Scientific Press International Limited

## Does Client Importance Matter to Book-Tax Differences?

Yi-Hsing Liao<sup>1</sup>, Pih-Shuw Chen<sup>2</sup>, Teng-Sheng Sang<sup>3</sup> and Chia-Hsuan Tseng<sup>4</sup>

### Abstract

This paper examines whether audit client importance affects book-tax differences, a measure that can potentially reflect discretion in audit client's action in financial and tax reporting choices. We use Taiwan data as client importance can be measured not only at the firm level but the individual partner level as well as the audit team level. The multiple regression analyses show that client importance is positively correlated with the magnitude of book-tax difference under each of our client importance measures, suggesting that auditors compromise reporting quality by allowing economically important clients to choose relatively more opportunistically reporting practices. As a result, book-tax differences are larger for these clients.

**JEL classification numbers:** M41. M42

**Keywords:** Audit client importance, Audit quality, Financial reporting quality, Book-tax differences.

Article Info: *Received:* June 9, 2020. *Revised:* June 27, 2020. *Published online:* July 1, 2020.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chung Yuan Christian University, Taiwan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> National Chiavi University, Taiwan. Corresponding author.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Chung Yuan Christian University, Taiwan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Ming Chuan University, Taiwan.

### 1. Introduction

This paper addresses the question whether economically important audit clients have larger book-tax differences. The economic theory of auditor independence suggests that auditors' incentives to compromise their independence are related to client importance (DeAngelo, 1981). According to the theory's prediction, the larger the client in an auditor's portfolio, the greater economic bonding between the two, thus the stronger should be the incentive that the auditor has to retain that client. Under the circumstances, auditors might compromise their independence and hence threatens the quality of audit and financial reporting.

Researchers have investigated the issue empirically but not yet arrived at a consistent conclusion (e.g. Reynolds and Francis, 2001; Craswell, Stokes, and Laughton 2002; Li, 2009; Chen, Sun, and Wu, 2010; Sharma, Sharma, and Ananthanarayanan, 2011; Chi, Douthett, and Lisic, 2012). A number of papers use non-audit fees as a measure of the economic bonding between auditor and client to test whether non-audit fees impair auditor independence and financial reporting quality, and the results are still mixed (e.g. Frankel, Johnson and Nelson, Nelson, 2002; Ashbaugh, LaFond and B Mayhew, 2003; Chung and Kallapur, 2003; DeFond, Raghunandan and Subramanyam, 2002; Geiger and Rama, 2003; Firth, 2002; Basioudis et al., 2008). Since the extant research remains inconclusive, more is needed to untangle the relationship between client importance, audit quality, and financial reporting quality. We examine the question by using a measure that can potentially reflect management discretion infinancial and tax reporting choices, book-tax differences (BTDs).

The book income is for financial reporting purpose under the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) to capture the economics of transactions in providing useful information to decision makers, such as equity investors and contracting parties. The taxable income is based on tax rules to determine the corporation's tax liabilities. Differences between a firm's book income and its taxable income arise from at least two sources. One source for book-tax differences comes either from differences inherent to the two income reporting systems or from sound tax planning. Another source of book-tax differences stems from firms' aggressive financial or tax reporting practices. Although effective managers are expected to take advantage of legal tax planning techniques when appropriate, unusually large differences or inconsistent patterns between book and taxable income potentially indicates that the company is engaging aggressive reporting activities, such as financial statement manipulation, tax avoidance, or illegal tax shelters (Mills, 1998; Phillips, Pincus and Rego, 2003; Wilson, 2009; Hanlon and Heitzman, 2010; Blaylock, Shevlin and. Wilson., 2012; Noga and Schnader, 2013). Building on extant literature, we propose that the stronger the economic bonding between auditor and client, the greater the incentive for the auditor to compromise independence and hence causing a lower quality of audit and financial reporting. Consequently, auditors might allow economically significant clients to choose relatively more aggressive financial reporting or tax practices or both, thereby resulting in larger book-tax differences for these clients. However, reputation concern might be a mitigating factor that constrains auditors from sacrificing their audit quality for economically important clients (Chi et al., 2012). Thus, even if the economic benefit of a specific client is large, the auditor maintains the quality of audit by restricting client's opportunistic financial or tax reporting choices, which might result in an insignificant gap between book and taxable income.

We use a sample from Taiwan including firm-year observations from 2006 to 2012 with available data to estimate book-tax differences, which is calculated by pre-tax book income minus taxable income. Pre-tax book income is acquired from consolidated financial statements. The taxable income is difficult to obtain and most existing studies determine this number by an estimate based on current income tax expense divided by the top statutory tax rate(e.g. Mills, 1998; Hanlon and Shevlin, 2005; Manzon and Plesko, 2002; Lev and Nissim, 2004). Motivated by challenges on potential measurement errors of book-tax difference estimation, this study applies a more specific method to compute book-tax differences in an attempt to overcome such problematic proxy measures. We follow Chen (2009) to manually compute taxable income by a suggested formula (outlined in section 3.1), which has been proved to be subject to fewer measurement errors. We collect tax-related items that are necessary to determine current income tax payable from parent-only financial statements which are audited by the Taiwan tax authority to determine individual company's taxable income. Then we approximate taxable income by grossing up the firm's income tax payable which is then divided by the corresponding corporate tax rate. This method provides a less biased estimate of taxable income for two reasons. First, taxable income is decided for an individual company. Dual presentation of financial statements in Taiwan enables a collection of tax-related information for an individual firm through parent-only financial statements. An inference of taxable income from the parent-only financial statements should be more reasonable compared to an estimate based on consolidated financial statements. Second, Chen (2009)'s formula itself is more precise in providing specific taxable income for a company compared to the rough estimate employed by most prior studies (e.g. Mills, 1998; Hanlon et al., 2005; Manzon and Plesko, 2002; Lev and Nissim, 2004).

The Taiwanese setting is also distinct because two engagement audit partners are required to sign on the audit report. First signing partner is the one who is actually responsible for the audit while second signing partner merely reviews the audit completed by the first signing partner. Our client importance measure can, therefore, be determined not only at audit firm level but at individual partner level—the first and the second signing partner level. Client importance estimated at auditor level is a more appropriate measure, especially in smaller and more competitive markets (Francis, 2002). In addition, we combine the two engagement audit partners as a team to assess client importance at the audit team level. Since audit fee information is not available in Taiwan, we follow Reynolds and Francis (2002) and Chi et al. (2012) to proxy client importance based on sales revenues which have been shown to be highly correlated with audit fees (Craswell et al., 1995). We also use client's

total assets as another surrogate of audit fees as the fees are often based on client's total assets (Chen et al., 2010).

The empirical analyses show that audit client importance is positively correlated with the magnitude of book-tax difference for each of our client importance measures. We interpret this result as evidence that auditors compromise the reporting quality by allowing economically important clients to choose relatively more opportunistically financial or tax reporting practices or both, thereby resulting in larger book-tax differences for these clients. Since prior studies document a significant relation between earnings quality and book-tax differences (e.g. Phillips et al., 2003; Mills and Newberry, 2001; Hanlon, 2005). The effect of client importance on repoeting quality as proxied by book-tax differences might be a result of its effect on earnings quality. In other words, client importance might be showing an indirect effect on book-tax differences as a result of poor earnings quality. We, therefore, follow a method applied by Lee and Chang (2007) in an attempt to capture this indirect effect. The empirical results show that client importance exhibits an indirect effect on book-tax differences as a result of poor earnings quality.

This study has implications for research in audit and tax. Extant evidence on the association between client importance and the quality of audit and financial reporting remains mixed. The studies employ discretionary accruals, the issuance of modified audit opinion, and financial statement restatements as the proxy for quality of audit or financial reporting quality (Li, 2009; Chen et al., 2010; Sharma et al., 2011; Chi et al., 2012). Our study extends the literature by investigating the association between client importance and book-tax difference, a number that can potentially reflect discretion in audit client's action in not only financial but tax reporting choices. In addition, because of the unique audit requirements in Taiwan, we are able to adopt measures of client importance at individual partner level and audit team level. Our study also contributes to the growing tax avoidance literature by showing a role of audit quality in book-tax differences. Our results are based on a large and extensive sample of firms listing in Taiwan, which gives us greater confidence that they are generalizable to a large subset of publicly traded firms.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature and develops the hypothesis. Section 3 describes the research design and data source. Section 4 presents the data description and empirical results. Section 5 provides concluding remarks and limitations of this study.

### 2. Related Literature and Hypothesis Development

### 2.1 Audit client importance and financial reporting quality

The economic theory of auditor independence suggests that auditors' incentives to compromise their independence are related to client importance, the ratio of quasi-rents specific to the client divided by all other quasi-rents (DeAngelo, 1981). According to the theory's prediction, the larger the client in an auditor's portfolio, the greater economic bonding between the two, thus the stronger should be the incentive that the auditor has to retain that client. Under the circumstances, auditors

might compromise their independence and thereby threatens the integrity of financial reporting.

Researchers have investigated the issue empirically but not yet arrived at a consistent conclusion. One stream of research hypothesizes that non-audit services increase the economic bonding between auditors and clients and therefore impair auditor independence and lower the quality of audit and financial reporting. Another stream of studies focuses on economic bonding provided by total fees. Extant evidence from the U.S. is mixed, with the majority of papers show no significant association between client importance and the quality of audit and financial reporting. Frankel et al. (2002) document significant positive associations between non-audit fees and discretionary accruals, and conclude that higher non-audit fees impair auditor independence. However, Ashbaugh et al. (2003) and Chung and Kallapur (2003) fail to find any such evidence. In contrast, Reynolds and Francis (2001) find that client importance is negatively associated with absolute abnormal accruals, and positively associated with the issuance of going concern reports for Big N clients. Nevertheless, DeFond et al. (2002) and Geiger and Rama (2003) find no association between non-audit fees and the auditors' going concern opinion decision. Li (2009) find that the association between client importance and issuance of going concern reports varies over time. Specifically, she finds that client importance is not significantly associated with the issuance of going concern opinions in the pre-SOX period, but there is a positive association post-SOX. Using earnings restatement as a measure of financial reporting quality, Raguhunandan, Read and Whisenant (2003) and Kinney, Palmrose and Scholz (2004) find no association between non-audit fees and restatements. However, Huang, Mishra and Raghunandan (2007) find that economic bonding lowers the quality of financial reporting.

Evidence from other countries is also inconclusive. In the U.K., a number of studies find a negative effect of economic importance on financial reporting quality with some exceptions. Firth (2002) and Basioudis et al. (2008) found non-audit fees are associated with biased auditor reporting decisions, while Lennox (1999) fails to find such evidence. Ferguson et al. (2004) document a positive association between nonaudit fees and earnings management. Studies in Australia also show mixed results. Wines (1994), Sharma (2001), and Sharma and Sidhu (2001) document that nonaudit fees are negatively correlated with the issuance of a going concern modification. In contrast, Craswell et al. (2002) show that non-audit fees do not bias auditor's opinion decision. In New Zealand, Hay, Knechel and Li (2006) find that non-audit fees do not affect auditors' going concern opinion decisions. But Sharma et al. (2011) document a positive association between client importance and earnings management and the association is more pronounced when the oversight by audit committee is weak. Chen et al. (2010) use data from China and find that the propensity to issue modified audit opinion is negatively correlated with client importance when regulatory institutions are relatively weak. However, as the institutions have been improved, the propensity to issue modified audit opinion became positively correlated with client importance. Chi et al. (2012) employ data from Taiwan where audit partners are required to sign on audit reports. They failed to find any evidence that Big N audit partners compromise their independence for economically important clients. But the positive relation between client importance and abnormal accruals existed in non-Big N auditors.

### 2.2 Book-tax difference and its implications

Firms report book income and taxable income each year. The book income is for financial reporting purpose under the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) to capture the economics of transactions in providing useful information to decision makers, such as equity investors and contracting parties. The taxable income is determined by tax rules to decide the corporation's tax liabilities. The book-tax difference (BTD) is defined as the differences between book income and taxable income.

BTDs can be either temporary or permanent. The temporary differences arise because of different requirements for the timing of recognizing income and expense items. Therefore, temporary differences generate future taxable (future deductible) amounts which increase deferred tax liabilities (assets) and incur a deferred tax expense (benefit). As a result, temporary differences occur over several years, ending when the differences reverse. Permanent differences are items included in one measure of income but never included in the other. The permanent differences exist only for the tax year in which they occur, thereby having no effects on future income taxes.

While both permanent and temporary BTDs are often simply the result of mechanical differences in reporting systems for book and tax purposes, they can also reflect management judgment. Effective managers are expected to take advantage of legal tax planning techniques when appropriate, however, unusually large differences or inconsistent patterns between the book and taxable income can potentially indicate that there are firm-level risks arisen from aggressive reporting for book or tax purpose (Noga and Schnader, 2013).

Extant research documented a growing gap between book and taxable income (e.g. Manzon and Plesko, 2002; Mills et al., 2002; Boynton et al., 2005)<sup>5</sup>. The evidence suggests that companies are engaging in reporting practices which might cause a deterioration of reporting quality. For example, Hanlon et al. (2005) finds that firms with large temporary BTDs have less persistent accruals and earnings. Phillips et al. (2003) show that firms report small positive earnings have a larger deferred tax expense, confirming that these firms are managing financial reporting income upward to meet the target but not reporting the additional income for tax purposes. Blaylock et al. (2012) find that firms with large positive temporary BTDs, which likely arise from earnings management, have less persistent earnings and accruals. Hanlon and Heitzman (2010) synthesize the extant literature and suggest that BTDs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> For example, Boynton et al. (2005) show that total book-tax differences taken from corporate U.S. tax returns increased from \$43 billion in 1993 to \$313 billion in 1999, and that after dipping to (\$49) billion in 2001, the book-tax gap surged back to \$436 billion in 2003.

contain information about inferior accounting earnings quality.

Another stream of research uses book-tax difference as a general measure of tax aggressiveness or tax sheltering. For example, Mills (1998) finds that firms with large book-tax differences are more likely to be audited by the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) and have larger proposed audit adjustments. She interprets this result as a positive relation between book-tax differences and aggressive tax planning activities. Wilson (2009) reports that book-tax differences are larger for firms accused of engaging in tax shelters than for a matched sample of non-accused firms. Evidence from these studies suggests that book-tax differences reveal some information about tax avoidance or tax sheltering.

### 2.3 Hypothesis development

Much of the evidence in the extant literature suggests that more extreme BTDs are associated with earnings management and low earnings persistence (Manzon and Plesko, 2002; Phillips et al., 2003; Hanlon, 2005; Ayers, Laplante and McGuire, 2009). Researchers have also linked the earnings management activities and financial reporting quality to client importance (Reynolds and Francis, 2001; Li, 2009; Chen et al., 2010; Sharma et al. 2011; Chi et al., 2012). Building on the prior literature, we try to connect client importance with BTDs.

BTDs can reflect discretions in managers' actions in financial and tax reporting choices and therefore BTDs are likely to contain information of accruals manipulation in pre-tax and tax accounts. For financial reporting purpose, managers often desire to report high levels of earnings to investors and therefore are more likely to manage earnings upward (e.g. Healy, 1985; DeFond and Jiambalvo, 1994; Barth, Elliott and Finn, 1999; Burgstahler and Dichev, 1997). For tax reporting purpose, managers usually desire to report low levels of income to the tax authority by utilizing tax planning or illegal tax sheltering activities. When a firm has a large book-tax difference, the book and taxable incomes are very different. This might be a result of the firm's manipulation of one or both of the income measures.

According to the theory of auditing, the client can impose real costs to the incumbent auditor by terminating the bilateral relationship, therefore, the incumbent auditor might sacrifice independence in order to retain the client and earn quasirents in future periods. Consequently, the stronger the economic bonding between the incumbent auditor and the client, the greater the incentive for the auditor to compromise their independence and, therefore, deteriorate the quality of audit and financial reporting (DeAngelo, 1981). The related empirical evidence is documented by Frankel et al. (2002), and Huang et al. (2007). Based on the studies aforementioned, we conjecture that auditors might allow economically significant clients to choose relatively more aggressive financial reporting or tax practices or both, thereby resulting in larger book-tax differences for these clients<sup>6</sup>. However, a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Earnings might be managed through tax accounts (Dhaliwal et al., 2004; Hanlon and Heitzman, 2010). For example, Desai (2003) provides examples of firms engaging in tax shelters where the main objectives are to increase accounting earnings.

number of studies fail to find evidence of auditors compromising independence and reporting quality for economically important clients (Ashbaugh et al., 2003; Chung and Kallapur, 2003; Chi et al., 2012). Chi et al. (2012) explain that it is the reputation concern for big N auditors not compromising their audit quality for economically significant clients. Thus, even if the economic benefit of a specific client is large, the auditor maintains their audit quality by constraining client's opportunistic financial or tax reporting choices, which might result in an insignificant gap between book and taxable income. Based on the above discussion, the effect of client importance on book-tax differences is unclear. Stated in the null form, we propose the main hypothesis:

**H1.** Client importance is not associated with client's book-tax differences.

### 3. Data and Research Design

### 3.1 Measures of book-tax difference and client importance

### 3.1.1 Measuring Book-tax Difference

Our dependent variable of interest is the book-tax difference (BTD), which is calculated by pre-tax book income minus taxable income. Pre-tax book income is acquired from financial statements. The taxable income is usually unavailable and most existing studies determine this number by an estimate based on current income tax expense divided by the top statutory tax rate (e.g. Mills, 1998; Hanlon et al., 2005; Manzon and Plesko, 2002). Chen (2009) proposed an estimate of taxable income based on features of Taiwan's tax system. They proved that the method suffers less measurement error and provides a relatively unbiased estimate of taxable income when using financial statement data to infer taxable income. Thus, we employ Chen (2009)'s method to approximate taxable income for our sample firms. The method involves two steps.

### Step 1: Calculate current income tax payable<sup>:</sup>

Current income tax payable = current income tax expense (benefit) – (+) deferred tax expense (benefit) – (+) adjustment for prior income tax expense underestimate (overestimate) – separate taxation amount – a 10% of surtax on undistributed earnings – supplementary payment on minimum tax burden + actual investment tax credit in current year + amount of prior investment tax credit under the flow-through method used in current year (or amount of investment tax credit under the deferred method amortized in current year). If the current income tax payable is lower than zero, then taxable income is zero, and the computation is terminated. Otherwise, the current income tax payable is carried forward to step 2.

Step 2: Revert current income tax payable to taxable income:

For firm-years prior to 2010:

If current income tax payable is less than NT\$10,714, then taxable income = (current income tax payable  $\div$  0.5) + 50,000; If current income tax payable is equal to or greater than NT\$10,714 and less than or equal to NT\$15,000,

then taxable income = current income tax payable  $\div$  0.15; If current income tax payable is greater than NT\$15,000, then taxable income = (current income tax payable + 10,000)  $\div$  0.25.

For firm-years in and after  $2010^7$ :

If current income tax payable is less than NT\$30,909, then taxable income = (current income tax payable  $\div$  0.5) + 120,000; If current income tax payable is greater than NT\$30,909, then taxable income =current income tax payable  $\div$  0.17.

To derive taxable income for our sample firms, we first identify tax-related items, such as non-taxable permanent differences/taxable temporary differences and deferred income tax assets/liabilities, from parent-only financial statements and its footnotes<sup>8</sup>. We put these items into the formula in Chen (2009) to determine current income tax payable. Then we approximate taxable income by grossing up the firm's income tax payable which is later divided by the corresponding corporate tax rate. This method provides a less bias estimate of taxable income for two reasons. First, taxable income is decided for each individual company. Dual presentation of financial statements in Taiwan enables a collection of tax-related information for an individual company through parent-only financial statements. An inference of taxable income from the parent-only financial statements should be more reasonable compared to an estimate from consolidated financial statements. In addition, the estimate can be verified by linking tax return data to parent-only financial statement data which is helpful in checking the computation process. Second, Chen (2009)'s formula itself is more precise in providing specific taxable income for a company compared to the rough estimate employed by many prior studies (e.g. Mills, 1998; Hanlon et al., 2005; Manzon and Plesko, 2002; Lev and Nissim, 2004).

Next, we obtain the book-tax difference (BTD) by using pre-tax book income minus the estimated taxable income. We use the natural logarithm of the absolute value of book-tax difference (ABSBTD) because both large positive (book income in excess of taxable income) and large negative (book income less than taxable income) book-tax differences provide indications about lower financial reporting quality (Hanlon, 2005). We also report results for the signed book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets (SBTD).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The corporate income tax law §5 of Taiwan was amended and enacted in 2010. The amendments include the following statements. First, a corporation is exempted from income tax charge if its taxable income is less than NT\$120,000. Second, if a corporation's annual income is greater than NT\$120,000, a tax rate of 17% is applied to it total taxable income. But its income tax payable should not be greater than the half of the portion of taxable income in excess of NT\$120,000. Thus, if taxable income is between NT\$120,000 and NT\$181,818, then current income tax payable = (taxable income – 120,000) × 0.5. If taxable income is greater than NT\$181,818, then current income tax payable = taxable income× 0.17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> In Taiwan, companies prepare not only the consolidated financial statement but also parent-only statements. Since business entities file income tax return individually, the Taiwan tax authority audits parent-only financial statements to determine individual company's taxable income. Therefore, it is appropriate to infer taxable income form parent-only financial statements.

### 3.1.2 Measuring Client Importance

We use Taiwan data to test our hypothesis. This data is distinct because two audit partners are required to sign on the audit report. In this way, we can measure client importance not only at the audit firm level but also at the partner level. Client importance measured at individual auditor level is a more appropriate measure, especially in smaller and more competitive markets (Francis, 2002). In Taiwan, an audit report shows names of the two engagement audit partners<sup>9</sup>. First signing partner is the one who is actually in charge of the audit while the second signing partner usually reviews the audit completed by the first signing partner. Our client importance measure can, therefore, be separately determined at two partner level the first and the second signing partner level. In addition, we measure client importance at the audit team level by combing the two engagement audit partners as a team. Since audit fee information is not available in Taiwan, we follow Francis (2002) and Chi et al. (2012) to measure client importance based on sales revenues which have been shown to be highly correlated with audit fees (Craswell et al., 1995). We also use client's total assets as another surrogate to measure client economic importance because audit fees are sometimes based on client's total assets (Chen et al., 2010).

In sum, our independent variable of interest, client importance, is proxied by client sales revenue and client total assets at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the audit firm level. The combinations yield eight surrogates for client importance. The first set of client importance measures is proxied by client sales revenue. CPA1\_R is client importance measured at the first signing partner level, which is computed by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first signing partner. CPA2\_R is client importance assessed at the second signing partner level, which is computed by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the second signing partner. TEAM R is client importance calculated at the audit team level, which is computed by the natural logarithm of client sales divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the two engagement partners. FIRM\_R is client importance at the audit firm level, which is computed by the natural logarithm of client sales divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the audit firm. The second set of client importance surrogates is based on client total assets, also resulting in four different measures determined at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the audit firm level (CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_A).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> According to the Regulations Governing Approval of Certified Public Accountants to Audit and Attest to the Financial Reports of Public Companies, the financial report of a public company shall be jointly audited and attested to by two or more practicing certified public accountants (CPAs) of a joint CPA firm or incorporated CPA firm pursuant to Article 15 of the Certified Public Accountant Act.

### 3.2 Empirical Model

## 3.2.1 Modeling the association between client importance and book-tax differences—Direct effect

To test our hypothesis, we specify the following model to associate client importance and book-tax differences (BTDs).

$$BTD = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 CI + \alpha_2 SIZE + \alpha_3 LEV + \alpha_4 ROA + \alpha_5 DEP + \alpha_6 BAD + \alpha_7 IFI + \alpha_8 GSA + \alpha_9 GSI + \alpha_{10} PON + \alpha_{11} IMR + \varepsilon$$
 (1)

BTD represents the absolute value of book-tax differences (ABSBTD). We also consider the signed BTDs divided by beginning total assets (SBTD). CI is client importance measured at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the firm level based on either client's sales revenue (CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R) or total assets (CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_A), respectively.

Following prior research, we include several control variables (Chen, 2009 and Hanlon et al., 2012). Chen (2009) finds that the larger the firm the more resources for the firm to engage in tax planning activities. So we use SIZE, the natural logarithm of client's total assets, to control for firm size effects. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. The impact of debt on BTD is twofold. The tax-exempt interest causes permanent differences. The funding pressure resulted from settlement might also induce the firm to reduce its taxable income in order to decrease tax burden. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. More profitable firms might have stronger incentive to reduce tax expenditure by using tax planning activities. We also include several variables to control for the effects of Taiwan institutions and tax regulations on BTDs. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. This variable is included because assets that are eligible to use accelerated depreciation methods might generate lower taxable income in the early stage but higher in the later years. The effect of depreciation expense on BTD is unclear, hence we do not predict DEP's sign. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. The recognition requirement of bad debt expense under the tax law is more stringent, which might result in higher taxable income and hence lower BTDs. So BAD is expected to be negatively correlated to BTD. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. Investment revenue and loss is excluding from the computation of taxable income under the integrated income tax system in Taiwan, therefore, a large net investment income may further broaden the magnitude of BTDs. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. The effects of GSA and

GSI's on BTD are similar to that of IFI<sup>10</sup>.PON is the number of years being public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

### 3.2.2 Controlling for sample self-selection bias

Our measure of taxable income is based on data on the parent-only financial statements. If the necessary data to estimate taxable income is unavailable, the company is certainly excluded from our sample. Thus, our empirical analyses might subject to self-selection problem due to the fact that the sample merely includes companies whose book-tax differences are able to be determined. To address this self-selection bias issue, we conduct the two-stage analysis in Heckman (1979) by using all public firms in Taiwan from 2006 to 2012. In the first stage, we model the likelihood of making a reasonable estimate of book-tax differences on the basis of several firm-level characteristics using equation (2). An Inverse Mills ratio derived from equation (2), i.e. the first stage model or the selection model, is then included in equation (1), i.e. the second-stage model or the outcome model, which associates client importance and book-tax differences. The first stage probit model is as follows.

BTD\_D = 
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{SIZE} + \beta_2 \text{LEV} + \beta_3 \text{ROA} + \beta_4 \text{DEP} + \beta_5 \text{BAD} + \beta_6 \text{IFI} + \beta_7 \text{GSI} +$$
  
 $\beta_8 \text{GSA} + \beta_9 \text{PON} + \beta_{10} \text{BIG} + \nu$  (2)

BTD\_D equals to 1 if BTD can be estimated, and otherwise 0. The nine controls (SIZE, LEV, ROA, DEP, BAD, IFI, GSI, GSA, PON) are the same with those in equation (1). An additional variable (BIG) is included in equation (2). BIG equals 1 if the firm is audited by a big 4 auditor, otherwise 0. According to Liao, Kai and Seng, (2016), if firms are audited by big 4 auditors, the accessibility of tax related items in estimating book-tax differences is higher. Therefore, auditing by big 4 auditors is an additional exogenous variable in determining the availability of BTDs. But a big 4 auditor is not proved to have an influence on the magnitude of BTD by extant studies, thereby is not included in equation (1), i.e. the outcome model.

## 3.2.3 Controlling for the relation between book-tax differences and earnings quality—Indirect effect

We directly test the connection between client importance (CI) and the magnitude of client's book-tax differences (BTD) through equation (1). Yet, prior studies document a significant relation between book-tax differences and earnings quality (e.g. Phillips et al., 2003; Mills and Newberry, 2001; Hanlon, 2005). The effect of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> According to the income tax law, gains derived from the securities transactions are exempt from tax while losses are not accounted. Income from land transactions are also tax free, while losses are not accounted.

client importance, i.e. auditor independence, on audit quality as proxied by booktax differences might be a result of its effect on earnings quality. In other words, client importance might be showing an indirect effect on book-tax differences as a result of poor earnings quality. We, therefore, follow a method applied by Lee and Chang (2007) in an attempt to capture this indirect effect. The models are as follows.

$$ABSDA = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 CI + \gamma_2 SIZE + \gamma_3 LEV + \gamma_4 GROWTH + \gamma_5 OCF + \gamma_6 EXPE + \epsilon$$
(3)  

$$BTD = \delta 0 + \delta 1CI + \delta 2ABSDA + \delta 3SIZE + \delta 4LEV + \delta 5ROA + \delta 6DEP + \delta 7BAD + \delta 8IFI + \delta 9GSA + \delta 10GSI + \delta 11PON + \epsilon$$
(4)

Equation (3) captures the effect of client importance (CI) on absolute discretionary accruals (ABSDA), a proxy for earning quality. CI is client importance as proxied by client sales revenue and total assets. ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of firm performance (Kothari, Leone and Wasley, 2005). Two control variables, SIZE and LEV, have the same definitions as those in equation (1). Firm size (SIZE) can capture omitted variables in the process of estimating discretionary accruals (Becker, DeFond, Jiambalvo and Subramanyam, 1998 and Klein, 2002). Leverage (LEV) is used to control for the effect of debt on earnings manipulation (DeFond and Jiambalvo, 1994; Dechow, Sloan and Sweeney, 1996). GROWTH is net sales growth rate. Growing companies usually have more volatile earnings and can possibly result in greater discretionary accruals (Klein, 2002; Ghosh and Moon, 2005). OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets and is expected be to negatively correlated to discretionary accruals (Dechow et al., 1995 and Becker et al. 1998). EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items and is used to control for the effect of extreme performance on discretionary accruals (e.g. Bartov, F. Gul and Tsui, 2001; Klein, 2002). Next, we include both CI and ABSDA in equation (4) in an attempt to model the aforementioned indirect effect.

By observing regression results of both equation (3) and (4), we can draw inferences about the indirect effect. If  $\gamma_1$  is significantly positive, client importance (CI) increases the magnitude of earnings management (ABSDA). Under this situation, if  $\delta_2$  is also significantly positive, client importance (CI) lowers audit quality as proxied by BTDs through inferior earnings quality as proxied by the magnitude of discretionary accruals (ABSDA). This is consistent with our prediction that auditors might allow economically significant clients to choose relatively more aggressive financial reporting practices, thereby leading to larger discretionary accruals and further resulting in greater book-tax differences for these clients. In contrast, if  $\gamma_1$  is insignificant, client importance (CI) does not influence the magnitude of earnings management (ABSDA). And if  $\delta_2$  is also insignificant, client importance (CI) does

not affect book-tax differences (BTD) through lower earnings quality (ABSDA). Since we also consider signed BTD, we rerun the indirect effect models with signed discretionary accruals (SDA) and signed book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets (SBTD) in equation (5) and (6).

$$SDA = \eta_0 + \eta_1CI + \eta_2SIZE + \eta_3LEV + \eta_4GROWTH + \eta_5OCF + \eta_6EXPE + \varepsilon$$
 (5)

SBTD = 
$$\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 \text{CI} + \lambda_2 \text{DA} + \lambda_3 \text{SIZE} + \lambda_4 \text{LEV} + \lambda_5 \text{ROA} + \lambda_6 \text{DEP} + \lambda_7 \text{BAD} + \lambda_8 \text{IFI}$$
  
+  $\lambda_9 \text{GSA} + \lambda_{10} \text{GSI} + \lambda_{11} \text{PON} + \epsilon$  (6)

#### 3.3 Data Source

The sample includes firm-year observations of non-financial Taiwanese public companies from 2006 to 2012. Financial data is obtained from Taiwan Economic Journal database (TEJ). We collect tax-related items that are necessary to infer taxable income from parent-only financial statements and its footnotes. An observation is dropped if it cannot provide sufficient data to approximate its taxable income. Except for data used in taxable income computation, all financial data is acquired from consolidated financial statements. Observations with missing values in measuring client importance and other variables in all our models are dropped. Sample selection is summarized in Table 1, which shows a final sample of 7,941 firm-years.

**Table 1: Sample selection** 

Firm-years of all public firms	11,656
Firm-years from financial and insurance companies	(358)
Observations without sufficient data to calculate current income tax	(3,031)
payable in step 1	
Missing financial data in measuring control variables	(326)
Total firm-year of observations	7,941

### 4. Results and Discussions

### 4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation analyses

Table 2 reports descriptive statistics for all variables. The mean absolute value of book-tax differences (ABSBTD) is 0.0427 and the mean signed book-tax differences (SBTD) is 0.0331. On average, book income is higher than taxable income in our sample, consistent with the conjecture that managers often desire to report higher levels of financial income and lower levels of taxable income. The first set of client importance measures is based on client sales revenue at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the audit firm level (CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, and FIRM\_R) and their means (medians) are 0.1026 (0.0653), 0.1061 (0.0624), 0.0691 (0.0146), and 0.0207 (0.0022),

respectively. The distributions show slightly skewed to the right. The second set of client importance measures is proxied by client total assets at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the audit firm level (CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, and FIRM\_A) and their means (medians) are 0.1011 (0.0641), 0.1046 (0.0614), 0.0606 (0.0110), and 0.0203 (0.0021), respectively. The distributions also show a positive skew. The two sets of client importance measures are similar in their values and distributions. On average, a client represents about 10% of an audit partner's client portfolio and 6% of an audit team's client portfolio. If we look at client importance at the firm level, the client represents only about 2% of an audit firm's client portfolio. The two discretionary accruals, ABSDA and SDA, are somewhat skewed to the right either.

**Table 2: Descriptive statistics** 

		1 abie 2: Descr	ipuvė stausucs	i	
	Average	Median	Std	Min	Max
	E	Book-tax differenc	e measures (BTD	)	
ABSBTD	0.0427	0.0277	0.0484	0.00000248	0.3995
SBTD	0.0331	0.0217	0.0554	-0.3457	0.3995
		Client importan	ce measures (CI)		
CPA1_R	0.1026	0.0653	0.1310	0.0198	1.0000
CPA2_R	0.1061	0.0624	0.1424	0.0197	1.0000
TEAM_R	0.0691	0.0146	0.1542	0.00000797	1.0000
FIRM_R	0.0207	0.0022	0.0855	0.0007	1.0000
CPA1_A	0.1011	0.0641	0.1300	0.0196	1.0000
CPA2_A	0.1046	0.0614	0.1417	0.0195	1.0000
TEAM_A	0.0606	0.0110	0.1455	0.00001000	1.0000
FIRM_A	0.0203	0.0021	0.0847	0.0010	1.0000
	•	Discretiona	ry Accruals		
ABSDA	0.0720	0.0523	0.0734	0.0000304	0.7625
SDA	0.0120	0.0110	0.1021	-0.7625	0.7008
	•	Control '	Variables		
SIZE	15.0213	14.8418	1.3414	11.4639	21.2631
LEV	0.3463	0.3377	0.1565	0.0051	0.9548
ROA	0.0807	0.0669	0.0627	-0.0893	0.4889
DEP	0.0228	0.0136	0.0271	0.0000	0.1991
BAD	0.0009	0.0000	0.0037	-0.0055	0.1186
IFI	0.0181	0.0045	0.0444	-0.1603	0.5670
GSA	0.0013	0.0000	0.0135	-0.2035	0.6885
GSI	0.0021	0.0000	0.0124	-0.0541	0.4405
PON	10.0986	9.0000	8.3861	1.0000	51.0000
IMR	0.0621	0.0453	0.0650	0.0000	0.6282
GROWTH	0.0800	0.0531	0.2647	-0.9914	0.9995
OCF	0.0876	0.0774	0.1083	-0.7675	0.8724
EXPE	0.0467	0.0298	0.0582	0.00000640	0.8961
N= 7,941					
A D C DEED 1 11 1			1100 0000		

ABSBTD is the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the book-tax differences. SBTD is the value of book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets. CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). SDA is signed discretionary accruals. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology. GROWTH is net sales growth rate. OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets. EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items.

Table 3 presents the correlation coefficients of variables. In general, BTDs are positively correlated with client importance as proxied by client sales revenue and client total assets at the first and the second signing partner level, the audit team level, and the audit firm level. The results indicate that economically important clients usually have larger book-tax differences, which is consistent with our prediction that client importance affects the magnitude of book-tax differences. Discretionary accruals (ABSDA, SDA) are positively correlated with BTDs, suggesting that the aforementioned indirect effects might exist. We attempt to capture this possible indirect effect through equation 3, 4, 5, and 6. The correlations between BTDs and control variables are generally as our expectations. Concerning the correlations between independent variables, in most cases, the correlation coefficients show low values. A collinearity diagnosis shows the variance inflation factor (VIF) values of all the independent variables are below 10, suggesting that no potential multicollinearity problems exist.

332 Yi-Hsing Liao et al.

**Table 3: Correlation analysis** 

	ABSBTD	SBTD	CPA1_R	CPA2_R	TEAM_R	FIRM_R	CPA1_A	CPA2_A	TEAM_A	FIRM_A	ABSDA	SDA	SIZE	LEV	ROA	DEP	BAD	IFI	GSA	GSI	PON	IMR	GROWTH	OCF	EXPE
ABSBTD	1.00	0.83***	0.04***	0.02	0.07***	0.02*	0.04***	0.02*	0.07***	0.02**	0.22***	0.10***	0.09***	-0.01	0.61***	-0.05***	0.00	0.47***	0.08***	0.10***	0.03***	0.00	0.01	0.17***	0.30***
SBTD		1.00	0.05***	0.02**	0.08***	0.02*	0.05***	0.02**	0.08***	0.02**	0.15***	0.17***	0.04***	-0.03***	0.64***	-0.04***	0.03***	0.41***	0.08***	0.11***	-0.02***	0.05***	0.09***	0.21***	0.37***
CPA1_R			1.00	0.62***	0.06***	0.69***	1.00***	0.62***	0.61***	0.69***	0.08***	0.10***	0.08***	0.06***	0.02*	-0.11***	-0.03**	0.19***	0.05***	0.10***	0.09***	-0.03***	-0.25***	-0.62***	0.02*
CPA2_R				1.00	0.59***	0.67***	0.61***	1.00***	0.60***	0.67***	0.05***	0.08***	-0.09***	0.09***	0.18***	-0.04***	0.05***	0.05***	0.03***	0.08***	-0.11***	0.15***	0.39***	-0.08***	0.35***
TEAM_R					1.00	0.60***	0.60***	0.58***	0.93***	0.59***	0.08***	0.13***	0.01	0.04***	0.00	-0.04***	0.00	0.00	0.03***	0.01	0.06****	0.10***	0.01	-0.11***	0.08***
FIRM_R						1.00	0.69***	0.67***	0.61***	1.00***	0.08***	0.08***	0.01	0.04***	0.00	-0.03***	0.00	0.00	0.03***	0.01	0.06***	0.10***	0.01	-0.11***	0.08***
CPA1_A							1.00	0.61***	0.62***	0.69***	0.08***	0.10***	0.02	0.04***	-0.01	-0.02***	0.00	-0.02	0.01***	0.01	0.06***	0.09***	0.00	-0.10***	0.03***
CPA2_A								1.00	0.60***	0.67***	0.05***	0.08***	0.02	0.04***	-0.02	-0.02*	0.00	-0.02	0.01	0.02	0.06***	0.09***	0.00	-0.10***	0.03**
TEAM_A									1.00	0.62***	0.09***	0.15***	-0.03***	0.03***	-0.01	-0.02**	0.01	0.00	0.03***	0.01	0.02*	0.12***	0.01	-0.11***	0.07***
FIRM_A										1.00	0.08**	0.08***	-0.03***	0.03***	-0.01	-0.02**	0.01	0.00	0.03***	0.01	0.02*	0.11***	0.01	-0.11***	0.07***
ABSDA											1.00	-0.06***	0.35***	0.13***	0.02*	-0.03**	-0.01	0.06***	0.03**	0.01	0.17***	-0.03***	0.00	-0.13***	0.04***
SDA												1.00	0.33***	0.12***	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	0.05***	0.04***	0.03**	0.20***	-0.03***	0.00	-0.15***	0.04***
SIZE													1.00	0.11***	-0.02	0.05***	-0.08***	0.18***	0.01	0.01	0.45***	-0.46***	-0.03**	-0.04***	-0.12***
LEV														1.00	-0.09***	-0.03**	0.06***	-0.05***	0.11***	-0.03***	0.02*	0.18***	0.02	-0.16***	0.03***
ROA															1.00	0.03***	0.02*	0.31***	0.03***	0.06***	-0.15***	0.08***	0.06***	0.46***	0.37***
DEP																1.00	-0.02*	-0.14***	-0.02**	-0.02*	-0.11***	0.04***	0.04***	0.26***	0.07***
BAD																	1.00	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.08***	0.15***	0.01	0.01	0.07***
IFI																		1.00	0.00	-0.01	0.08***	-0.07***	0.00	-0.04***	0.07***
GSA																			1.00	0.00	0.07***	-0.03***	0.06***	-0.04***	0.03***
GSI																				1.00	0.05***	-0.02**	0.03**	-0.05***	0.10***
PON																					1.00	-0.39***	-0.02**	-0.13***	-0.09***
IMR																						1.00	0.04***	0.02	0.19***
GROWTH																							1.00	-0.10***	0.28***
OCF																								1.00	0.11***
EXPE																									1.00

### 4.2 Regression Analyses

### 4.2.1 The association between client importance and book-tax differences-Direct effect

Table 4 Panel A presents multiple regression results of client importance (CI) on the absolute book-tax difference (ABSBTD). The coefficient of CI as measured by CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R and FIRM\_R are 0.0105 (p-value = 0.0012), 0.0074 (p-value = 0.0127), 0.0119 (p-value < 0.00001), and 0.0116 (p-value = 0.0232), respectively. Each measure of client importance is significantly positively correlated with ABSBTD at 1% or 5% level, suggesting that economically important clients have larger book-tax differences. We further compare the coefficient on each of our client importance measure, CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, and FIRM\_R. The significance of CPA1\_R is higher than that of CPA2\_R. CPA1\_R is client importance measured at the first signing partner level, the auditor who is actually in charge of and takes responsibility for the audit. The second signing partner usually reviews the audit completed by the first signing partner. Economic bonding between a specific client and the first signing partner is relatively stronger and is likely to offer a powerful incentive for the partner to compromise their independence. Thus, client importance determined at the first signing partner level shows a stronger relation with the magnitude of book-tax difference. Additionally, the significance of TEAM\_R is higher than that of FIRM\_R. Economic benefit from a specific client is more important for the audit team than for the whole firm.

Results of control variables are generally as expected. SIZE is insignificant in all regressions. LEV has significantly positive estimated coefficient in all equations, which is consistent with our prediction that the existence of debt is likely to create book-tax differences. ROA also displays a positive relation with ABSBTD, implying that more profitable firms have larger book-tax differences. This is in line with our prediction that more profitable firms might have stronger incentive to reduce tax expenditure by using sound tax planning activities, thereby causing a greater magnitude of book-tax difference. DEP is negatively correlated to ABSBTD at 5% level in the four models. Our sample shows a negative relation between depreciation expense and book-tax difference. BAD is significantly positive correlated with ABSBTD in all equations, inconsistent with our prediction. IFI is significantly positive at 1% level in each of the regressions. This result indicates that the higher the net investment income, the lower the taxable income, which further broadens the magnitude of BTD. This outcome is rational under the tax system of Taiwan since investment revenue and loss is excluding from the computation of taxable income. The coefficients of GSA and GSI's are all significantly positive at 1% level. As our expectation, the effects of GSA and GSI on book-tax differences are close to that of IFI. PON is positively correlated with ABSBTD. This result implies the longer the firm is publicly traded, the larger the book-tax differences. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio and is significantly positively correlated to ABSBTD at 1% level in each model. The significance of IMR suggests

that residuals in the selection model and the outcome model are correlated and the effect of self-selection bias on book-tax difference is properly controlled.

Table 4 Panel B reports the regression results when client importance measure is based on client's total assets. The coefficient of CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A and FIRM\_A is 0.0016 (p-value = 0.0003), 0.0083 (p-value = 0.00567), 0.0168 (p-value < 0.00001), and 0.0129 (p-value = 0.0122), respectively. The results are similar to the those in table 4 when client importance is proxied by client's sales revenue. Compared to client importance assessed at the second signing partner level (CPA2\_A), the client importance determined at the first signing partner level (CPA1\_A) remains to exhibit a stronger relation with the magnitude of the booktax difference (ABSBTD). Client importance measured at audit team level (TEAM\_R) still displays greater significance with ABSBTD than the entire audit firm (FIRM R).

Overall, the results of multiple regression analyses presented in table 4 are almost identical. Client importance is positively correlated with the magnitude of book-tax difference for each of our client importance measures. We interpret this result as evidence that auditors compromise the financial reporting quality by allowing economically important clients to choose relatively more aggressive financial or tax reporting practices or both, thereby resulting in larger book-tax differences for these clients. We also conduct analyses using the signed book-tax differences and the results are reported in Table 5 Panel A and B. The results are similar to those in Table 4.

Table 4: The association between client importance (CI) and the absolute book-tax differences (ABSBTD)

Panel A Client importance (CI) is measured by client sales revenue

	1 41	ici A Chem	importance (	`			iiuc		
				Dependent va	riable = ABSBT	D			
				Client importa	nce measures (C	CI)			
	CPA1	_R	CPA2	2_R	TEAN	/I_R	FIRM_R		
	Coefficient p-value		Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	
Intercept	-0.0052	0.3712	-0.0050	0.3802	0.0030	0.6134	0.4758	0.3749	
CI	0.0105***	0.0012	0.0074**	0.0127	0.0119***	< 0.0001	0.0116**	0.0232	
SIZE	0.4758	0.9934	0.0000	0.9966	-0.0005	0.2095	0.0000	0.9227	
LEV	0.0050**	0.0142	0.0050**	0.0140	0.0046**	0.0250	0.0050**	0.0135	
ROA	0.4381***	< 0.0001	0.4383***	< 0.0001	0.4374***	< 0.0001	0.4385***	< 0.0001	
DEP	0334**	0.0339	-0.0342**	0.0297	-0.0320**	0.0419	-0.0345**	0.0283	
BAD	0.2696**	0.0157	0.2666**	0.0169	0.2642**	0.01783	0.2659**	0.0171	
IFI	0.2605***	< 0.0001	0.2606***	< 0.0001	0.2606***	< 0.0001	0.2599***	< 0.0001	
GSA	0.1409***	< 0.0001	0.1422***	< 0.0001	0.1409***	< 0.0001	0.1412***	< 0.0001	
GSI	0.3125***	< 0.0001	0.3125***	< 0.0001	0.3121***	< 0.0001	0.3126***	< 0.0001	
PON	0.0003***	< 0.0001	0.0003***	< 0.0001	0.0003***	< 0.0001	0.0003***	< 0.0001	
IMR	0.0246*	0.001	0.0255***	0.00	0.0233***	0.0020	0.0258**	0.0006	
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4775		0.4772		0.4779		0.4771		

\* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSBTD is the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the book-tax differences. CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

Panel B Client importance (CI) is measured by client total assets

	1 411	iei B Chent in				otal assets			
			Depe	ndent variab	ole = ABSBTD				
			Client	t importance	measures (CI)				
	CPA	1_A	CPA2	2_A	TEAN	1_A	FIRM_A		
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	
Intercept	-0.0051	0.3692	-0.0050	0.37993	0.0046	0.4396	-0.0051	0.3745	
CI	0.0116***	0.0003	0.0083***	0.00567	0.0168***	< 0.00001	0.0129**	0.0122	
SIZE	-6.2733	0.9872	-1.7486	0.99646	-0.0006	0.1303	3.8299	0.9224	
LEV	0.0050**	0.0139	0.0050**	0.01374	0.0045**	0.0264	0.0050**	0.0134	
ROA	0.4381***	< 0.00001	0.4384***	< 0.00001	0.4376***	< 0.00001	0.4385***	< 0.00001	
DEP	-0.0334**	0.0337	-0.0342**	0.02947	-0.0335**	0.0331	-0.0344**	0.0286	
BAD	0.2706**	0.0153	0.2672**	0.01664	0.2687**	0.0159	0.2664**	0.0169	
IFI	0.2605***	< 0.00001	0.2607***	< 0.00001	0.2608***	< 0.00001	0.2599***	< 0.00001	
GSA	0.1406***	< 0.00001	0.1421***	< 0.00001	0.1394***	< 0.00001	0.1410***	< 0.00001	
GSI	0.3122***	< 0.00001	0.3122***	< 0.00001	0.3090***	< 0.00001	0.3125***	< 0.00001	
PON	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	
IMR	0.0243***	0.00133	0.0253***	0.00081	0.0219***	0.0037	0.0256	0.0006	
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4776		0.4773		0.4788		0.4772		

\* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSBTD is the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the book-tax differences. CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

Table 5: The association between client importance (CI) and signed book-tax differences (SBTD)
Panel A Client importance (CI) is measured by client sales revenue

				Depender	nt variable = S	BTD		
			(	Client impo	rtance measu	res (CI)		
	CPA1	_R	CPA2	_R	TEA	M_R	FIRM_R	
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value
Intercept	-0.0299***	< 0.0001	-0.0298***	< 0.0001	-0.0218***	0.0016	-0.0298***	< 0.0001
CI	0.0161***	0.0000	0.0108***	0.0014	0.0117***	0.0004	0.0147***	0.1844
SIZE	0.0005***	0.2368	0.0005	0.2275	0.0000	0.9291	0.0005	0.9227
LEV	0.0110***	< 0.0001	0.0110***	< 0.0001	0.0106***	< 0.0001	0.0111***	< 0.0001
ROA	0.4527***	< 0.0001	0.4531***	< 0.0001	0.4522***	< 0.0001	0.4534***	< 0.0001
DEP	-0.0145	0.4140	-0.0159	0.3717	-0.0142	0.4252	-0.0164	0.3551
BAD	-0.0556	0.6591	-0.0604	0.6324	-0.0641	0.6112	-0.0618	0.6246
IFI	0.3847***	< 0.0001	0.3849***	< 0.0001	0.3846***	< 0.0001	0.3838***	< 0.0001
GSA	0.1439***	< 0.0001	0.1460***	< 0.0001	0.1450***	< 0.0001	0.1448***	< 0.0001
GSI	0.1439***	< 0.0001	0.3419***	< 0.0001	0.3420***	< 0.0001	0.3422***	< 0.0001
PON	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001
IMR	0.0005	0.4769	0.0077	0.3624	0.0067	0.4295	0.0086	0.31389
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4766		0.4759		0.4761		0.4757	

\* p < 0.10, \*\*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SBTD is the value of book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets. CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

Panel B Client importance (CI) is measured by client total assets

		nei b ene	in importanc	` ′	iicasurcu by c		155015						
	Dependent variable = SBTD												
				Client imp	ortance measur	es (CI)							
	CPA1	_A	CPA2	_A	TEAM	_A	FIRM_A						
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value					
Intercept	-0.0299***	< 0.0001	-0.0298***	< 0.0001	-0.0195***	0.0043	-0.0298	< 0.0001					
CI	0.0173***	< 0.0001	0.0118***	0.0005	0.0178***	< 0.0001	0.0160***	0.0060					
SIZE	0.0005	0.2388	0.0005	0.2305	-0.0001	0.8199	0.0005	0.1842					
LEV	0.0110***	< 0.0001	0.0111***	< 0.0001	0.0105***	< 0.0001	0.0111***	< 0.0001					
ROA	0.4528***	< 0.0001	0.4532***	< 0.0001	0.4524***	< 0.0001	0.4534***	< 0.0001					
DEP	-0.0146	0.4097	-0.0160	0.3686	-0.0155	0.3831	-0.0164	0.3572					
BAD	-0.0543	0.6665	-0.0596	0.6368	-0.0594	0.6376	-0.0612	0.6276					
IFI	0.3847***	< 0.0001	0.3849***	< 0.0001	0.3848***	< 0.0001	0.3838***	< 0.0001					
GSA	0.1435***	< 0.0001	0.1458***	< 0.0001	0.1432***	< 0.0001	0.1446***	< 0.0001					
GSI	0.3414***	< 0.0001	0.3416***	< 0.0001	0.3386***	< 0.0001	0.3421***	< 0.0001					
PON	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001					
IMR	0.0058	0.4976	0.0075***	0.3779	0.0049***	0.5652	0.0084	0.3246					
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4767		0.4761		0.4770		0.4758						

\* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SBTD is the value of book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets. CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. GSI is gain or loss on disposal of assets divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

### 4.2.2 The association between client importance and book-tax differences-Indirect effect

Table 6 shows the indirect effects of client importance on book-tax differences, i.e. the regression outcomes of equation (3), i.e. stage one, and equation (4), i.e. the stage two. In Table 6 Panel A, we present the results of equation (3) which models the relation between client importance (CI) and discretionary accruals (ABSDA), a proxy for earning quality. Client importance (CI) in this table is proxied by client sales revenue. The coefficient of CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R and FIRM\_R are 0.0309 (p-value = 0.00001), 0.0205 (p-value = 0.00159), 0.0496 (p-value < 0.00001), and 0.0572 (p-value < 0.00001), respectively. Every client importance surrogate is significantly positively correlated with ABSDA at 1% level, suggesting that economically important clients usually have larger discretionary accruals.

The other variables in equation (3) are generally as our prediction. SIZE is negatively correlated with ABSDA, suggesting that larger firms have smaller discretionary accruals. Leverage (LEV) is used to control for the effect of debt on earnings manipulation. The coefficient of LEV is positive, consistent with prior studies that firms might manipulate earnings in avoiding a violation of debt covenant (DeFond and Jiambalvo, 1994; Dechow et al., 1996). GROWTH is significantly positive correlated to ABSDA. It is perhaps that growing firms usually have more volatile earnings, thereby resulting in larger discretionary accruals. OCF is as expected to be significantly negative correlated to discretionary accruals. EXPE is used to control for the effect of extreme performance on discretionary accruals. The extreme performance usually widens the dimension of discretionary accruals. Our results are coherent with prior studies, that is, firm performance affects the magnitude of discretionary accruals.

Table 6 Panel B reports the outcome of equation (4). By observing the results of both equation (3) and (4), we can make an inference about the indirect effect. As Table 6 Panel A shows, the coefficient of CI in equation (3) is significantly positive at 1% level, implying a positive relation between client importance (CI) and lower earnings quality (ABSDA). In panel B, the coefficient of CI as measured by CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R and FIRM\_R is 0.0080 (p-value = 0.0121), 0.0060 (p-value = 0.0419), 0.0087 (p-value = 0.0025), and 0.0073 (p-value = 0.0740),respectively. In addition, ABSDA is also significantly positively correlated to ABSBTD. Both CI and ABSDA are of positive significance to ABSBTD. This is consistent with our prediction that auditors might allow economically significant clients to choose relatively more aggressive financial reporting practices, thereby leading to larger discretionary accruals and further resulting in greater book-tax differences for these clients. Table 7 presents results of equation (3) and (4) when client importance is based on client total assets. The results are similar to those in table 6. We also carry out the analyses by using the signed book-tax differences (SBTD) and signed discretionary accruals (SDA) as displayed in Table 8 and Table 9. The results remain similar to those in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6: The association between client importance (CI) and the absolute book-tax differences (ABSBTD) – indirect effect Client importance (CI) is measured by client sales revenue

Panel A Stage one: The association between client importance (CI) and discretionary accruals (ABSDA)

			Dej	oendent var	riable = ABSDA	1			
			Clier	ıt importan	ce measures (C	CI)			
	CPA1	_R	CPA2	2_R	TEAM	I_R	FIRM_R		
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient p-value		Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	
Intercept	0.1068***	< 0.00001	0.1077***	< 0.00001	0.1373***	< 0.00001	0.1066***	< 0.00001	
CI	0.0309***	0.00001	0.0205***	0.00159	0.0496***	< 0.00001	0.0572***	< 0.00001	
SIZE	-0.0039***	< 0.00001	-0.0039***	< 0.00001	-0.0059***	< 0.00001	-0.0037***	< 0.00001	
LEV	0.0321***	< 0.00001	0.0322***	< 0.00001	0.0300***	< 0.00001	0.0322***	< 0.00001	
GROWTH	0.0102***	< 0.00001	0.0102***	< 0.00001	0.0103***	< 0.00001	0.0102***	< 0.00001	
OCF	-0.0491***	< 0.00001	-0.0508***	< 0.00001	-0.0459***	< 0.00001	-0.0486***	< 0.00001	
EXPE	0.2950***	< 0.00001	0.2985***	< 0.00001	0.2908***	< 0.00001	0.2954***	< 0.00001	
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.2351		0.2341		0.2390		0.2357		

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. GROWTH is net sales growth rate. OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets. EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items.

### Panel B Stage two: the effect of client importance (CI) and discretionary accruals (ABSDA) on book-tax differences (ABSBTD)

		,	Dej	pendent vari	iable = ABSBT	D			
			Clie	nt importan	ce measures (C	CI)			
	CPA1	l_R	CPA2	_R	TEAN	1_R	FIRM	<u>/I_R</u>	
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	
Intercept	-0.0090	0.1144	-0.00901	0.1165	-0.0029	0.6290	-0.0090	0.11509	
CI	0.0080**	0.0121	0.0060**	0.0419	0.0087***	0.0025	0.0073*	0.07400	
ABSDA	0.0547***	< 0.00001	0.0551***	< 0.00001	0.0542***	< 0.00001	0.0550***	< 0.00001	
SIZE	0.0001	0.7579	0.0001	0.7524	-0.0002	0.5266	0.0001	0.69508	
LEV	0.0027	0.1742	0.0027	0.1752	0.0024	0.2242	0.0027	0.17149	
ROA	0.4255***	< 0.00001	0.4256***	< 0.00001	0.4251***	< 0.00001	0.4257***	< 0.00001	
DEP	-0.0252	0.1060	-0.0258*	0.0987	-0.0244	0.1186	-0.0261*	0.09389	
BAD	0.2398**	0.0302	0.2375**	0.0318	0.2360**	0.0328	0.2366**	0.03253	
IFI	0.2584***	< 0.00001	0.2585***	< 0.00001	0.2585***	< 0.00001	0.2580***	< 0.00001	
GSA	0.1350***	< 0.00001	0.1360***	< 0.00001	0.1352***	< 0.00001	0.1354***	< 0.00001	
GSI	0.2794***	< 0.00001	0.2791***	< 0.00001	0.2795***	< 0.00001	0.2794***	< 0.00001	
PON	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	
IMR	0.0183**	0.0147	0.0189**	0.0117	0.01763**	0.0192	0.0195***	0.00917	
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4864		0.4863		0.4866		0.4861		

\* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSBTD is the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the book-tax differences. CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

# Table 7: The association between client importance (CI) and the absolute book-tax differences (ABSBTD) – indirect effect Client importance (CI) is measured by client total assets

Panel A Stage one: The association between client importance (CI) and discretionary accruals (ABSBTD)

			De	pendent var	iable = ABSDA	4							
		Client importance measures (CI)											
	CPA1	<b>_A</b>	CPA2	2_A	TEAN	<b>1_A</b>	FIRM_A						
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value					
Intercept	0.1069***	< 0.00001	0.1078***	< 0.00001	0.1362***	< 0.00001	0.1065***	< 0.00001					
CI	0.0312***	0.00001	0.0194***	0.00300	0.0547***	< 0.00001	0.0592***	< 0.00001					
SIZE	-0.0039***	< 0.00001	-0.0039***	< 0.00001	-0.0058***	< 0.00001	-0.0037***	< 0.00001					
LEV	0.0322***	< 0.00001	0.0322***	< 0.00001	0.0305***	< 0.00001	0.0322***	< 0.00001					
GROWTH	0.0102***	< 0.00001	0.0102***	< 0.00001	0.0103***	< 0.00001	0.0102***	< 0.00001					
OCF	-0.0490***	< 0.00001	-0.0509***	< 0.00001	-0.0441***	< 0.00001	-0.0484***	< 0.00001					
EXPE	0.2949***	< 0.00001	0.2985***	< 0.00001	0.2898***	< 0.00001	0.2950***	< 0.00001					
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.2351		0.2340		0.2397		0.2358						

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. GROWTH is net sales growth rate. OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets. EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items.

Panel B Stage two: the effect of client importance (CI), discretionary accruals (ABSDA) on book-tax differences (ABSBTD)

	•	(AD	SDA) UII DUUK					
			Dep	endent vari	able = ABSBTI	)		
			Clier	nt importan	ce measures (C	I)		
	CPA	1_A	CPA2	_A	TEAM	[_A	FIRM	1_A
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value
Intercept	-0.0090	0.11412	-0.0090	0.11654	-0.0012	0.8297	-0.0090	0.11519
CI	0.0091***	0.00478	0.0069**	0.02024	0.0131***	0.0000	0.0085*	0.09745
ABSDA	0.0546***	< 0.00001	0.0550***	< 0.00001	0.0533***	< 0.00001	0.0549***	< 0.00001
SIZE	0.0001	0.76445	0.0001	0.75985	-0.0003	0.3707	0.0001	0.69535
LEV	0.0027	0.17150	0.0027	0.17324	0.0024	0.2281	0.0027	0.17072
ROA	0.4255***	< 0.00001	0.4256***	< 0.00001	0.4254***	< 0.00001	0.4258***	< 0.00001
DEP	-0.0252	0.10583	-0.0258*	0.09836	-0.0255	0.1018	-0.0261*	0.09451
BAD	0.2408**	0.02953	0.2381**	0.03140	0.2399**	0.0299	0.2370**	0.03221
IFI	0.2584***	< 0.00001	0.2586***	< 0.00001	0.2587***	< 0.00001	0.2580***	< 0.00001
GSA	0.1348***	< 0.00001	0.1358***	< 0.00001	0.1340***	< 0.00001	0.1353***	< 0.00001
GSI	0.2792***	< 0.00001	0.2789***	< 0.00001	0.2775***	< 0.00001	0.2794***	< 0.00001
PON	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001	0.0003***	< 0.00001
IMR	0.0180**	0.01628	0.0187**	0.01284	0.0164**	0.0289	0.0194***	0.00979
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4865		0.4864		0.4872		0.4862	

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 ABSBTD is the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the book-tax differences. CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. ABSDA is the absolute value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

Table 8: The association between client importance (CI) and signed book-tax differences (SBTD) – indirect effect Client importance (CI) is measured by client sales revenue

Panel A Stage one: The association between client importance (CI) and signed discretionary accruals (SDA)

			uisci cuonai y	acciuais	(DDA)					
			Dep	endent vari	able = SDA					
	Client importance measures (CI)									
	CPA1 R		CPA2_R		TEAM_R		FIRM_R			
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value		
Intercept	-0.0433***	< 0.0001	-0.0431***	< 0.0001	-0.0279**	0.0128	-0.0338***	0.0106		
CI	0.0135*	0.0511	0.0106***	0.0983	0.0157**	0.0143	0.0295***	0.0328		
SIZE	0.0079***	< 0.0001	0.0079***	< 0.0001	0.0062***	< 0.0001	0.0072***	< 0.0001		
LEV	-0.0653***	< 0.0001	-0.0653***	< 0.0001	-0.0341***	< 0.0001	-0.0390***	< 0.0001		
GROWTH	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0041***	< 0.0001		
OCF	-0.6388***	< 0.0001	-0.6392***	< 0.0001	-0.6483***	< 0.0001	-0.7109***	< 0.0001		
EXPE	0.2935***	< 0.0001	0.2947***	< 0.0001	0.3026***	< 0.0001	0.2850***	< 0.0001		
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.5088		0.5087		0.5231		0.4706			

<sup>\*</sup>p < 0.10, \*\*p < 0.05, \*\*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SDA is the value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. GROWTH is net sales growth rate. OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets. EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items.

### Panel B Stage two: the effect of client importance (CI), discretionary accruals (SDA) on book-tax differences (SBTD)

	Dependent variable = SBTD									
	Client importance measures (CI)									
	CPA1 R		CPA2_R		TEAM_R		FIRM_R			
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value		
Intercept	-0.0280***	< 0.0001	-0.0278***	< 0.0001	-0.0223**	0.0011	-0.0279***	< 0.0001		
CI	0.0126**	0.0005	0.0081**	0.0161	0.0081**	0.0135	0.0103*	0.0732		
SDA	0.0429***	< 0.0001	0.0435***	< 0.0001	0.0432***	< 0.0001	0.0437***	< 0.0001		
SIZE	0.0004	0.3221	0.0004	0.3125	0.0001	0.8229	0.0004	0.2712		
LEV	0.0096***	< 0.0001	0.0096***	< 0.0001	0.0093***	< 0.0001	0.0096***	< 0.0001		
ROA	0.4550***	< 0.0001	0.4554***	< 0.0001	0.4547***	< 0.0001	0.4556***	< 0.0001		
DEP	-0.0013	0.9395	-0.0022	0.8976	-0.0012	0.9432	-0.0026	0.8801		
BAD	-0.0219	0.8613	-0.0052	0.8402	-0.0283	0.8209	-0.0262**	0.8340		
IFI	0.3644***	< 0.0001	0.3643***	< 0.00001	0.3642***	< 0.0001	0.3634***	< 0.0001		
GSA	0.1334***	< 0.0001	0.1349***	< 0.00001	0.1343***	< 0.0001	0.1340***	< 0.0001		
GSI	0.2990***	< 0.0001	0.2986***	< 0.00001	0.2990***	< 0.0001	0.2987***	< 0.0001		
PON	0.0004***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.00001	0.0005***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001		
IMR	0.0061	0.4728	0.0075	0.3749	0.0070	0.4100	0.0082***	0.3297		
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4837		0.4833		0.4833		0.4831			

<sup>\*</sup>p < 0.10, \*\*p < 0.05, \*\*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SBTD is the value of book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets. CPA1\_R, CPA2\_R, TEAM\_R, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client sales revenue divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client sales from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SDA is the value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

# Table 9: The association between client importance (CI) and signed book-tax differences (SBTD) – indirect effect Client importance (CI) is measured by client total assets

Panel A Stage one: The association between client importance (CI) and signed discretionary accruals (SDA)

			anser curona	J	- (~=)					
	Dependent variable = SDA  Client importance measures (CI)									
	CPA1 A		CPA2_A		TEAM_A		FIRM_A			
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value		
Intercept	-0.0433***	< 0.0001	-0.0430***	< 0.0001	-0.0276**	0.0132	-0.0338***	0.0106		
CI	0.0138**	0.0487	0.0103*	0.0952	0.0187**	0.0054	0.0298***	0.0322		
SIZE	0.0079***	< 0.0001	0.0079***	< 0.0001	0.0062***	< 0.0001	0.0072***	< 0.0001		
LEV	-0.0652***	< 0.0001	-0.0653***	< 0.0001	-0.0340***	< 0.0001	-0.0390***	< 0.0001		
GROWTH	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0160***	< 0.0001	-0.0041***	< 0.0001		
OCF	-0.6387***	< 0.0001	-0.6392***	< 0.0001	-0.6475***	< 0.0001	-0.7109***	< 0.0001		
EXPE	0.2935***	< 0.0001	0.2947***	< 0.0001	0.3020***	< 0.0001	0.2851***	< 0.0001		
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.5088		0.5087		0.5232		0.4706			

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SDA is the value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. GROWTH is net sales growth rate. OCF is operating cash flows divided by beginning total assets. EXPE is prior total assets divided by the absolute value of current income before extraordinary items.

Panel B Stage two: the effect of client importance (CI), discretionary accruals (SDA) on book-tax differences (SBTD)

	Dependent variable = SBTD									
	Client importance measures (CI)									
	CPA1 A		CPA2 A		TEÀM_A		FIRM_A			
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value		
Intercept	-0.0280***	< 0.0001	-0.0278***	< 0.0001	-0.0200***	0.0031	-0.0279***	< 0.0001		
CI	0.0137***	0.0001	0.0090***	0.0075	0.0013**	< 0.0001	0.0115**	0.0485		
SDA	0.0428***	< 0.0001	0.0434***	< 0.0001	0.0423***	< 0.0001	0.0436***	< 0.0001		
SIZE	0.0004	0.3244	0.0004	0.3163	0.0000	0.9274	0.0004	0.2709		
LEV	0.0096***	< 0.0001	0.0096***	< 0.0001	0.0092	< 0.0001	0.0096	< 0.0001		
ROA	0.4551***	< 0.0001	0.4554***	< 0.0001	0.4547***	< 0.0001	0.4556***	< 0.0001		
DEP	-0.0014	0.9339	-0.0023	0.8940	-0.0023	0.8948	-0.0026	0.8820		
BAD	-0.0209	0.8675	-0.0246	0.8440	-0.0254	0.8391	-0.0259**	0.8362		
IFI	0.3645***	< 0.0001	0.3644***	< 0.0001	0.3648***	< 0.0001	0.3634***	< 0.0001		
GSA	0.1331***	< 0.0001	0.1347***	< 0.0001	0.1331***	< 0.0001	0.1339***	< 0.0001		
GSI	0.2998***	< 0.0001	0.2984***	< 0.0001	0.2972***	< 0.0001	0.2986***	< 0.0001		
PON	0.0004***	< 0.0001	0.0004***	< 0.0001	0.0004***	< 0.0001	0.0005***	< 0.0001		
IMR	0.0058	0.4923	0.0072	0.3912	0.0053	0.5308	0.0081***	0.3398		
Adjusted-R <sup>2</sup>	0.4838		0.4834		0.4839		0.4831			

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01. n=7,941 SBTD is the value of book-tax differences divided by beginning total assets. CPA1\_A, CPA2\_A, TEAM\_A, FIRM\_R is client importance is measured by the natural logarithm of client total assets divided by the sum of the natural logarithm of client total assets from all clients of the first and the second signing partner, the team, and the firm, respectively. SDA is the value of discretionary accruals estimated by modified Jones model with a control of performance (Kothari et al., 2005). SIZE is the natural logarithm of client's total assets. LEV is the ratio of total debt to total assets. ROA is the ratio of net income before tax and interest to total assets. DEP is depreciation expense divided by beginning total assets. BAD is bad debt expense divided by beginning total assets. IFI is investment income divided by beginning total assets. GSA is gain or loss on disposal of investments divided by beginning total assets. PON is the number of years going public. IMR is Inverse Mills ratio derived from the first stage model of Heckman (1979)'s methodology.

### 5. Conclusions

According to DeAngelo (1981), strong economic bonding between auditor and client impairs auditor independence and therefore might be harmful to the quality of audit and financial reporting. We examine this question by using a measure that can potentially reflect discretion in audit client's action in choosing financial and tax reporting practices, book-tax differences. We conjecture that auditors are more likely to allow economically important clients for choosing relatively more aggressive financial reporting or tax practices or both, thereby leading to larger book-tax differences for these clients. We use Taiwan data of which has two distinct features. First, the setting can provide a more accurate estimate of book-tax difference. Second, we can measure client importance not only at the firm level but the individual partner level as well as the audit team level.

The multiple regression analyses show that client importance is positively correlated with the magnitude of book-tax differences under each of our client importance measures. We interpret this result as evidence that auditors compromise reporting quality by allowing economically important clients to choose relatively more opportunistically financial or tax reporting practices or both, thereby resulting in larger book-tax differences for these clients. We also find that client importance exhibits an indirect effect on book-tax differences as a result of poor earnings quality.

We acknowledge several caveats in our analyses. First, although we use a method that is proved to be more accurate in estimating taxable income for Taiwanese firms, measurement errors could still exist. Second, the book-tax difference is calculated by pre-tax book income less taxable income, that is, a gross book-tax difference. We are unable to divide the gross book-tax difference into permanent and temporary differences. Since our topic is focused on client importance effects on managers' discretion in financial and tax reporting choices, the temporary book-tax difference is more appropriate in our setting. Third, because audit fees are not disclosed publicly in Taiwan, we rely on client sales and client assets as surrogates of audit fees. It is possible to introduce noise into our client importance measures and potentially reduce the contribution of our study.

### References

- [1] Ashbaugh, H., LaFond, R. and Mayhew, B. (2003). Do non-audit services compromise auditor independence? Further evidence. The Accounting Review, Vol. 78, No. 3, pp. 611 639.
- [2] Ayers B. C., Laplante, S. K. and McGuire, S. T. (2009). Credit Ratings and Taxes: The Effect of Book-Tax Differences on Ratings Changes. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 27, No. 2, pp. 359 402.
- [3] Barth, M. E., Elliott, J. A. and Finn, M.W. (1999). Market Rewards Associated with Patterns of Increasing Earnings. Journal of Accounting Research, Vol. 37, pp. 387 413.
- [4] Bartov, E. F., Gul, A. and Tsui, J. S. L. (2001). Discretionary Accruals Model and Audit Qualification, Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 421 452.
- [5] Basioudis, I., Papakonstantinou E. and M. Geiger (2008). Audit fees, non-audit fees and auditor going concern reporting decisions in the United Kingdom. Abacus, Vol. 44, No. 3, pp. 284 309.
- [6] Becker, C. L., DeFond, M. L., Jiambalvo, J. J. and Subramanyam, K. R. (1998). The Effect of Audit Quality on Earnings Management. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 15, pp. 1 24.
- [7] Biddle, G. C. and Hilary, G. (2006). Accounting Quality and Firm-Level Capital Investment. The Accounting Review, Vol. 81, No. 5, pp. 963 982.
- [8] Blaylock, B. Shevlin, T. and Wilson, R. (2012). Tax avoidance, large positive book-tax differences, and earnings persistence. The Accounting Review, Vol. 87. No. 1, pp. 91 120.
- [9] Burgstahler, D. and Dichev, I. (1997). Earnings management to avoid earnings decreases and losses. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 24, pp. 99 126.
- [10] Chen, M. (2009). An Estimation Model of Taxable Income. Journal of Management, Vol. 26, pp. 625 636.
- [11] Chen, S., Sun, S. Y. J. and Wu, D. (2010). Client importance, institutional improvements, and audit quality in China: An office and individual auditor level analysis. The Accounting Review, Vol. 85, pp. 127 158.
- [12] Chi, W., Douthett, E. B., Jr. and Lisic, L. L. (2012). Client importance and audit partner independence. Journal of Accounting and Public Policy, Vol. 31, pp. 320 336.
- [13] Chung, H. and Kallapur, S. (2003). Client importance, nonaudit services, and abnormal accruals. The Accounting Review, Vol. 78, No. 4, pp. 931- 955.
- [14] Craswell, A. T., Francis, J. R. and Taylor, S.L (1995). Auditor brand name reputations and industry specializations. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 20, pp. 297 322.
- [15] Craswell, A. T., Stokes, D.and Laughton, J. (2002). Auditor independence and fee dependence. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 33, No. 2, pp. 253 275.

- [16] DeAngelo, L. E. (1981). Auditor size and audit quality. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 3, pp. 183 199.
- [17] Dechow, P. M., Sloan, R. G. and Sweeney, A. P. (1996). Causes and Consequences of Earnings Manipulation: An Analysis of Firms Subject to Enforcement Actions by the SEC. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 13, pp. 1 36.
- [18] DeFond, M. L. and Jiambalvo, J. (1994). Debt Covenant Violation and Manipulation of Accruals. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 17, pp. 145 176.
- [19] DeFond, M. L., Raghunandan, K. and Subramanyam, K. R. (2002). Do non-audit service fees impair auditor independence? Evidence from going concern audit opinions. Journal of Accounting Research, Vol. 40, No. 4, pp. 1247 1274.
- [20] Francis, J. R. (2002). Are auditors compromised by non-audit services? Assessing the evidence. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 747 760.
- [21] Firth, M. (2002) Auditor-provided consultancy services and their associations with audit fees and audit opinions. Journal of Business Finance & Accounting, Vol. 29, No. 5, pp. 661 193.
- [22] Frankel, R., Johnson, M. and Nelson, K. (2002). Auditor independence and earning quality. The Accounting Review, Vol. 77 (Supplement), pp. 71 105.
- [23] Ferguson, M. J., Seow, G. S. and Young, D. (2004). Non-audit services and earnings management: U.K. evidence. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 813 841.
- [24] Geiger, M. A. and Rama, D. V. (2003). Audit fees, nonaudit fees, and auditor reporting on stressed companies. Auditing: A Journal of Practice & Theory, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 53 69.
- [25] Ghosh, A. and Moon, D. (2005). Auditor Tenure and Perceptions of Audit Quality. The Accounting Review, Vol. 80, pp. 585 612.
- [26] Hanlon, M. (2005). The Persistence and Pricing of Earnings, Accruals, and Cash Flows when Firms Have Large Book-Tax Differences. The Accounting Review, Vol. 80, pp. 137 166.
- [27] Hanlon, M. Laplante, S. and Shevlin, T. (2005) Evidence on the Possible Information Loss of Conforming Book Income and Taxable Income. Journal of Law and Economics, Vol. 48, pp. 407-442.
- [28] Hanlon, M. and Heitzman, S. (2010). A review of tax research. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 50, pp. 127 178.
- [29] Hay, D. Knechel, W. R and Li V. (2006) Non-audit services and auditor independence: New Zealand evidence. Journal of Business Finance and Accounting, Vol. 33, no. 5/6, pp. 715 734.
- [30] Healy, P. M. (1985). The Effect of Bonus Schemes on Accounting Decisions. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 7, pp. 85 107.
- [31] Heckman, J. J. (1979). Sample Selection Bias as a Specification Error, Econometrica, Vol. 47, pp. 153 161.

- [32] Huang, H. W., Mishra, S. and Raghunandan, K. (2007). Types of non-audit fees and financial reporting quality. Auditing: A Journal of Practice & Theory, Vol. 26, pp. 133 145.
- [33] Kothari, S. P., Leone, A. J. and Wasley, C. E. (2005). Performance matched discretionary accrual measures. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 39, pp. 163 197.
- [34] Kinney, W. R., Palmrose Z. and Scholz, S. (2004). Auditor independence, non-audit services, and restatements: Was the U.S. government right? Journal of Accounting Research, Vol. 42, No. 3, pp. 561 588.
- [35] Klein, A. (2002). Audit Committee, Board of Director Characteristics, and Earnings Management. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 33, No. 3, pp. 375 400.
- [36] Lee C. and Chang, C. (2007). Social Welfare Expenditure, Human Capital, and Economic Growth: Evidence from Taiwan. Journal of Economics and Management, Vol. 3, pp. 225 247.
- [37] Lennox, C. S. (1999). Non-audit fees, disclosure and audit quality. The European Accounting Review, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 239 252.
- [38] Lev, B.and Nissim, D. (2004). Taxable income, future earnings, and equity values. The Accounting Review, Vol. 79, pp. 1039 1074.
- [39] Li, C. (2009). Does client importance affect auditor independence at the office level? Empirical evidence from going-concern opinions. Contemporary Accounting Research, Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 201 230.
- [40] Liao, Y., Kai L.and Seng, T. (2016). Does auditor's industry expertise mitigate the book-tax difference of its client? Working Paper, Chung Yuan Christian University, 2016.
- [41] Manzon, G., Jr. and Plesko, G. (2002). The Relation Between Financial and Tax Reporting Measures of Income. Tax Law Review, Vol. 55, pp. 175 214.
- [42] Mills, L. (1998). Book-Tax Differences and Internal Revenue Service Adjustments. Journal of Accounting Research, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 343 356.
- [43] Mills, L. and Newberry, K (2001). The Influence of Tax and Non-Tax Costs on Book-Tax Reporting Differences: Public and Private Firms. Journal of American Taxation Association, Vol. 23, pp. 1 19.
- [44] Mills, L. F., Newberry, K. J. and Trautman, W. B. (2002). Trends in Book-tax Income and Balance Sheet Differences. Tax Notes, Vol. 19, pp. 1109 1124.
- [45] Noga, T. J. and Schnader, A. L. (2013). Book-Tax Differences as an Indicator of Financial Distress. Accounting Horizons, Vol. 27, No. 3, pp. 469 489.
- [46] Phillips, J. Pincus M. and Rego, S. (2003). Earnings Management: New Evidence Based on the Deferred Tax Expense. The Accounting Review, Vol. 178, pp. 491 522.
- [47] Raguhunandan, K., Read W. and Whisenant, S. (2003). Initial evidence on the association between non-audit fees and restated financial statements. Accounting Horizons, Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 223 234.

- [48] Reynolds J. K and Francis, J. R. (2001). Does size matter? The influence of large clients on office-level auditor reporting decisions. Journal of Accounting and Economics, Vol. 30, pp. 375 400.
- [49] Sharma, D. S. (2001). The association between non-audit services and the propensity of going concern qualifications: Implications for audit independence. Asia Pacific Journal of Accounting & Economic, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 143 155.
- [50] Sharma, D. S. and Sidhu, J. (2001). Professionalism vs commercialism: The association between non-audit services and audit independence. Journal of Business Finance and Accounting, Vol. 28, No. 5/6, pp. 595 629.
- [51] Sharma, V. D., Sharma, D. S. and Ananthanarayanan, U. (2011). Client Importance and Earnings Management: The Moderating Role of Audit Committees. Auditing: A Journal of Practice & Theory, Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 125 - 156.
- [52] Wines, G. (1994). Auditor independence, audit qualifications and the provision of non-audit services: A note. Accounting and Finance, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 75 86.
- [53] Wilson, R. (2009). An Examination of Corporate Tax Shelter Participants. The Accounting Review, Vol. 84, pp. 969 999.