



Impact of Board Incentives and Board Interlocks on Audit Fees

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Abstract

This study aims to examine how board incentives and board interlocks affect audit fees. Using multiple linear regression with panel data, this research shows a significant relationship between the board incentives and future audit fees. In contrast, this relationship is not significant for current audit fees. Furthermore, there is a significant relationship between board interlock in companies with future audit fees, while this relationship is not significant for the current audit fees. This paper contributes to the literature on the determinants of audit fees.

Keywords: Board incentives, Board compensation, Audit fees, Board interlock

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1. Introduction

To manage and organize daily company operations, guidance and leadership are transferred from board to president and from the president to the chief executive officer. Thus, as a representative of company shareholders, the board is responsible for monitoring and controlling the company. Therefore, executive officers of companies are responsible for daily operations and business processes. The board is also responsible for the company's ultimate operation and financial health (Salehi, 2020). The main responsibility of the board is to create effective corporate governance in the interests of shareholders and balance in the interests of its various stakeholders, including customers, employees, investors, and local communities, and provide independent oversight on CEO's performance and challenge management strategies and business decisions (Richardson et al., 2001). The meaning of board interlock, interlocks of the board that simultaneously hold the position board in another company (Mizruchi, 1996). While the board interlocks are playing a vital role in the organization (Fama and Jensen, 1983), interlocks' performance has positive and negative consequences for the organization (Erickson et al., 2006). Finally, it can be argued that independent audit fees can be used to measure the complexity of corporate financial reporting. In this research, by studying the board compensation effect and the existence of a board with an interlock on audit fees, we study that the managers, as their agents, improve their programs and performances, as well as reduce the risk of information uncertainty under seeking maximum compensation.

2. Theoretical framework and hypothesis development

The complexity of companies is one of the reasons for audit fees increasing. Companies that have complex operations and structures pay more wages to the CEO to manage their operations (Seifzadeh et al., 2020). On the one hand, managers who earn more profits will be eligible to receive more compensation (Fama, 1980).

When company operations are widespread and complex, the demand for monitoring the financial reporting process will increase. Companies with complex operations require many audit services (Salehi et al., 2019). As a result, they also pay more fees to audit firms. Also, these companies need non-executive directors to supervise the audit process; therefore, more compensation is paid to executives who are interlocks of the audit committee (Wysochi, 2010).

Despite the controversy about the relationship between the board's risk and compensation structure, the consensus is that if other conditions are equal, with uncontrollable risk increasing of company, the compensation paid to managers is also due to the acceptance of a higher level of risk will be increased. It should be noted that compensation of the board can override investment management decisions that affect the risk. So, risk can be limited by the type of compensation attributed to management (Jin, 2002; Coles et al., 2006). Hermalin (2005) believes that systematic increases in remuneration for CEO are due to the strengthening of the corporate governance system and higher managerial management over similar periods. Because strengthening a corporate governance system creates a possibility that if the manager's performance is weak, it will be removed (Salehi et al., 2020). Some managers optimally make decisions to earn more compensation and maintain their job position. In some cases, they are also protected by their friendly relations with board interlocks and receive more compensation. These managers' groups to defend their position are invited to auditors to make comments following their wishes (Bebchuk and Fried, 2005).

Managers' compensations emphasize short-term payments, which may create problems for the company. Therefore, an increase in earnings management, leading to an increase in managers' compensation, will also increase auditors' higher fees.

Another view is that if compensation agreements are properly designed, managers are

motivated to do their job properly and may not need independent auditor services. With this description, there can be an inverse relationship between compensation and fees. Variation in compensation schemes can be another strategy to motivate managers, and with less incentive for the manager to manipulate profits, fewer costs are spent on auditing.

When managers' compensation is according to their performance, they tend to invest in capital and long-term plans. When the management goals are long-term, his incentive to manipulate profits decreases and the need for additional services for auditors is reduced. Finally, if managers are given compensation choices like an option, it can be expected that the manipulation of profits and additional fees to auditors will be reduced (Vafeas and Waegelein, 2007). When paying compensation is based on profitability, despite its high benefits, it may be manipulating profits. By manipulating profits, auditors face a higher risk of discovering manipulated cases (Heninger, 2001; Palmrose and Scholz, 2004). Because of profit management risk and its impact on management compensation, American Accounting Standards express that auditors must review managers' compensations. The purpose of this recognition is to determine the risk of significant errors. Managers may have financial or non-financial incentives to acquire assets and build governance structures. Some managers can apply for more compensation. In the process of creating this governing structure, the complexity of the organization may be greater. Fargher et al. (2013) reported that managers' stock portfolios reduced risk management incentives and had a negative relationship with audit fees. Bergstresser et al. (2006) found that management incentives are positively related to profit management levels, and profit management in this research has been measured through optional accruals. Cohen et al. (2008) found that an increase in accruals management was associated with increased compensations and reimbursement of co-management services before adopting the Sarbanes-Oxley act. Research on the compensation of directors and audit fees has been investigated, and the main hypothesis of the research has been explained. Gul et al. (2003) found that by increasing compensation to the CEO, their incentive to manipulate accruals, in other words, increased profits, required higher quality audit, and, consequently, higher payouts. Companies with more independent audit fees (indicating more demand for monitoring financial reporting by specialized individuals) have paid more and more fees to the audit committee (Engel et al., 2010). Bedard & Johnson (2004) concluded that with increasing corporate compensation based on corporate profit margins, the probability of profits manipulation was increased, and auditors demand higher fees for high-quality audits and detection of manipulation cases. Osma et al. (2007) showed that the board's compensation significantly determined the manipulation of profits. Therefore, this action's limitation is shaped by the board of directors' interlocks towards the independent board's interlocks. Ali shah et al. (2009) showed a negative relationship between institutional ownership and profit management, while the research results did not show a significant relationship between board compensation and profit management. Jones and Wu (2010) have shown that managers' compensation may change profit management. The result of Leventis and Dimitropoulos (2010) showed that there is a positive relationship between audit independence and audit pricing. The results also showed a positive relationship between audit pricing and profit management for small companies. Alali (2011) reported a strong correlation between increased discretionary accruals with increasing audit fees and increasing CEO compensation. This relationship is moderated by increasing managers' salaries. Lifschutz et al. (2010) concluded that the independence of the board (the ratio of independent directors to the entire board) and the persistence of the audit committee (number of meetings) had a positive and significant relationship with audit fees. Kim et al. (2014) showed that option to buy managerial shares positively correlates with the audit fees after

controlling abnormal accruals and other determinants of audit fees. Besides, they showed that the positive relationship between giving the buyer the option to buy managerial shares and audit fees for better corporate governance is reduced.

Rahman Khan et al. (2011) focus on company ownership of audit fees in emerging economies. The research results showed a significant negative relationship between audit fees with sponsorship and the focus of company ownership. This showed that companies controlling by sponsors and institutional investors paid a small amount of Bangladesh's audit fees. Gong & Li (2012) concluded that in high-yielding companies for CEO, the current year's profit will have more information to predict future earnings. In the prediction of profit, the CEO's predictive power for profit stronger than other predictive factors. They concluded that financial analysts did not use information about managerial shareholder benefits when forecasting profit. Xingze (2012) showed that there is a negative relationship between corporate governance and audit fees. The higher level of corporate governance will result in lower audit fees. The higher level of corporate governance will result in fewer audit fees. Guillet et al. (2012) showed that company performance criteria and managers' characteristics determine managers' compensation in these industries. Johnson et al. (2013) concluded a direct relationship between excessive self-confidence, management compensation, and audit risk estimation. In other words, if the auditor recognizes this personality trait of managers and overestimates the risk of financial reporting, he will demand more fees. Lauck et al. (2014) concluded that the CEO had a significant impact on audit services pricing. Newton (2015) explored the relationship between management compensation, organizational performance, and corporate governance quality in the United States and concluded a negative relationship between management compensation, corporate governance, and organizational performance. The results of Jiang et al. (2015) indicated that profit manipulation increases the likelihood of retrospective observations from profit management, but high-quality auditing limits this effect. However, they did not find such evidence for refinancing from cash flow; in other words, increasing the auditing quality does not affect the resumption of cash flow provision. Chen et al. (2015) also concluded that auditors are more risk-averse when managers' incentives to maintain or increase stock prices are higher; in other words, auditors have more remuneration than companies with more sensitive executives showing fluctuations in stock returns.

According to theoretical foundations and the related literature, the following hypotheses postulated in the study:

H₁: There is a significant relationship between the incentives of the board with current audit fees.

H₂: There is a significant relationship between the incentives of the board with future audit fees.

H₃: There is a significant relationship between the existence of board interlock and current audit fees.

H₄: There is a significant relationship between the existence of board interlock and future audit fees.

This research's statistical population is companies listed companies on the Tehran Stock Exchange and all industries during 2011-2016. Sample of this study, based on its subject, is of knock-out type sampling from a set of companies listed on the Tehran Stock Exchange that have the following conditions:

1. Companies are not interlocks of the financial intermediation industry, holding, and banks. Such companies differ in terms of activities and classification of financial statement items with other companies.

2. Deals of companies should not be completely stopped during the research period (symbol of the company has not been withdrawn from the exchange).

3. Companies have been accepted at the Tehran Stock Exchange at least since the beginning of 2011.

All required research data for those companies is available during the research period. Considering the above conditions, 94 companies remained, which represents the actual statistical population. Hypotheses were tested using a multiple regression model. Excel was used for data preparation, and Eviews software was used to analyze the data.

3. Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

To investigate the relationship between board incentives (board compensation) and audit fees, according to Kim et al. (2016), using the following regression model.

$$\begin{aligned} LOG\ AUDITFEES = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 LOG\ CEOVEGA + \beta_2 LOG\ CEODELTA + \beta_3 Size + \\ & \beta_4 INVREC + \beta_5 LEVERAGE + \beta_6 QUICK + \beta_7 ROA + \beta_8 LOSS + \beta_9 A_Size \\ & + \beta_{10} EXPERTISE + \beta_{11} TENURE + \beta_{12} AUDITOR\ CHANGE + \beta_{13} \\ & CEOTENURE + \beta_{14} DINDUSTRY + e \end{aligned}$$

Also, in order to investigate the relationship between board interlocks and audit fees, according to Kim et al. (2016), the following regression model is used:

$$\begin{aligned} LOG\ AUDITFEES = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 Board_Interlocks + \beta_2 Size + \beta_3 INVREC + \\ & \beta_4 LEVERAGE + \beta_5 QUICK + \beta_6 ROA + \beta_7 LOSS + \beta_8 A_Size + \\ & \beta_9 EXPERTISE + \beta_{10} TENURE + \beta_{11} AUDITOR\ CHANGE + \\ & \beta_{12} EOTENURE + \beta_{13} DINDUSTRY + e \end{aligned}$$

The definitions of variables are presented below:

LOG AUDITFEES: audit fees logarithm

LOG CEOVEGA: Ownership of board shares, calculated by dividing the total number of board shares into the company's total number. It needs to be explained that the information needed to measure this variable will be extracted from the capital note in the financial statements.

LOG CEODELTA: Logarithm of board compensation that exists in financial statements and its explanatory notes.

Board_Interlocks: shows the presence of board interlock and, if the company has a board interlock, among the companies audited by an audit firm, the number 1 and otherwise it will be 0. More clearly, the purpose of this variable is that the presence of board interlock in two companies may lead to the selection of joint auditor in those companies; therefore, if the two companies have the same board of directors and auditors, this dummy variable will take 1; otherwise, it will be 0.

Size: The company size is equal to the logarithm of the company's sales.

INVREC: Total accounts receivable and inventory.

LEVERAGE: Financial leverage, which is the ratio of total debt to assets.

QUICK: Current ratio, the quick ratio for the company *i* in year *t*. This is calculated by dividing current assets into current debts.

ROA: Return on assets is calculated by dividing interest before deducting interest and tax on total assets.

LOSS: fictional variable, equivalent to 1 if the company is losing, otherwise it is 0.

A_Size: the size of the auditor, if the auditor belongs to the audit firm, is equivalent to 1 and otherwise equal to 0.

EXPERTISE: Audience industry expertise, equivalent to 1 if the auditor is an industry specialist and otherwise 0. To determine the auditor's specialty in the industry, we consider the share of auditors' markets so that institutions are considered as industry specialists, whose market share (equation 1) is greater than the equation (2) (Palmrose, 1989).

$$\text{Equation 1: } \frac{\text{total assets of all the owners of each industry audit firm}}{\text{Total assets of all owners in this industry}}$$

$$\text{Equation 2: } \left[\frac{1}{\text{Companies in an industry}} \right]^* 1.2]$$

TENURE: Auditor's term time.

AUDITOR CHANGE: auditor's change, equivalent to 1 if the auditor changes, otherwise it is 0.

CEOTENURE LOG: The term time of CEO.

DINDUSTRY: Industry Indicator

Examinations related to research hypotheses

Hypotheses Test

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the research variables. As respects, the mean and median of all quantitative variables have a small difference. We can say that the variables have a normal distribution. On the other hand, as respects that the average logarithm of audit fees is close to the minimum, it is not unusual for audit firms to receive their fees. Also, the average board stock ownership is 0.054. The cash compensation logarithm of board interlocks was 2.525. The minimum was 0 that either company suffered losses, and no compensation was distributed, or it did not have a compensation distribution in the company's policy. The average tenure of the auditor is about two years, and this amount is about 2.5 years for the CEO. In qualitative variables, out of 564 observations, 241 views had board interlocks. Also, 73 years of corporate loss and 167 observations were audited by a great audit firm. In 174 observations, auditors' changes, and in 330 views were audited by an expert auditor.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of research variables

Variable	symbol	Mean	Median	S.d	Min	Max
audit fees	LOGAUDITFEES	8.888	8.837	0.431	8.314	10.038
Ownership of board shares	CEOVEGA	0.054	0.055	0.027	0.010	0.099
Logarithm of board compensation	logceodelta	2.525	2.916	1.172	0.000	3.281
Size of company	Size	13.660	13.585	1.489	10.156	18.936
The logarithm of receipts and inventory	INVREC	5.234	5.279	0.765	3.073	7.879
Financial Leverage	LEVERAGE	0.391	0.331	0.206	0.143	0.937
quick ratio	QUICK	1.648	1.480	0.886	0.244	3.838
Return on assets	ROA	0.328	0.374	0.344	-0.999	1.078
Auditor tenure	TENURE	1.755	2.000	0.876	1.000	4.000
President tenure	CEOTENURE	2.548	2.000	1.377	1.000	9.000
Qualitative Variables Frequency						
presence of a joint board	Board Interlocks				241	
Losing company	LOSS				73	
Auditor Size	A_Size				167	
Auditor's expertise	EXPERTISE				330	
AUDITOR CHANGE	AUDITOR CHANGE				174	
Observations				564		

3.1. Normality of variables

As the results of Table 2 show, none of the research variables follow normal distribution despite the Coincidence (significance of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in all of them is lower than 5%). Accounting data is usually not normal, and this Precondition can be ignored.

Table 2. The search variables Normality

Variable	Symbol	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test statistics	Sig.
Logarithms of audit fees	<i>LOGAUDITFEES</i>	0.08	0.000
Ownership of the board stock	<i>CEOVEGA</i>	0.094	0.000
The logarithm of board compensation	<i>Logceodelta</i>	0.195	0.000
size of the company	<i>Size</i>	0.052	0.001
The logarithm of receipts and inventory	<i>INVREC</i>	0.054	0.001
Financial Leverage	<i>LEVERAGE</i>	0.117	0.000
<i>quick</i> ratio	<i>QUICK</i>	0.164	0.000
Return on assets	<i>ROA</i>	0.073	0.000
Auditor tenure	<i>TENURE</i>	0.293	0.000
CEO tenure	<i>CEOTENURE</i>	0.190	0.000

3.1.1. The research variables Linearity

To better fit the regression model, the linearity relationship between independent variables should be considered. Regarding all variables, this factor is less than 5; there is no linearity between variables, and the model fitting can be made.

Table 3. variance inflation Factor for research variables

Variable	Coefficient of variance	Variance inflation Factor
<i>CEOVEGA</i>	0.889	1.125
<i>LOGCEODELTA</i>	0.265	3.771
<i>Board_Interlocks</i>	0.764	1.309
<i>Size</i>	0.434	2.307
<i>INVREC</i>	0.446	2.241
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	0.969	1.032
<i>QUICK</i>	0.942	1.061
<i>ROA</i>	0.446	2.146
<i>LOSS</i>	0.281	3.563
<i>A_Size</i>	0.555	1.803
<i>EXPERTISE</i>	0.322	3.105
<i>TENURE</i>	0.386	2.594
<i>AUDITOR CHANGE</i>	0.893	1.120
<i>CEOTENURE</i>	0.951	1.052

4. Findings

Descriptive statistics and assumptions for preparing variables for regression fitting and hypothesis testing were studied in the previous sections. In this section, the hypothesis test is examined. The dependent variable is the logarithm of current and future audit fees, and the independent variable is the compensation of the board of directors and the existence of board interlock.

First, to examine the effects of panel or combination, F Limer's test was performed. The significant value lower than 5% confirms the null hypothesis based on data fitted as a panel.

Table 4. F limer and Hausman tests

Test type	Statistics amount	Sig.
F limer	8.648	0.000
Hausman	24.607	0.026

After the F limer test, the Hausman test is performed to determine constant effects versus random effects. The test significance value is 0.026 and lower than 5%. Thus, the hypothesis test will be performed in panel form with constant effects.

According to Table 5, the Fisher statistic and significant value were 11.296 and 0.000, respectively, indicating proper model fitting at an error level of 5%. On the other hand, the adjusted coefficient is 0.659; independent variables explain 66% of the dependent variable. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 1/822 and located between 1.5 to 2.5, indicating a lack of autocorrelation in model error sentences. But for analyzing hypothesis test results, the significance of the variable is 0/527, and this value not lower than the 5% significance level, and the first research hypothesis is not confirmed. That means there is no significant direct relationship between the incentives of the board and current audit fees.

Table 5. Test results of the first hypothesis

Symbol	Variable	Coefficient	T Statistics	Significant
<i>C</i>	Constant factor	7.709	32.399	0.000
<i>LOGCEODELTA</i>	The logarithm of board compensation	-0.010	-0.566	0.572
<i>CEOVEGA</i>	Ownership of the board stock	-0.221	-0.337	0.736
<i>SIZE</i>	size of company	0.061	4.016	0.000
<i>INVREC</i>	The logarithm of receipts and Inventory	0.058	1.886	0.060
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	Financial Leverage	-0.009	-0.159	0.874
<i>QUICK</i>	quick ratio	0.005	0.363	0.717
<i>ROA</i>	Return on assets	-0.045	-1.000	0.318
<i>LOSS</i>	Being losing	-0.026	-0.447	0.655
<i>A_SIZE</i>	size of audit firm	0.022	0.478	0.633
<i>EXPERTISE</i>	Auditor's expertise	0.050	1.283	0.200
<i>TENURE</i>	Auditor tenure	0.027	1.535	0.126
<i>AUDITOR_CHANGE</i>	Auditor Change	0.037	1.733	0.084
<i>CEOTENURE</i>	President tenure	-0.005	-0.692	0.489
<i>Industry</i>	Industry type	Is included		
Fisher's statistic and significant			(0.000)11.296	
R ²			0.723	
Adjusted R ²			0.659	
Durbin-Watson Statistics			1.882	

First, to examine the effects of panel or combination, the F Limer test was performed. The significant value lower than 5% confirms the null hypothesis based on data fitted as a panel.

Table 6. F limer and Hausman tests

Test type	Statistics amount	Significant
F limer	9.830	0.000
Hausman	30.288	0.004

After the F limer test, the Hausman's test is performed to determine constant effects versus random effects. The test significance value is 0.004 and lower than 5%. Thus, the hypothesis test will be performed in panel form with constant effects.

According to Table 7, the Fisher statistic and significant value were 13.359 and 0.000, respectively, indicating proper model fitting at an error level of 5%. On the other hand, the adjusted coefficient is 0.736; independent variables explain 74% of the dependent variable. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 2/138 and is located between 1.5 to 2.5, indicating a lack of autocorrelation in model error sentences. But for analyzing hypothesis

test results, the significance of the variable is 0/005, and this value not lower than 5%. Also, the T statistic was 2.809 and positive. In other words, the second research hypothesis is accepted, and there is a significant direct relationship between the incentives of the board and future audit fees.

Table 7. Test results of the second hypothesis

Symbol	Variable	Coefficient	T Statistics	Significant
<i>C</i>	Constant factor	7.781	31.276	0.000
<i>LOGCEODELTA</i>	The logarithm of board compensation	0.055	2.809	0.005
<i>CEOVEGA</i>	Ownership of the board stock	0.060	0.096	0.923
<i>SIZE</i>	size of company	0.027	1.843	0.066
<i>INVREC</i>	The logarithm of receipts and Inventory	0.089	2.534	0.012
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	Financial Leverage	0.016	0.300	0.764
<i>QUICK</i>	quick ratio	-0.008	-0.545	0.586
<i>ROA</i>	Return on assets	-0.023	-0.476	0.635
<i>LOSS</i>	Being losing	0.188	3.072	0.002
<i>A_SIZE</i>	size of audit firm	-0.018	-0.406	0.685
<i>EXPERTISE</i>	Auditor's expertise	0.128	2.628	0.009
<i>TENURE</i>	Auditor tenure	0.045	1.832	0.068
<i>AUDITOR_CHANGE</i>	Auditor Change	-0.012	-0.622	0.534
<i>CEOTENURE</i>	President tenure	-0.001	-0.118	0.906
<i>Industry</i>	Industry type	Is included		
Fisher's statistic and significant			(0.000)13.359	
R ²			0.759	
Adjusted R ²			0.736	
Durbin-Watson Statistics			2.138	

The third research hypothesis is as follows: There is a significant direct relationship between board interlock and current audit fees. To examine the effects of panel or combination, an F Limer test was performed. The significant value lower than 5% confirms the null hypothesis based on data fitted as a panel.

Table 8. F limer and Hausman test

Test type	Statistics amount	significant
F limer	8.678	0.000
Hausman	20.739	0.044

After the F limer test, the Hausman test is performed to determine constant effects versus random effects. The test significance value is 0.044 and lower than 5%. Thus, the hypothesis test will be performed in panel form with constant effects.

According to the results of Table 9, the Fisher statistic and significant value were 11.418 and 0.000, respectively, that indicating proper model fitting at an error level of 5%. On the other hand, the adjusted coefficient is 0.660; independent variables explain 66% of the dependent variable. The Durbin-Watson statistic is 1/823 and located between 1.5 to 2.5, indicating a lack of autocorrelation in model error sentences. But for analyzing hypothesis test results, the variable's significance is 0/718, and this value is not lower than 5%, and the third research hypothesis is not confirmed. That means there is no significant direct relationship between the incentives of the board and current audit fees.

Table 9. Test results of the first hypothesis

symbol	Variable	Coefficient	T Statistics	significant
<i>C</i>	Constant factor	7.688	32.454	0.000
<i>Board-Interlocks</i>	The logarithm of board compensation	-0.008	-0.361	0.718
<i>SIZE</i>	size of company	0.060	3.984	0.000
<i>INVREC</i>	The logarithm of receipts and Inventory	0.058	1.876	0.061
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	Financial Leverage	-0.009	-0.162	0.872
<i>QUICK</i>	<i>quick</i> ratio	0.005	0.324	0.746
<i>ROA</i>	Return on assets	-0.049	-1.101	0.271
<i>LOSS</i>	Being losing	-0.005	-0.110	0.912
<i>A_SIZE</i>	size of audit firm	0.021	0.455	0.649
<i>EXPERTISE</i>	Auditor's expertise	0.051	1.300	0.194
<i>TENURE</i>	Auditor tenure	0.027	1.526	0.128
<i>AUDITOR_CHANGE</i>	Auditor Change	0.037	1.716	0.087
<i>CEOTENURE</i>	President tenure	-0.005	-0.703	0.483
<i>Industry</i>	Industry type	Is included		
Fisher's statistic and significant		(0.000)11.418		
R ²		0.723		
Adjusted R ²		0.660		
Durbin-Watson Statistics		1.823		

The fourth research hypothesis is as follows: There is a significant direct relationship between a board interlock and future audit fees.

To examine the effects of panel or combination, the F limer test was performed. The significant value lower than 5% confirms the null hypothesis based on data fitted as a panel.

Table 10. F limer and Hausman tests

Test type	Statistics amount	significant
F limer	9.997	0.000
Hausman	22.433	0.032

Table 11. Test results of the fourth hypothesis

symbol	Variable	Coefficient	T Statistics	significant
<i>C</i>	Constant factor	7.929	133.108	0.000
<i>Board-Interlocks</i>	The logarithm of board compensation	0.016	3.291	0.001
<i>SIZE</i>	size of company	0.037	7.115	0.000
<i>INVREC</i>	The logarithm of receipts and Inventory	0.061	5.386	0.000
<i>LEVERAGE</i>	Financial Leverage	0.038	3.262	0.001
<i>QUICK</i>	<i>quick</i> ratio	-0.004	-1.128	0.260
<i>ROA</i>	Return on assets	0.008	0.670	0.503
<i>LOSS</i>	Being losing	0.034	3.221	0.001
<i>A_SIZE</i>	size of audit firm	0.013	0.732	0.465
<i>EXPERTISE</i>	Auditor's expertise	0.095	7.054	0.000
<i>TENURE</i>	Auditor tenure	0.040	6.285	0.000
<i>AUDITOR_CHANGE</i>	Auditor Change	-0.004	-0.832	0.411
<i>CEOTENURE</i>	President tenure	0.004	2.221	0.027
<i>Industry</i>	Industry type	Is included		
Fisher's statistic and significant		(0.000)13.978		
R ²		0.796		
Adjusted R ²		0.795		
Durbin-Watson Statistics		2.025		

After the F limer test, the Hausman test is performed to investigate the constant random variable's effects. It is observed that test significance is 0/032 and lower than 5%. In other

words, the hypothesis test will be performed in panel form with constant effects.

According to the results of Table 11, Fisher statistics and significant value of 13.98 and 0.000 respectively, indicating proper model fitting at an error level of 5%. On the other hand, the adjusted coefficient is 0.795; independent variables explain about 80% of the dependent variable. But in the hypothesis test analysis results, the significance of the variable is 0/001 and lower than the 5% significance level. Moreover, T statistics is 3.291 and positive, and therefore, the fourth research hypothesis is confirmed. That means there is a significant direct relationship between the existence of board interlock and future audit fees.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study showed that there is no direct and significant relationship between the incentives of the board and current audit fees. The main reason for the rejection of this hypothesis is the inefficiency of the auditors' labor market in Iran, that mostly, the pricing of audit services does not follow theoretical and logical models, and in many cases, competitive pricing. The results of this hypothesis are consistent with the results of Hermalin (2005). He reported that systematic increases in executive officers' compensation were due to corporate governance and higher management leadership over similar periods. Some officers make decisions in the best way to earn more compensation and maintain their job position. To protect their position, these managers' groups are invited from auditors that submit comments following their request and agree on audit fees. The results also contradict Cohen et al. (2015), which argue that managers' stocks portfolio reduces risk aversion of management incentives and negatively relates to audit fees. The results of this study also showed that there is a direct and significant relationship between incentives of the board and future audit fees, and the results are contrary to the results of Cohen et al. (2015), which suggest that stock portfolios of managers have a negative relationship with audit fees. On the other hand, results are similar to the Wysocki study (2010). One reason to assume a positive relationship between the compensation of board and audit fees is that independent auditors expect managers who receive a high percentage of compensation annually and have more incentives to manipulate profits. With the increasing complexity and risk of the company, auditors are also asking for higher fees. Also, the results are similar to the study of Gul et al. (2003), who found that by increasing compensation to the manager, their incentive to manipulate accruals or profits has increased, which requires higher audit quality and, as a result, higher fees. Bedard and Johnson (2004), Engel et al. (2010) also concluded that companies with more independent audit fees (indicating more demand for monitoring financial reporting by individuals Specialists) paid more wages and compensations to the audit committee. The research findings also showed that there no direct relationship between the existence of board interlock of companies and current audit fees, and the reason for rejection of this hypothesis could be the lack of power of managers in the first year of attending board, because after attending The board of directors and the power and influence of decision making are considered a little conservative. The results of this study contradict the results of the study by Wysocki (2010). Similar to research findings, Guillet et al. (2012), and Coles et al. (2006) and in the internal domain, Sajjadi et al. (2012) concluded that managers and Their policies could be effective in determining the auditor and, as a result, their current and future fees. Finally, the results showed a significant direct relationship between board interlock and future audit fees. Results are similar to Wysocki's results (2010), which states that the board chooses independent and high-quality auditors to limit manipulation of profits by the manager. Therefore, an increase in profit management, which leads to an increase in compensation for the CEO, will also increase auditors' higher fees. Chen et al. (2015) also reported that the existence of board interlock would

reduce the board's independence, which affects the quality of the audit and undermines the auditor's independence. However, an audit can be useful as a powerful oversight mechanism to reduce representation problems. However, given that most board interlocks represent major shareholders, an independent board can also be considered a corporate governance mechanism that will influence the auditor's independence and, as a result, audit quality.

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