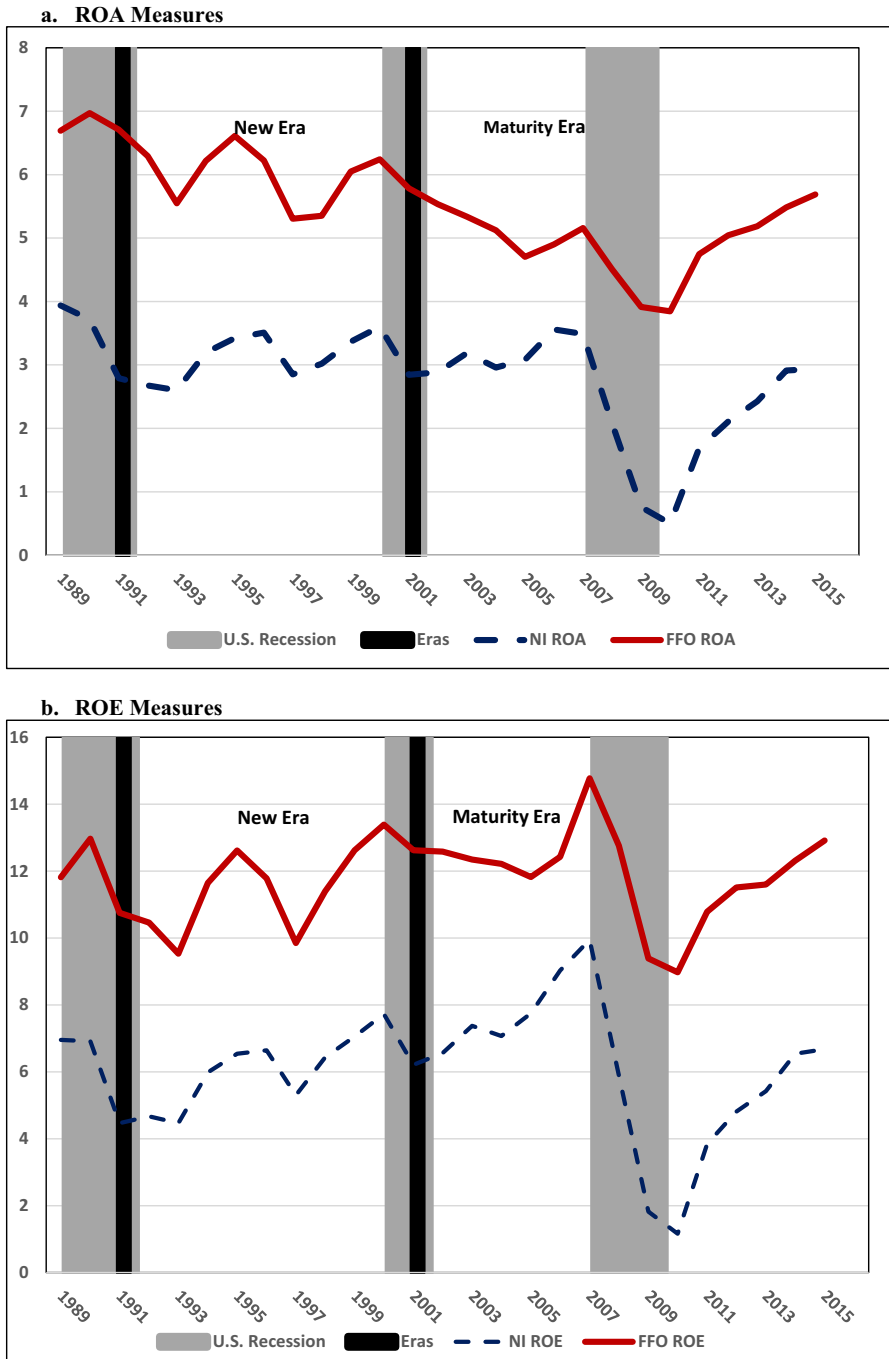


Fig. 1 NI and FFO Measures of ROE and ROA. **a** ROA Measures. **b** ROE Measures. Source: Our own computations. Results are available from the authors upon request

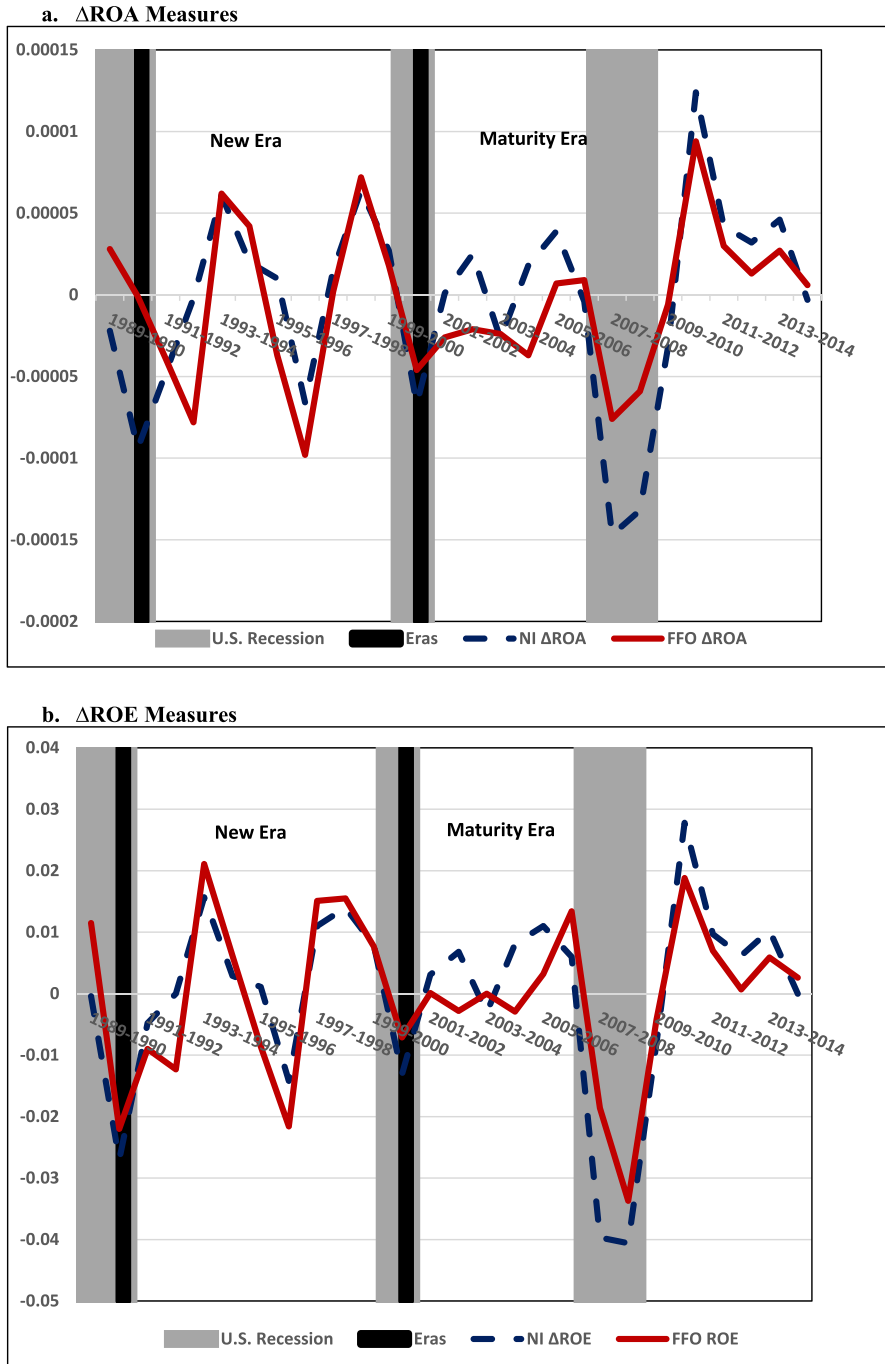


Fig. 2 NI and FFO Measures of ROE and ROA. **a** ROA Measures. **b** ROE Measures. Source: Our own computations. Results are available from the authors upon request

OLS Model Specifications and Expected Empirical Relations

This section reports the OLS results obtained from estimating various specifications and offers discussions of these findings. We note, again, that we need to interpret the reported results on the “exit” component with more caution and care than others as lack of data on sample REITs’ exits and conversions in some of the study years has been one of the constraining factors in undertaking this study.

Own-Lag Models and Empirical Implications

We build the following simple estimation models:

$$DV_t = a + b * (DV_{(t-1)} \text{ or } DV_{(t-2)}) + \varepsilon_t \quad (6.a)$$

where DV_t is either ROA_t , ROE_t , $\Delta ROA_{t,(t-1)}$ or $\Delta ROE_{t,(t-1)}$ of our sample portfolio. We run various OLS specifications of Eq. (6.a) under the NI and FFO metrics. Given the persistent temporal patterns of increase in the number of REITs and their market valuations, we can reasonably expect that this persistence can spill over to the profitability measures in Eq. (6.a).¹²

Remember that limitations in the availability of the FFO data for the sample REITs also restrict the sample period to the annual data between 1989 and 2015. The sharing of variables in $\Delta ROA_{t,(t-1)}$ ($\Delta ROE_{t,(t-1)}$) and its first own lag, $\Delta ROA_{(t-1),(t-2)}$ ($\Delta ROE_{(t-1),(t-2)}$), respectively, in Eq. (6.a) could lead to spurious results. In this connection, the second own lags become an alternative variable in estimating Eq. (6.a). The ΔROA or ΔROE variables constitute flow variables and will be instrumental in extending Eq. (6.a) to the four effects of the Bennet dynamic decomposition, as explained later in the paper.

Holding either NI or FFO constant, portfolio level ROA or ΔROA mainly measure how well the sample firms manage their assets in their balance sheets. Meanwhile, holding either NI or FFO constant, the difference between portfolio level ROA and ROE (or between ΔROA and ΔROE) measure jointly how well sample firms manage their debts. In the presence of statistically significant coefficient estimates of b , examining separately and comparatively the relation between the current and the lagged values across each of these four portfolio-level profitability metrics could reveal whether the observed significance has its roots in the sample firms’ asset or debt management policies or both.

Remember that $ROE = ROA * (TA/TE) = ROA * \text{Leverage Ratio}$, where TA and TE mean total assets and total equity at time t. There are three implications of the (TA/TE) ratio for ROA and ROE:

¹² Eq. (6.a) is consistent in spirit with the weak-form market efficiency tests even though our work does not constitute a test of market efficiency. We use sample REITs’ operating profits, which are not capable of reflecting immediately all publicly available information, since firms produce them under accounting principles. They are not outcomes of market-transactions. We thank a referee for bringing this matter to our attention.

- (i) $(TA/TE) > 1$; if $ROA > 0$, then $ROE > ROA$ or if $ROA < 0$ then $ROE < ROA$;
- (ii) $(TA/TE) = 1$; $ROE = ROA$ irrespective of ROA 's sign;
- (iii) $(TA/TE) < 1$; if $ROA > 0$, then $ROE < ROA$ or if $ROA < 0$ then $ROE > ROA$.

The third case is not likely since $TA < TE$ suggests insolvency of a firm.

Given these relations in (i) and (ii), several OLS runs focus on first the ROA-based and then the ROE-based specifications. This approach allows us to study comparatively the signs, magnitudes and statistical significance levels of the coefficient estimates of b in Eq. (6.a) for ROA and ROE and also to draw their implications about our research questions.

Finally, holding ROA or ROE constant, examining separately and comparatively the empirical relations under each of the NI and FFO metrics can offer evidence on the differential information content of each. In our context, FFO, through the management of depreciation expenses, helps us demonstrate more comprehensively the effects of asset management on REIT returns. To our knowledge, no evidence currently exists on the differential informativeness between NI and FFO at the level of REIT portfolios and in the context of ROA , ROE , ΔROA , and ΔROE . We aim to fill this gap in the literature.

Results From the Own-Lag Estimations

Results in Table 3 reveal that, irrespective of the use of NI or FFO metric, there is a positive and significant relation between the own-lags and the current values of the dependent variables. The coefficient estimates of $L1-ROA$ and $L1-ROE$ under the NI and FFO metrics are positive and significant at the 1% level, respectively. Of the four coefficient estimates of the second own lags, only the FFO-based $L2-ROA$ is significant at the 1% level and positive. So, evidence of significant influence on ROA and ROE of the second lags is rather weak.

Do these results suggest that asset management matters more than debt management? We think so. The magnitudes of the coefficient estimates of the own first lag of ROA (0.70 under NI and 0.76 under FFO) are about the same or greater than those of ROE (0.66 under NI and 0.47 under FFO). The t-statistic values of the coefficient estimates of the own first lag of ROA (5.05 under NI and 6.93 under FFO) are also greater than those of ROE (4.22 under NI and 2.53 under FFO).

Do results in Table 3 suggest that FFO may provide differential information in relation to NI at the portfolio level? Once again, we think so. In our view, the FFO is more comprehensive in measuring asset management contributions to REIT returns and offers a stronger control on asset management effects than NI does. While the magnitude and t-statistic values of the FFO-based coefficient estimates of the own first lag of ROA are greater than those of NI-based ROA, the magnitude and t-statistic values of the FFO-based coefficient estimates of the own first lag of ROE are visibly smaller than those of NI-based ROA. Interestingly, the own second lag estimates exhibit (i) a sign reversal from positive, 0.15 under NI, to negative, -0.18 under FFO, for ROE and (ii) magnitude and statistical significance changes from

Table 3 Own-lags estimation results on ROA, ROE, Change in ROA, and Change in ROE

Variable	ROA		ROE		Change in ROA		Change in ROE	
	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat
	NI-Based							
Intercept	0.0079	0.0192	0.0203	0.0515	-0.0002	-0.0002	-0.0002	0.0005
t-stat	1.95***	3.38*	2.07**	3.95*	-0.19	-0.17	-0.07	0.17
L1 - ROA or ROE	0.7049		0.6596					
t-stat	5.05*		4.22*					
L1 - Chg in ROA or ROE					0.3681		0.3355	
t-stat					1.90***		1.71***	
L2 - ROA or ROE		0.2941		0.1485				
t-stat		1.49		0.71				
L2 - Chg in ROA or ROE						-0.2815		-0.2686
t-stat						-1.43		-1.38
R-Square	0.53	0.09	0.44	0.02	0.14	0.08	0.11	0.08
Adj R-Sq	0.51	0.05	0.41	-0.02	0.10	0.04	0.07	0.04
N	25	24	25	24	25	24	25	24
	FFO-Based							
Intercept	0.0125	0.0282	0.0627	0.1387	-0.0005	-0.0011	-0.0009	-0.0006
t-stat	2.06**	3.28*	2.88**	5.67*	-0.57	-1.21	-0.34	-0.23
L1 - ROA or ROE	0.7614		0.4654					
t-stat	6.93*		2.53*					
L1 - Chg in ROA or ROE					0.2295		0.1406	
t-stat					1.14		0.69	
L2 - ROA or ROE		0.4654		-0.1800				
t-stat		2.99*		-0.87				

Table 3 (continued)

Variable	ROA		ROE		Change in ROA		Change in ROE	
	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat
L2 - Chg in ROA or ROE								
t-stat					-0.5110		-0.4247	
R-Sq	0.68	0.29	0.22	0.03	0.05	0.26	-2.38**	0.21
Adj R-Sq	0.66	0.26	0.18	-0.01	0.01	0.23	-0.02	0.17
N	25	24	25	24	25	24	25	24

The results in this table follow from the OLS runs of this simple estimation model, $DV_t = a + b * (DV_{(t-1)} \text{ or } DV_{(t-2)}) + \varepsilon_t$, where DV_t is either ROA_t , ROE_t , $Change\ in\ ROA_{t,(t-1)}$ or $Change\ in\ ROE_{t,(t-1)}$ of our sample portfolio. We run various specifications of this model under the NI and FFO metrics. Any statistically significant estimate of the coefficient b helps in disentangling debt management effects from asset management effects for the sample portfolio of REITs, defined annually over the 1989–2015 period. We use both the FFO and the NI metrics. The FFO metric captures asset management better than the NI metric. The change variables motivate the Bennet (1920) decomposition method and computing the year-by-year magnitudes of the *within effect*, *between effect*, *entry effect*, and *the exit effect*. *, **, and *** indicate statistical significance at 1%, 5% and 10% levels, respectively

0.29 and insignificant under NI to 0.47 and significant at the 1% level under FFO for ROA.

These comparisons further support asset management's more important contributions to REIT returns, as observed earlier. Yet, FFO's control of the contribution of depreciation expenses to asset management does not render the coefficient estimate of the first lag of ROE, 0.47, any less significant. It retains its significance at the 1% level, suggesting that debt management is likely to matter in spite of the lessened importance of financial distress costs and the absence of incremental value from tax shield benefits.

The results on the ΔROA and ΔROE estimations in Table 3 constitute a prelude for the discussions of the results on the Bennet decomposition effects in the following sections. These results offer some surprises. The NI-based coefficient estimates of the (i) first lags, $L1-\Delta ROA$ and $L1-\Delta ROE$, are positive and significant at the 10% level and (ii) second lags, $L2-\Delta ROA$ and $L2-\Delta ROE$, are insignificant and negative. The FFO-based counterparts of the (i) first lag estimates are positive and insignificant and (ii) second lag estimates reverse, are considerably larger in absolute value, and become significant at the 1% and 5% levels.

Do these results lend support to our findings, arising from the ROA and ROE estimations, that debt management matters and that FFO offers differential information?

Both the NI- or FFO-based coefficient estimates of $L1-\Delta ROA$ or $L1-\Delta ROE$ are probably spurious due to the shared $ROA_{(t-1)}$ or $ROE_{(t-1)}$ with the dependent variables (i.e., either ΔROA or ΔROE). Only the coefficient estimates of FFO-based second-lags, $L2-\Delta ROA$ and $L2-\Delta ROE$, attain significance (at the 1% and 5% levels) and are negative. So, to be on the side of caution, we interpret only these FFO-based results on $L2-\Delta ROA$ and $L2-\Delta ROE$. The statistical significance level and the absolute value of the coefficient estimate of $L2-\Delta ROA$ are larger than their $L2-\Delta ROE$ counterparts. Thus, asset management appears to matter more than debt management for the temporal changes in REITs' operating returns. Debt management maintains its likely relevance even for ΔROA and ΔROE .

The statistical significance changes from those observed for the NI-based estimates to those observed for the FFO-based counterparts support an affirmative answer that FFO contains valuable incremental information relative to NI.

Lagged Bennet Decomposition Effects and Empirical Implications

We build the following estimation models:

$$DV_t = a + \sum_{i=1}^4 (b_i * BDE_{i,t(t-1)}) \text{ or } \sum_{i=1}^4 (b_i * BDE_{i,t(t-2)}) + \varepsilon_t \quad (6.b)$$

where DV_t is either ROA_t , ROE_t , $\Delta ROA_{t,(t-1)}$, or $\Delta ROE_{t,(t-1)}$ and $BDE_{i,t(t-1)}$ or $BDE_{i,t(t-2)}$ are the "within", "between", "entry", and "exit" Bennet decomposition effects. We run various OLS specifications of Eq. (6.b) under the NI and FFO metrics. We infer the

influence of either the asset management or the debt management or both from the statistical significances, signs and magnitudes of the coefficient estimates, b_i .

Any rise in the Bennet effects causes ΔROA and ΔROE to increase. If $BDE_{(t-2)}$ rises then both $\Delta ROA_{(t-1)}$ and $\Delta ROE_{(t-1)}$ increase, implying that both $ROA_{(t-1)}$ and $ROE_{(t-1)}$ also increase. These increases squeeze the $\Delta ROA_{(t)}$ and $\Delta ROE_{(t)}$ to lower values. In sum, a rise in $BDE_{(t-1)}$ increases $\Delta ROA_{(t)}$ and $\Delta ROE_{(t)}$ whereas a rise in $BDE_{(t-2)}$ increases $\Delta ROA_{(t-1)}$ and $\Delta ROE_{(t-1)}$ and then lowers the value of $\Delta ROA_{(t)}$ and $\Delta ROE_{(t)}$. Thus, the coefficient on $BDE_{(t-1)}$ is biased toward a positive value while the coefficient on $BDE_{(t-2)}$ is biased toward a negative value.

How can Eq. (6.b) contribute to our research questions? Our supplementary analyses in this section follow directly from two sections earlier and mainly insert the lags of the four Bennet decomposition effects in lieu of the own lags of DV_t . So, there are at least two likely contributions of estimating Eq. (6.b). Results in Table 3 reveal statistically significant results, suggesting the dominance of asset management over debt management for REITs. An understanding of whether these results originate from (i) improved profitability of individual REITs (the “within” effect) or (ii) shifts of resources from less to more profitable REITs (the “between or reallocation” effect) or (iii) entries of more profitable REITs (the “entry” effect), or (iv) exits and conversions of less profitable REITs (the “exit” effect) or a combination of these effects should be useful to the REITs, investors and policymakers. Further, let’s suppose that all the results in Table 3 were insignificant. Given that, observing any statistically significant coefficient estimates of the lagged Bennet decomposition effects will be highly informative. Such results can unmask relations that may have been washed out in Eq. (6.a) estimations. Further, how the use of NI or FFO affects these results from the Bennet effects is also immediately useful to judge the information content of FFO vis-a-vis NI.

The NI-Based Results on the Bennet Decomposition Effects

Panel A (Panel B) of Table 4 tabulates the NI-based results on ROA and ROE (ΔROA and ΔROE), respectively. In Panel A, the coefficient estimates of the first lags of the “within” effect, LI -within, are positive and significant, at the 1% level, both for ROA and ROE . The coefficient estimates of the first lags of the remaining three Bennet effects are insignificant. The magnitudes of the LI -within coefficient estimates for ROE are slightly larger than their counterparts for ROA . Given these estimation results, the conclusion that both asset management and debt management matter is very reasonable.

In Panel B, while all coefficient estimates of LI -within are positive and significant at the 5% level, all coefficient estimates of LI -entry are negative and significant mainly at the 5% level. LI -exit appears to weakly and negatively affect ΔROE . The magnitudes of the coefficient estimates of LI -within for ΔROA are slightly larger than those for ΔROE . These results for surviving REITs strengthen our inferences that asset management matters more than debt management the sample REITs. Further, the absolute value of the coefficient estimates of LI -entry for ΔROE are larger

Table 4 The NI-based Bennet effect results on *ROA*, *ROE*, *Change in ROA*, and *Change in ROE*

Panel A: Results on <i>ROA</i> and <i>ROE</i>					
NI-based <i>ROA</i>					
Variable	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat
Intercept	0.0272	0.0275	0.0267	0.0273	0.0267
t-stat	20.62*	17.03*	13.66*	16.10*	14.20*
<i>L1</i> -within	0.6774				0.7630
t-stat	3.49*				3.26*
<i>L1</i> -between		-0.8748			0.8232
t-stat		-0.79			0.72
<i>L1</i> -entry			-0.5802		-0.0598
t-stat			-0.59		-0.06
<i>L1</i> -exit				-0.7399	-1.4615
t-stat				-0.20	-0.45
R-Sq	0.35	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.37
Adj R-Sq	0.32	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	0.24
N	25	25	25	25	25
NI-based <i>ROE</i>					
Intercept	0.0590	0.0605	0.0615	0.0589	0.0596
t-stat	19.24*	14.75*	12.23*	14.46*	13.04*
<i>L1</i> -within	0.7508				0.7747
t-stat	3.99*				3.68*
<i>L1</i> -between		-1.0759			0.5337
t-stat		-0.68			0.38
<i>L1</i> -entry			0.7818		0.6716
t-stat			0.57		0.58

Table 4 (continued)

Panel A: Results on ROA and ROE		NI-based ROA	
Variable	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat
<i>L1-exit</i>			
t-stat		-4.2077	-2.6295
R-Sq	0.41	0.01	0.44
Adj R-Sq	0.38	-0.03	0.33
N	25	25	25
Panel B: Results on the Change in ROA and Change in ROE			
NI-based Change in ROA			
Variable	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat	Estimate/t-stat
Intercept	-0.0005	0.0000	0.0000
t-stat	-0.47	-0.01	0
<i>L1-within</i>	0.4023		
t-stat	2.40**		
<i>L1-between</i>			
t-stat		-0.5391	0.4173
<i>L1-entry</i>			
t-stat		-0.62	2.39**
<i>L1-exit</i>			
t-stat		-1.56	1.0487
<i>L2-within</i>			
t-stat		-2.22**	1.23
<i>L2-between</i>			
t-stat		-2.893	-1.642
		-1.00	-2.35**
			-4.279
			-1.76***
			-0.2748
			-1.34
			-0.0472
			-0.05

Table 4 (continued)

Panel A: Results on ROA and ROE		NI-based ROA		NI-based ROE		Change in ROA		Change in ROE	
Variable	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat
<i>L2-entry</i>									
t-stat									
<i>L2-exit</i>									
t-stat									
R-Sq	0.20	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.18	0.05	0.04	0.42	0.18
Adj R-Sq	0.17	0.00	-0.03	-0.05	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.31	0.01
N	25	24	25	24	25	24	25	25	24
Panel B: Results on the Change in ROA and Change in ROE									
NI-based Change in ROE									
Variable	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat	Estimate/ t-stat
Intercept	-0.0007	0.0009	0.0005	-0.0001	-0.0048	-0.0009	-0.0014	0.0003	-0.0072
t-stat	-0.25	0.28	0.15	-0.02	-1.22	-0.21	-0.42	0.1	-1.77***
<i>L1-within</i>	0.4011								
t-stat	2.15**								
<i>L1-between</i>									
t-stat									
<i>L1-entry</i>									
t-stat									
<i>L1-exit</i>									
t-stat									
<i>L2-within</i>									
t-stat									

than their counterparts for ΔROA . This is consistent with the views that new entrants into the REIT industry face some difficulties in accessing the credit market and that debt management exerts more influence on new entrants than asset management does.

The FFO-Based Results on the Bennet Decomposition Effects

Panel A (Panel B) of Table 5 tabulates the FFO-based results on ROA and ROE (ΔROA and ΔROE), respectively. In Panel A, the coefficient estimates of LI -within are positive and significant at the 1% level (1% and 10% levels) for the ROA (ROE) specifications. The coefficient estimates of the remaining three Bennet decomposition effects do not attain any statistical significance on the ROA estimations. While the coefficient estimates of LI -between and LI -exit are negative and statistically significant, at the 5% level in two different ROE specifications, their significance disappears in the ROE specification with all Bennet effects. The magnitudes of the LI -within coefficient estimates for ROA (0.88 and 0.94) are considerably larger than their counterparts for ROE (0.64 and 0.43).

A comparison of the Panel A results in Tables 4 and 5 is in order to study how the use of NI or FFO may affect the results in the ROA and ROE estimations and hence our views. The magnitudes of the coefficient estimates of LI -within are visibly larger in the ROA estimations under the FFO measure, 0.88 and 0.94, than under the NI measure, 0.68 and 0.76. All are significant at the 1% level. Interestingly, the magnitudes of the coefficient estimates of LI -within are visibly smaller in the ROE estimations under the FFO measure, 0.64 and 0.43, than under the NI measure, 0.75 and 0.77. While three out of the four estimates are significant at the 1% level, the one for 0.43 in the combined model specification under the FFO measure attains significance only at the 10% level.

All these results above suggest that NI is rather uninformative in disentangling the effects of debt management on REITs' operating profitability. FFO, however, opens a door to demonstrate that debt management matters, albeit less than asset management does.

Results in Panel B highlight further the differential information content of FFO. In particular, the coefficient estimates of LI -within in the ΔROE specifications differ *starkly* from their counterparts in the (i) ΔROA specifications, reported in the same panel and (ii) NI-based ΔROE specifications in Panel B of Table 4.

In Panel B of Table 5, no coefficient estimate of LI -within is significant in the ΔROE estimations while they are positive and significant, at the 5% and 10% levels, in the ΔROA estimations. While no coefficient estimate of the first lags of the remaining three Bennet decomposition effects attains significance in the ΔROA estimations, the coefficient estimate of LI -between is negative and significant at the 5% level in one of the ΔROE estimations. This significance disappears in the estimation that combines all four Bennet effects. The coefficient estimates of the second lags of three Bennet effects attain significance in the estimation that combines all Bennet effects; they are all negative in the ΔROA estimations. $L2$ -entry also attains

Table 5 The FFO-based Bennet effect results on *ROA*, *ROE*, *Change in ROA*, and *Change in ROE*

Panel A: Results on <i>ROA</i> and <i>ROE</i>	
FFO-based <i>ROA</i>	
Variable	Esti/t-stat
Intercept	0.0536
t-stat	42.13*
<i>LJ</i> -within	0.8848
t-stat	3.36*
<i>LJ</i> -between	-1.3327
t-stat	-1.24
<i>LJ</i> -entry	
t-stat	-1.2030
<i>LJ</i> -exit	
t-stat	-1.27
R-Sq	0.33
Adj R-Sq	0.30
N	25
FFO-based <i>ROE</i>	
Intercept	0.1158
t-stat	54.55*
<i>LJ</i> -within	0.6354
t-stat	4.14*
<i>LJ</i> -between	
t-stat	-1.7661
<i>LJ</i> -entry	
t-stat	-2.34**
Esti/t-stat	0.0530
Esti/t-stat	0.0546
Esti/t-stat	30.14*
Esti/t-stat	34.98*
Esti/t-stat	0.9350
Esti/t-stat	3.07*
Esti/t-stat	1.2313
Esti/t-stat	0.88
Esti/t-stat	-1.3649
Esti/t-stat	-1.22
Esti/t-stat	3.4657
Esti/t-stat	0.62
Esti/t-stat	0.39
Esti/t-stat	0.27
Esti/t-stat	25
Esti/t-stat	0.1196
Esti/t-stat	0.1178
Esti/t-stat	35.42*
Esti/t-stat	47.16*
Esti/t-stat	0.4259
Esti/t-stat	1.76***
Esti/t-stat	-0.767
Esti/t-stat	-0.94
Esti/t-stat	1.0113
Esti/t-stat	1.174
Esti/t-stat	1.17

Table 5 (continued)

Panel A: Results on <i>ROA</i> and <i>ROE</i>		FFO-based <i>ROA</i>	
<i>L1-exit</i>			
t-stat		-7.0656	-2.0814
R-Squ	0.43	-2.35**	-0.61
Adj R-Sq	0.40	0.19	0.48
N	25	0.16	0.37
		25	25
Panel B: Results on the <i>Change in ROA</i> and <i>Change in ROE</i>			
FFO-based <i>Change in ROA</i>			
Variable	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti/t-stat
Intercept	-0.0009	-0.0006	-0.0010
t-stat	-1.04	-0.57	-1.02
<i>L1-within</i>	0.3862		
t-stat	2.09**		
<i>L1-between</i>			
t-stat			-0.9157
<i>L1-entry</i>			-1.36
t-stat			-0.9139
<i>L1-exit</i>			-1.56
t-stat			-3.0093
<i>L2-within</i>			-0.75
t-stat			-0.3147
<i>L2-between</i>			-1.58
t-stat			-0.8184
			-1.12
			-0.0024
			-1.93***
			-2.33***
			0.4018
			1.95***
			0.1981
			0.21
			-0.9506
			-1.25
			-5.1162
			-1.35
			-0.3992
			-2.17**
			-0.5503
			-0.58

Table 5 (continued)

Panel A: Results on <i>ROA</i> and <i>ROE</i>												
FFO-based <i>ROA</i>												
	<i>L2-entry</i>						<i>L2-exit</i>					
Variable	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	
Intercept	-0.0016	0.0006	-0.0020	0.07	0.10	0.05	-1.78					
t-stat	-0.57	0.26	-0.78	0.03	0.06	0.01	-2.12**					
<i>L1-within</i>	0.2376			25	24	24	0.17	0.10	0.02	0.11	0.29	
t-stat	1.20			25	24	24	0.13	0.06	-0.02	0.06	0.15	
<i>L1-between</i>							24	25	25	24	25	
t-stat												
<i>L1-entry</i>												
t-stat												
<i>L1-exit</i>												
t-stat												
Panel B: Results on the <i>Change in ROA</i> and <i>Change in ROE</i>												
FFO-based <i>Change in ROE</i>												
Variable	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	Esti/t-stat	Esti	t-stat	
Intercept	-0.0016	0.0006	-0.0020	0.07	0.10	0.05	-0.0002	-0.0010	-0.0006	-0.0031	0.0009	
t-stat	-0.57	0.26	-0.78	0.03	0.06	0.01	-0.06	-0.35	-0.24	-0.83	0.24	
<i>L1-within</i>	0.2376			25	24	24	0.10	0.02	0.11	0.1846		
t-stat	1.20			25	24	24	0.13	-0.02	0.06	0.61		
<i>L1-between</i>										-1.3995		
t-stat										-1.37		
<i>L1-entry</i>										-0.2347		
t-stat										-0.22		
<i>L1-exit</i>										3.2731		
t-stat										0.76		

Table 5 (continued)

Panel A: Results on <i>ROA</i> and <i>ROE</i>									
FFO-based <i>ROA</i>									
<i>L2-within</i>		-0.4556							-0.4197
t-stat		-2.61*							-1.46
<i>L2-between</i>				1.1094					-0.1106
t-stat				1.26					-0.1
<i>L2-entry</i>								-0.0233	0.2121
t-stat								-0.02	0.2
<i>L2-exit</i>								5.5924	1.4180
t-stat								1.85***	0.35
R-Sq	0.06	0.24	0.15	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.18
Adj R-Sq	0.02	0.20	0.11	0.02	-0.04	-0.05	-0.04	0.10	0.01
N	25	24	25	24	25	24	25	24	25
									24

The results in this table follow from the OLS runs of this simple estimation model, $DV_t = a + \sum_{j=1}^4 (b_j * BDE_{i,t(j)})$ or $\sum_{j=1}^4 (b_j * BDE_{i,t(j-2)}) + \epsilon_t$, where DV_t is either *ROA*, *ROE*, *Change in ROA*, or *Change in ROE*, and the $BDE_{i,t(j)}$ and the $BDE_{i,t(j-2)}$ are the “within”, “between”, “entry”, and “exit” effects, as obtained from Bennet (1920), of our sample portfolio. We run various specifications of this model under the net income (NI) and funds from operations (FFO) metrics. Any statistically significant estimate of the coefficient b_j helps in disentangling debt management effects from asset management effects for the sample portfolio of REITs, defined annually over the 1989–2015 period. For details of the Bennet (1920) dynamic decomposition method, see an appendix. *, **, and *** indicate statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively

significance, at the 5% level, in a univariate ΔROA estimation. Meanwhile, (i) no coefficient estimate of the second lags of Bennet effects attain significance in the ΔROE estimation that combines all Bennet effects and (ii) *L2-within* and *L2-exit* attain significance at the 1% and 5% levels in univariate model estimations.¹³ All these stark differences between the ΔROA and ΔROE results in Panel B indicate that asset management matters even for the temporal changes in REITs' operating profitability and that debt management either matters in a direction opposite to asset management's or does not matter.

As a final check, a comparison of the Panel B results in Tables 4 and 5 is in order. Overall, the FFO-based results on ΔROE differ visibly, considerably and divergently from their NI-based counterparts in Table 4. These differences further solidify our main findings.

Concluding Comments

Asset and debt management are two essential managerial tasks in any firm and have been a topic of rich academic and policy debates at least ever since MM's (1958) path-breaking result that, under a set of highly restrictive assumptions, including the absence of corporate taxes, and when the no-arbitrage condition is invoked, debt management is not capable of creating any incremental value above and beyond the value created by asset management. In this paper, we study empirically whether debt management matters for the operating profitability of a portfolio of REITs. Two empirical tools help in undertaking this study. First, Bennet's (1920) dynamic decomposition method dissects the temporal changes in the operating profitability of a REIT portfolio into contributions from (i) surviving REITs, (ii) REITs that exit from the industry and (iii) REITs that enter the industry. Second, operating profitability measures are ROA - a measure mostly of asset management - and ROE - an amalgam measure of both asset and debt management. The net income (NI) and the funds from operations (FFO) metrics serve as alternatives in calculating the ROA and ROE measures. FFO, in particular, captures the effect(s) of depreciation and amortization expenses, hence provides more comprehensive information for asset management policies.

We find that asset management is the main driver of value creation for REITs. The Bennet decomposition effects along with the comparative uses of the NI and FFO metrics in estimations reveal that while the effects of debt management on REITs' operating profitability cannot be ruled out, the direction of its effects appears to be mainly opposite to that of asset management. It is our view that our results call for renewed and further investigations into the optimal capital structure question for REITs. We also find that the "within" Bennet effect, indicating improved

¹³ A rise in the "within" effect at (t-1) under a positive sign means an increase, for example, in ΔROE and, hence, a dominance of $ROE(t)$ over $ROE(t-1)$ and vice versa. So, a positive "within" effect at (t-1) associates with an increase in $ROE(t)$.

profitability of surviving REITs, leads all remaining Bennet effects and that the FFO appears to contain additional valuable information and is useful even at the portfolio level.

To our knowledge, this paper applies the Bennet (1920) dynamic decomposition approach for the first time in the literature on REITs and possibly even on Real Estate. So, we would like to offer two ideas that may attract attention for future research. First, Xu and Ooi (2018) distinguish “bad” asset growth from “good” asset growth and find, using the Data Envelopment Analysis technique, that 44.5% of REITs’ year-on-year asset growth associate with ensuing decreasing returns to scale. (i.e., events are suboptimal). Instead of using temporal change in ROE or ROA, as we do, one may introduce year-on-year asset growth into Xu and Ooi’s (2018) work and examine whether the Bennet decomposition effects offer any enriched and refined set of results from a portfolio perspective. Second, obtain first the periodic estimates of the Bennet decomposition effects on the stock returns of a portfolio that covers a typical announcement effect, such as the seasoned equity offerings in Ghosh et al. (2013). A second stage analysis may examine what factors, such as post-issuance operating performance metrics in Ghosh et al. (2013), explain the estimates of each of the Bennet decomposition effects.

Appendix

Alternative Dynamic Decompositions¹⁴

At time t , the ROE (R_t) equals net income (NI_t) divided by total equity (E_t). That is,

$$R_t = \frac{NI_t}{E_t} \quad (7)$$

where $NI_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} NI_{i,t}$, $E_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} E_{i,t}$, and n_t is the number of REITs. After substitution and rearrangement, we get

$$R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t}, \quad (8)$$

where $r_{i,t}$ equals the ratio of net income to equity for REIT i in period t and $\theta_{i,t}$ equals the i -th REIT’s share of portfolio/industry equity. We want to decompose the change in portfolio/industry ROE into “within,” “between,” “entry,” and “exit” effects. The change in portfolio/industry ROE equals the following:

$$\Delta R_t = R_t - R_{t-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t-1}. \quad (9)$$

¹⁴ Jeon and Miller (2005) provide details of the derivations. These decomposition methods can be also applied at the industry level that includes all the firms in an industry between (t-1) and (t).

The number of REITs in period (t) equals the number of REITs in period (t-1) plus the number of REIT entrants minus the number of REIT exits.¹⁵ That is,

$$n_t = n_{t-1} + n_t^{enter} - n_{t-1}^{exit}, \tag{10}$$

Rearranging terms in Eq. (10) yields

$$n_t - n_t^{enter} = n_{t-1} - n_{t-1}^{exit} = n_{t/t-1}^{stay}; \text{ or} \tag{11}$$

$$n_t = n_{t/t-1}^{stay} + n_t^{enter}, \text{ and } n_{t-1} = n_{t/t-1}^{stay} + n_{t-1}^{exit} \tag{12}$$

Thus, Eq. (9) adjusts as follows:

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_t^{enter}} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t-1} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}^{exit}} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t-1}. \tag{13}$$

Case 1: Existing Dynamic Decomposition - Laspeyres Difference Index.

While we already separate the “stay” terms from the “entry” and “exit” terms, we now need to decompose the “stay” terms into the “within” and “between” effects. Bailey et al. (1992) and Haltiwanger (1997) weight the “within” effect with the individual firm’s portfolio/industry share of equity in the initial year.¹⁶ That is, we need to add and subtract $\sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t-1}$ from the right-hand side of Eq. (13). After some manipulation, we get

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,\Delta t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,\Delta t} \theta_{i,t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_t^{enter}} r_{i,t} \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}^{exit}} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t-1}, \tag{14}$$

where $\theta_{i,\Delta t} = \theta_{i,t} - \theta_{i,t-1}$ and $r_{i,\Delta t} = r_{i,t} - r_{i,t-1}$.

Then, we can rewrite Eq. (14) as follows:

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,\Delta t} \theta_{i,t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t/t-1}^{stay}} (r_{i,t} - R_{t-1}) \theta_{i,\Delta t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_t^{enter}} (r_{i,t} - R_{t-1}) \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}^{exit}} (r_{i,t-1} - R_{t-1}) \theta_{i,t-1} \tag{15}$$

where we evaluate the “between,” “entry,” and “exit” effects relative to the lagged portfolio/industry ROE (R_{t-1}). For example, the “between” effect sums the differences between each REIT’s ROE and the portfolio’s/industry’s ROE, multiplied by that REIT’s change in equity share. In this case, we evaluate the REIT’s ROE in period (t) and the industry’s ROE in period (t-1).

Case 2: Alternative Dynamic Decomposition - Paasche Difference Index.

We decompose the change in industry ROE by weighting the “within” effect by period-t individual REIT’s share of portfolio/industry equity.¹⁷ In other words, we

¹⁵ Consider two time periods (t-1) and (t). We classify REITs as staying, if a REIT exists in both (t-1) and (t); entering, if a REIT does not exist in (t-1) but does in (t); and exiting, if a REIT exists in (t-1) but not in (t).

¹⁶ Diewert (2005) calls this the Laspeyres (Laspeyres, 1871) difference index.

¹⁷ Diewert (2005) calls this the Paasche (Paasche, 1974) difference index.

need to add and subtract $\sum_{i=1}^{stay} r_{i,t-1} \theta_{i,t}$ to Eq. (13). After necessary manipulations, the final form equals:

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t}^{stay}} r_{i,\Delta t} \theta_{i,t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t-1}^{stay}} (r_{i,t-1} - R_t) \theta_{i,\Delta t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t}^{enter}} (r_{i,t} - R_t) \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t-1}^{exit}} (r_{i,t-1} - R_t) \theta_{i,t-1}, \tag{16}$$

where we evaluate the “between,” “entry,” and “exit” effects relative to the current portfolio/industry ROE (R_t).¹⁸

*Case 3: Bennet Dynamic Decomposition.*¹⁹

The Bennet dynamic decomposition computes the arithmetic average of *Case 1* and *Case 2* as follows:

$$\Delta R_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t-1}^{stay}} r_{i,\Delta t} \bar{\theta}_{i,t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t-1}^{stay}} (\bar{r}_i - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,\Delta t} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t}^{enter}} (r_{i,t} - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,t} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{i,t-1}^{exit}} (r_{i,t-1} - \bar{R}) \theta_{i,t-1}. \tag{17}$$

where $\bar{\theta}_i = (\theta_{i,t} + \theta_{i,t-1})/2$, $\bar{r}_i = (r_{i,t} + r_{i,t-1})/2$, and $\bar{R}_i = (R_t + R_{t-1})/2$.

The Bennet dynamic decomposition includes four effects. The “within” effect equals the summation of each REIT’s change in ROE weighted by its average share of portfolio/industry equity between period (t-1) and period (t). The “between (reallocation)” effect equals the summation of the difference between each REIT’s ROE and the portfolio/industry average ROE between period (t-1) and period (t), multiplied by the change in that REIT’s share of portfolio/industry equity. The “entry” effect equals the summation of the difference between each entering REIT’s ROE in period (t) and the portfolio/industry average ROE between period (t-1) and period (t) times the entering REIT’s share of portfolio/industry equity in period (t). Finally, the “exit” effect equals the summation of the difference between each exiting REIT’s ROE in period (t-1) and the portfolio/industry average ROE between period (t-1) and period (t), multiplied by the exiting REIT’s share of portfolio/industry equity in period (t-1).

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Declarations

Conflict of interest None.

¹⁸ Note, also, that for the between effect, the lagged ROE for each REIT replaces the current ROE between Eqs. (15) and (16).

¹⁹ Bailey et al. (1992) provide an algebraic decomposition of an industry’s total factor productivity (TFP) growth into the “within,” “between,” and “net-entry” (entry minus exit) effects. Extending Bailey et al. (1992), Haltiwanger (1997) separates the effects of firm entrants into and exit from the industry. Moreover, he also divides the “between” effect into two components – the “share” and “covariance” effects. Stiroh (2000) further decomposes Haltiwanger’s (1997) method by dividing firms into those that acquired other firms and those that did not. Finally, the Bennet (1920) dynamic decomposition combines Bailey et al.’s (1992) and Haltiwanger’s (1997) dynamic decompositions into a simple average and eliminates Haltiwanger’s (1997) “covariance” effect as it emerges because of the method of decomposition. Thus, the weighting of the four effects all employ simple averages of the initial (t-1) and final (t) year weights. See Diewert (2005) for additional details. Jeon and Miller (2005) also provide the derivation.

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