

# Bloated Disclosures: Can ChatGPT Help Investors Process Financial Information?

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First draft: April 20, 2023

This draft: October 18, 2023

## Abstract

Generative AI tools such as ChatGPT can fundamentally change the way investors process information. We probe the economic usefulness of these tools in summarizing complex corporate disclosures using the stock market as a laboratory. The unconstrained summaries are remarkably shorter compared to the originals, whereas their information content is amplified. When a document has a positive (negative) sentiment, its summary becomes more positive (negative). Importantly, the summaries are more effective at explaining stock market reactions to the disclosed information. Motivated by these findings, we propose a measure of information “bloat.” We show that bloated disclosure is associated with adverse capital market consequences, such as lower price efficiency and higher information asymmetry. Finally, we show that the model is effective at constructing targeted summaries that identify firms’ (non-)financial performance. Collectively, our results indicate that generative AI adds considerable value for investors with information processing constraints.

**Keywords:** ChatGPT, GPT, LLM, generative AI, informativeness, information processing, MD&A, conference calls, summarization, disclosure, information asymmetry.

**JEL Codes:** C45, D80, G3, G11, G12, G14, M41

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We benefited from helpful comments by Bok Baik, Ryan Ball, Tom Barry, Elizabeth Blankespoor (discussant), Lin William Cong, Yiwei Dou, Zhiguo He, Gerard Hoberg, Jiekun Huang (discussant), Jing Huang, Raffi Indjejikian, Antonis Kartapanis, Eunjee Kim (discussant), Jinhwan Kim, Douglas Laporte, Reuven Lehavy, Christian Leuz, Bradford Levy, Gregor Matvos, Greg Miller, Martin Nienhaus, Joseph Piotroski, Doron Reichmann, Kristi Rennekamp, Laurence Van Lent, Paul Zarowin and workshop participants at Stanford University, University of Bochum, University of Chicago, University of Michigan, and conference participants at the 2023 GSU-RFS FinTech Conference, 2023 Korean International Accounting Conference, 2023 NYU Big Apple Accounting Conference, and the 2023 Texas A&M University Conference. Tom Barry provided excellent research assistance. The authors gratefully acknowledge financial support from the University of Chicago Research Support Center, the Fama-Miller Center for Research in Finance, and the Stevens Doctoral Program at the University of Chicago Booth School of Business.

## I Introduction

The exponential growth of textual data in economics and finance presents both opportunities and challenges for efficient information processing (e.g., [Gentzkow et al., 2019](#); [Goldstein et al., 2021](#)). The sheer volume and inherent unstructured nature of such data can quickly overwhelm economic agents. Large language models (LLM), epitomized by tools such as ChatGPT, offer innovative ways to analyze and interpret large volumes of text, potentially allowing investors to make more informed decisions. While the popularity of these tools has skyrocketed since November 2022, their economic usefulness in information processing remains unclear. Anecdotally, financial firms are showing a marked interest in such language models. In a recent interview, Citadel’s CEO Ken Griffin indicated that ChatGPT technology fundamentally affects their business and that the company is negotiating an enterprise-wide license ([Doherty and Marques, 2023](#)). In this paper, we probe the usefulness of large language models in distilling the most relevant information from corporate disclosures. In particular, we use GPT-3.5 Turbo to summarize information communicated by companies to their stakeholders. We then explore the information content of these summaries and construct a measure of the degree of less relevant or potentially redundant textual information in corporate disclosures.

Corporate disclosures provide an ideal platform for understanding the value of language modeling from a user’s perspective. Preparers of financial statements have long been concerned about information overload in corporate filings, i.e., their excessive length and complexity (e.g. [Loughran and McDonald, 2014a](#); [Dyer et al., 2017](#)). The usefulness of textual information is further diminished due to management’s incentives to obfuscate negative information by providing irrelevant or immaterial details (e.g., [Li, 2008](#)). Regulators have recognized these concerns and proposed a number of initiatives to promote more concise, accessible, and informative disclosures ([SEC, 2013](#)). These include the “plain English” initiative and the development of more effective disclosure frameworks with the ultimate goal of improving the relevance of information communicated to stakeholders. Nevertheless, concerns about disclosure complexity and information overload continue to grow. Financial statements have been increasing in length over the past 20 years, and recent evidence indicates that investors are inattentive to their content ([Cohen et al., 2020](#)).

The GPT-3.5 (Generative Pre-trained Transformer) model, which has been the foundation for ChatGPT, is particularly well-suited for analyzing corporate disclosures due to its ability to summarize relevant information in a concise, effective, and humanly understandable manner. The model is pre-trained on a vast language corpus and then fine-tuned for specific tasks. The transformer architecture relies on so-called attention mechanisms to identify relationships between words, sentences, and paragraphs in a document. This feature allows the model to retain the most relevant information when generating summaries. It is known to outperform other existing models in summarization tasks (Bhaskar et al., 2022; Goyal et al., 2022).<sup>1</sup>

We exploit this emerging technology to address the following questions. How effective are generative language models, and GPT-3.5 in particular, at distilling the information contained in complex corporate disclosures? How does the information content of a summary compare to that of the original? To what extent do companies differ in terms of informational “bloat”? Are there capital market consequences of providing redundant information? Finally, is the model effective at constructing targeted summaries when investors are interested in a specific topic, such as financial or ESG performance?

To answer these questions, we focus on two primary types of corporate disclosures: Management Discussion and Analysis (MD&A) and earnings conference calls. The MD&A section is a mandatory disclosure with the goal of helping investors view a company’s performance through the eyes of its management. The SEC expressed repeated concerns about the informativeness of MD&A disclosures, e.g., in relation to boilerplate language or excessive complexity. Conference calls are voluntary events held by companies to help investors process reported performance and answer questions from analysts. They enable analysts to ask for additional information or clarification when disclosure is opaque. They are also more spontaneous, which possibly makes them harder to summarize. Both disclosure types carry useful information and are complementary.

We begin our analysis by constructing a random sample that constitutes about 20% of the population of MD&As and conference call transcripts from 2009 to 2020.<sup>2</sup> We then instruct GPT-3.5

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<sup>1</sup>Prior-generation summarization models such as BART or PEGASUS require task-specific fine-tuning to achieve a reasonable performance (Zhang et al., 2020). GPT-3.0 overcame this challenge by dramatically increasing the size of the training data corpus. With these versatile language processing capabilities, GPT models can now perform zero-shot long text summarization on par with humans (Bhaskar et al., 2022; Goyal et al., 2022).

<sup>2</sup>Due to initial data availability of the respective transcripts, we focus on a sample period which overlaps with the training phase of the GPT-3.5 turbo model, which was trained on data up until September 2021. However, the GPT model is designed and trained to prevent over-fitting using a number of techniques, including regularization,

Turbo to produce an unrestricted summary of each document without referencing information from other documents or external sources. In subsequent analysis, we narrow down the prompt to retrieve information related to financial performance or ESG-related activities only.

We find that the average length of unconstrained summaries of MD&As (conference call transcripts) is about 25% (30%) compared to the average original document's length. This result points to potentially large gains in information processing. The key question that arises is whether the summaries, which are bound to omit many details, are still informative. In fact, we observe a slight reduction in the readability of the summarized document compared to the original. We next examine the summaries' information content.

From the perspective of an unboundedly rational investor with unconstrained information processing capacity, the original document is at least as good as the summary. Such an investor will filter out noise like a machine does and undo any possible biases in the disclosed information. The length, complexity, and information overload become irrelevant. For this reason, we focus on a scenario where an investor reading the document has limited attention (or information processing constraints). The investor's objective is to understand the primary implications of the disclosed information for a firm's future prospects. To this end, when dealing with a lengthy and complex document, it is plausible that the investor will largely focus attention on identifying positive vs. negative content. This approach is most closely captured by [Loughran and McDonald \(2011\)](#) measure of sentiment, which relies on positive vs. negative word counts in financial documents.<sup>3</sup>

We find that the sentiment of the summarized document is more pronounced relative to that of the original. In particular, when the original's sentiment is positive (negative), the summary is even more positive (negative). This can happen, for example, if companies (executives) "hedge" their views by using precautionary statements that do not contain significant amounts of information or are largely boilerplate.

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dropout, and the use of a large, diverse corpus. The model is known to generalize well on unseen data ([Brown et al., 2020](#)). Note, too, that it is difficult to explain our results by in-sample over-fitting of text summaries. Nevertheless, we extend our analysis by using a clean out-of-sample test reported in Appendix D. We find equally strong results despite the relatively small size of the dataset both for MD&As and conference call transcripts.

<sup>3</sup>We specifically do not use the state-of-the-art machine-based sentiment scores (e.g., [Frankel et al., 2022](#); [Huang et al., 2023](#)), like BERT-based sentiment, because the objectives of such measures (trained on large amounts of data and often using similar architecture) is precisely to learn to filter out redundant or irrelevant information, which is what human readers would find prohibitively costly to do.

While the summary could lose essential information, as the above discussion suggests, to the extent the model is able to distill the most relevant information, we expect summaries to capture true underlying sentiment more accurately.<sup>4</sup> To evaluate the information content of the summary vs. the original, we compare their ability to explain stock market reactions to the disclosed information. The assumption underlying this test is that the stock market as a whole is effective at processing publicly disclosed information, even though individual investors are subject to information processing constraints, and thus could be used as a benchmark to evaluate information content.

Motivated by the above discussion, we regress short-window abnormal stock returns surrounding the disclosure days on the sentiment scores of the summaries vs. the original documents. We find strong evidence that the summary sentiment is considerably more informative than the original's sentiment in explaining market reactions to the disclosed information. The summary sentiment also has a significantly greater explanatory power, both statistically and economically. We also find a sharper increase in the informativeness for the MD&A summaries compared to conference calls, which is intuitive as conference calls are less subject to concerns related to obfuscation or boilerplate language. Importantly, we also show that these results generalize when we analyze the post-2021 sample, which lies outside the GPT training period.

Our findings reveal a remarkable ability of the language model to condense disclosed information while maintaining and, in fact, enhancing the information content. The results also point to potential informational "bloat" in corporate disclosures. The next logical step is to ask whether companies differ in how bloated their disclosures are and whether the bloat triggers capital market consequences. To address this question, we use the relative amount by which a document's length is reduced as a measure of the degree of redundant or irrelevant information, referred to as *Bloat*.

To illustrate the measure and assess its face validity, consider the example of Disney's infamous conference call held in November of 2022. The call garnered extensive media coverage as Disney's CEO was accused of sidestepping and diminishing the company's bad performance, a controversy that led to his dismissal two weeks later. The call also spent considerable time

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<sup>4</sup>The loss of information can happen, for example, when the original combines positive and negative words or the same information is repeated multiple times.

discussing less relevant topics, such as the 100th-anniversary celebration. As we show, our *Bloat* measure spikes sharply for this conference call and, in fact, reaches the maximum level for Disney in our sample. An in-depth examination of the call and its summary shows that GPT successfully excises irrelevant details (e.g., the CEO's family visit to Disneyland) while retaining most critical information (e.g., operational losses in Disney's direct-to-consumer business).<sup>5</sup> We also perform a more systematic analysis of the excised content of other conference calls to reinforce this conclusion.

Utilizing the insights gleaned from this example, we examine the extent to which *Bloat* varies in time, by industry, and at the firm level by conducting a variance decomposition. For both MD&A and conference call samples, time, industry, and the interaction between time and industry fixed effects explain around 30% of the variation, whereas 70% of the variation in *Bloat* is firm-specific. Firm fixed effects explain around 35-45% of the firm-specific variation, which implies a substantial firm-year component. Indeed, we show that *Bloat* varies considerably from year to year within the same firm, though it also exhibits persistence. We find that *Bloat* tends to be higher when a firm reports losses, has negative sentiment, and experiences negative stock market reactions, which are consistent with the obfuscation hypothesis in Li (2008).

We show that bloated disclosures are associated with adverse capital market consequences. Measures of stock price efficiency and information asymmetry deteriorate in the presence of bloated reporting. These results continue to hold when we control for conventional proxies of readability, which highlights the notion that our measure captures a different construct – the one that directly measures the relevance and redundancy of information instead of readability.

In our final analysis, we explore the usefulness of generative LLMs to produce targeted summaries. In particular, investors may be interested in understanding information concerning a specific topic, such as environmental impact or regulatory uncertainty. To explore this, in our first set of tests, we create prompt-based summaries that retain information about (1) financial

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<sup>5</sup>The temperature parameter of the model may slightly influence the length of GPT-generated summaries. High temperature means that the model is allowed more discretion in generating summaries, while zero temperature means that the model will generate the same summary no matter how many times we repeat the prompt. However, low temperature achieves high reproducibility at the cost of reliability. In our study, we set the temperature parameter to be 0.5. To show that the length of a summary does not dramatically vary across trials, we repeat the summarization process for Disney's earnings calls 50 times each. The variation in the lengths of the summaries is small, with a standard deviation of 0.010 relative to a mean of 0.702. Across all trials, we find that Disney's 2022-Q4 call has the highest *Bloat*. Furthermore, the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) – a measure of reliability – is close to 1 (0.97).

performance or (2) “ESG” activities based on the original summaries. We find an increasing time trend in ESG-related content of conference calls. We also find that both types of summaries are incrementally informative in explaining market reactions and thus capture different dimensions in firms’ communications. As one would expect, the sentiment from ESG-specific summaries becomes increasingly more important in determining stock market reactions over time. This finding is consistent with prior studies showing that ESG risks are priced in more recent years (Giglio et al., 2021; Sautner et al., 2023). Overall, we conclude that generative LLMs show promise in extracting useful targeted information from lengthy and hard-to-read financial disclosures.

We contribute to the literature in four ways. First, we provide evidence on the economic usefulness of generative AI in analyzing textual data. As investors face significant information processing costs (e.g., Sims, 2003; Van Nieuwerburgh and Veldkamp, 2009; Blankespoor et al., 2020; Cohen et al., 2020), AI summaries can become an important input into decision-making. We show that these summaries are concise and effective at retaining relevant information, thus allowing investors to focus attention on the information that matters. This suggests that generative AI has the potential to advance financial reporting technology in a way comparable in importance to, for example, the introduction of EDGAR by the SEC (e.g., Gao and Huang, 2019; Chang et al., 2022; Goldstein et al., 2023).<sup>6</sup>

Second, we offer a novel measure of the degree to which textual information contains redundancies and excessive details. Most prior studies on textual corporate disclosures focus on readability or linguistic complexity (e.g., Li, 2008; Loughran and McDonald, 2014a; Bonsall et al., 2017). In contrast, disclosure “bloat” is an intuitive but distinct construct with a substantial firm-level variation. Further, Loughran and McDonald (2014a) point out that linguistic complexity commingles both textual and content complexity. *Bloat* is less subject to this concern because GPT is trained to summarize complex content while avoiding linguistic complexity. The measure can be easily applied in various corporate contexts and is of interest to investors and regulators. Along these lines, our study adds to the literature on transparency and its economic consequences (e.g., Leuz and Verrecchia, 2000; Balakrishnan et al., 2014). We show that companies with bloated disclosures exhibit lower (higher) price efficiency (information asymmetry). This

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<sup>6</sup>Our results are related to but different from Cardinaels et al. (2019), who show in a lab experimental setting that automatically generated summaries of earnings releases via LexRank are more neutral than the original document (which then lowers the participants’ valuation of the firm).

aspect of disclosure quality has not received attention in the prior literature.

Third, and more broadly, we contribute to the literature on machine learning and AI in financial economics (e.g., [Kelly et al., 2019](#); [Gu et al., 2020](#); [Li et al., 2021](#)). More recently, contemporaneous work leverages large language models (e.g., [Bernard et al., 2023](#); [Chen et al., 2023](#); [Kim and Nikolaev, 2023](#)) and ChatGPT in particular (e.g., [Eisfeldt et al., 2023](#); [Jha et al., 2023](#); [Lopez-Lira and Tang, 2023](#); [Kim et al., 2023](#)) for various tasks, such as sentiment analysis or assessing firms' risk profile. Our study adds to this literature by exploring the value of generative AI in processing complex corporate disclosures and addressing information overload.

Finally, we contribute by establishing the value of language models in extracting targeted and standardized information, e.g., environmental impact, from general-purpose corporate disclosures (e.g., [Hassan et al., 2019](#); [Sautner et al., 2023](#); [Florackis et al., 2023](#)). For example, measuring a company's environmental activities is a highly complex task and large language models show substantial promise in helping investors with this task.

## II Generating Summaries with GPT

GPT is a large language model trained on a vast corpus of text data. Its objective is to predict the next word in a sentence conditional on the preceding words and a broader context. In this section, we describe how GPT generates summaries. We then motivate and illustrate our disclosure *Bloat* measure.

### A The Transformer Architecture

GPT is based on the highly influential Transformer architecture developed by [Vaswani et al. \(2017\)](#), [Radford et al. \(2018, 2019\)](#), and [Brown et al. \(2020\)](#). The Transformer is a type of neural network capable of modeling long-range dependencies among words in a text (sequence). Each word (token) is represented by an  $m$ -dimensional vector,  $x_k = (x_k^1, x_k^2, \dots, x_k^m)$ , referred to as word embedding. The model thus treats a text as  $n \times m$  matrix,  $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$ , where the number of rows corresponds to the number of words (tokens), and the number of columns is the dimension of embeddings. For instance, the sentence "*Compared to our competitors, our company is dedicated to promoting sustainable technologies such as renewable energies and net-zero plan.*" has



nineteen tokens. Assuming that a token is modeled as a 100-dimensional vector  $(x_i^1, x_i^2, \dots, x_i^{100})$  ( $1 \leq i \leq 19$ ), this sentence is represented by a  $19 \times 100$  matrix.

The central component of the Transformer architecture is the so-called self-attention mechanism, which tells the model what to focus attention on when performing summaries and other tasks. Specifically, the attention mechanism enables the model to learn each word’s relevance (relative importance) in an input text by considering its positional and contextual relationships with other words. To capture the relationships among different words and extract the most relevant information, GPT calculates self-attention scores. This process involves query ( $Q$ ), key ( $K$ ), and value ( $V$ ) matrices parametrized as:  $Q = X \cdot W_Q$ ,  $K = X \cdot W_K$ , and  $V = X \cdot W_V$ . Each row in the query matrix (i.e., a query vector) corresponds to a token for which we want to calculate the attention score. The query vector is used to compare the current token to other tokens based on their key vectors. Accordingly, each row in the key matrix (i.e., a key vector) represents a token against which we want to compare the current query token. Lastly, each row in the value matrix represents the information contained in the corresponding token. The model learns the weight matrices  $W_Q(m \times \dim Q)$ ,  $W_K(m \times \dim K)$ , and  $W_V(m \times \dim V)$  from the pre-training phase (note that  $\dim Q$  and  $\dim K$  are chosen to be the same).

As an illustration, consider the 19-token sentence we saw previously. To calculate the self-attention of the word *sustainable*, the model measures its relation with every other word (including itself). Specifically, the query vector corresponding to *sustainable* is compared to 19 key vectors by calculating dot products for each *query-key* pair. The dot-product captures the correlation between two vectors, i.e., the semantic similarity between a pair of tokens. Mathematically, this is expressed as  $Q \cdot K'$ , which is, in our case, a  $19 \times 19$  relation score matrix. The element of this matrix at the intersection of  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column,  $[Q \cdot K']_{ij}$ , measures the similarity between the  $i$ th and  $j$ th words.

More formally, the model calculates the attention matrix to capture inter-relatedness among tokens:

$$\text{Score}(Q, K) = \text{softmax} \left( \frac{Q \cdot K'}{\sqrt{\dim K}} \right) \tag{1}$$

where  $Q \cdot K'$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix of semantic proximity between queries and keys,  $\sqrt{\dim K}$  is a

normalizer, and softmax is a function that maps row vectors into weights that sum up to one. The attention matrix above is then post-multiplied by the value matrix,  $\text{Score}(Q, K) \cdot V$ , to obtain the weighted sum of the value vectors and is an output of the attention layer.

The model is pre-trained on a large corpus to learn word embeddings and to be able to calculate self-attention matrices for variable-length text sequences. This information is passed on to the “decoder loop” to generate a sequence of words to be included in a text, e.g., the summary. In doing so, the model searches for the most probable next word and it does so autoregressively, i.e., conditional on all prior words while relying on the pre-calculated self-attention scores and the entire word corpus  $\mathcal{L}$ . More formally, the model thus calculates the conditional probability distribution over  $y_{n+1}$  given by  $p(y_{n+1}|y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, \mathcal{L})$ , where  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  represent words already included in the summary and chooses the most likely next word.

Returning to our example, the summary sentence starts with the word “*Our*” because it has the highest self-attention score.<sup>7</sup> The second most likely word, conditional on the first, is “*company*” (subject) and so on. At some point, the most likely token predicted by the model is the end of the sentence token, which completes the summary and renders the following sentence: “*Our company promotes sustainable technologies.*”<sup>8</sup> This result retains the most relevant information while omitting redundancies, boilerplate content, and excessive details. Simultaneously, this example also effectively illustrates that any summary inherently encompasses a subset of the information found in the original text (e.g., it omits the phrase “compared to our competitors”). We discuss a more detailed real-world example in subsection C.

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<sup>7</sup>It is very natural that *Our* receives a high self-attention score. *Our* is associated with the main verb *dedicate* and its objective in the sentence. Furthermore, considering that it is the possessive pronoun of the subject in the sentence, its positional importance is also very high.

<sup>8</sup>GPT allows a researcher to adjust its temperature. Higher temperature means that GPT has a higher degree of freedom in selecting the words from the pre-trained corpus. In this example, when we allow GPT a higher temperature, it searches its own vocabulary dictionary  $\mathcal{L}$ . Now, the summary becomes “*Our company considers environmental issues seriously.*” Note that the words *environmental* or *seriously* did not appear in the original text. However, the model chooses the most appropriate words from its pre-trained corpus to complete a sentence. Setting a higher temperature, therefore, may yield powerful and informative summaries. However, an excessively high temperature may make the model place too much weight on its own corpus rather than focus on the pre-calculated self-attention scores from the given text. This setting might make the summary inaccurate. Therefore, there is a trade-off between the model’s creativeness and reliability when increasing the temperature parameter. We revisit this issue in Section III.

## B Limited Attention and Underpinning of Disclosure Bloat

In this subsection, we analyze the value of language modeling to an investor with limited attention and motivate our measure of informational “bloat.” An investor with limited resources cannot attend to all available information without incurring a substantial cost. Ideally, such an investor wants to know what information to focus attention on when making decisions. Intuitively, this is what a generative language model can enable investors to do. It ranks the words contained in the input text based on their self-attention scores and uses the ones with high scores to generate the summary.

To formalize this idea, consider an investor who needs to process a document with  $n$  messages (words), some of which are more decision-relevant than others. The most (least) relevant message deserves the highest attention and thus carries the highest (lowest) attention score normalized to one (zero). Accordingly, we can define the attention score associated with  $i$ -th message  $s(i) : R \rightarrow [0, 1]$ .

The investor does not know what to focus attention on and thus tries to process all messages in the document at the same time (albeit imperfectly). The marginal benefit of processing a message with a lower attention score decreases, whereas the marginal cost increases. Intuitively, the cost can be manifested as an additional time requirement or deteriorated decision quality. This can be captured in the following formulation of a user’s *ex-ante* (i.e., before the actual information content is known) utility from processing textual information:

$$U(n) = \underbrace{B\left(\sum_{i=1}^n s(i)\right)}_{\text{benefit}} - \underbrace{C\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (1 - s(i))\right)}_{\text{cost}} \tag{2}$$

where  $B(\cdot)$  is an increasing concave “benefit” function and  $C(\cdot)$  is an increasing convex “cost” function. The user’s *ex ante* utility increases with the relevance of each message,  $s(i)$ , and decreases with the “noise”,  $1 - s(i)$ .

The process of constructing an effective summary thus involves a trade-off between including more information (signal) and dealing with unnecessary details or redundancies (noise). GPT’s self-attention mechanism enables this trade-off by identifying attention scores corresponding to specific words and including the most relevant words into a summary. For example, one can

think of the arithmetic average of the elements  $q_{ij}$  in  $i$ -th row of the attention matrix  $\text{Score}(Q, K) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{Q \cdot K'}{\sqrt{\dim K}}\right)$  as relevance score  $s(i)$  associated with the  $i$ -th word:

$$s(i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n q_{ij} \in [0, 1] \quad (3)$$

With the help of GPT's attention mechanisms, an investor could increase her utility by focusing on content with high attention scores  $s(i)$  and omitting less relevant content. To see this, one can rank the elements  $s(i)$  in descending order:  $\{s(1), \dots, s(n)\} \rightarrow \{\bar{s}(1), \dots, \bar{s}(n)\}$  such that  $\bar{s}(i) \geq \bar{s}(i+1)$ , and formulate the problem as:

$$\max_{0 \leq k \leq n} U(k) = B\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{s}(i)\right) - C\left(\sum_{i=1}^k (1 - \bar{s}(i))\right) \quad (4)$$

The solution to this discrete program is the optimal summary length  $n^*$  that is approximated by the first-order condition:

$$B'(\cdot)\bar{s}(n^*) = C'(\cdot)(1 - \bar{s}(n^*)) \quad (5)$$

For example, assume that  $B(\cdot)$  and  $C(\cdot)$  are linear with a slope of one to ease interpretation. The marginal benefit of including  $k$ -th message is an increase in the cumulative "signal" by  $\bar{s}(k)$ , while the marginal cost is an increase in "noise" by  $1 - \bar{s}(k)$ . An optimal length would include words as long as the marginal benefit exceeds the marginal cost. Since  $\bar{s}(k)$  is a decreasing function of  $k$ , there exists an optimal length  $k = n^*$  that maximizes  $U(k)$ . Figure 1 visually illustrates the relationship between summary length and  $U(k)$ .

Note that the optimal length  $n^*$  depends on the functional form of  $\bar{s}(\cdot)$ . For example, if  $\bar{s}(\cdot)$  is convex, the optimal summarization point  $n^*$  is smaller than  $\frac{1}{2}n$ . Intuitively, convex  $\bar{s}(\cdot)$  implies that there are relatively fewer important messages, leading to a shorter summary. For a concave  $\bar{s}(k)$  the optimal summarization point is larger than  $\frac{1}{2}n$ . Indeed, when many words are needed to convey the relevant information, the model generates a longer summary.

Based on the above, we define the informational *Bloat* measure as follows:

$$Bloat = \left( \frac{n - n^*}{n} \right) \quad (6)$$

The spirit of this measure is to capture how far the document deviates from its optimal summary length  $n^*$ . Higher *Bloat* implies that the original disclosure text contains relatively more uninformative, less relevant, or repetitive content. Intuitively, bloated disclosure has a high frequency of tokens with less important information content, thereby leading to a convex  $\bar{s}(\cdot)$ .

It is important to note that the optimal summary length can vary depending on user objectives. Some investors prefer a concise summary, while others can ask GPT to generate a more detailed summary. Users can further specify the types of information they consider to be most relevant for their objective by instructing the model using prompts to pay attention to, e.g., information related to corporate social responsibilities, regulatory risks, etc.

In sum, the above discussion illustrates the usefulness of language modeling to an investor with limited attention and offers justification for our measure of informational “bloat.” We next illustrate the measure using a real-world example, before discussing the implementation of the model in more detail.

## C Illustration of Disclosure Bloat

To evaluate the face validity of the newly introduced *Bloat* metric, we conducted an in-depth analysis of Disney’s 2022-Q4 earnings call. Just before the call, Disney disclosed a disappointing quarterly result that led to about a 10% decline in its stock price. Compounding this negative performance was former CEO Bob Chapek’s approach to the earnings discussion, which triggered a barrage of criticism. Media outlets described the earnings call as “inconceivable,” “delusional,” and “bizarre.” Chapek particularly drew flak for his evasion of the company’s poor results, choosing instead to diverge into discussions on largely irrelevant subjects.<sup>9</sup> Less than two weeks following the contentious earnings call, Bob Chapek was dismissed, prompting the return of his

<sup>9</sup>For example, entertainment lawyer and journalist [Matthew Belloni](#) reported that “[i]t was one of the most bizarre things I have ever seen. Because he is sitting there and talking about all the great things at Disney and the Oogie Boogie Bash at Halloween and how many tickets they sold for that. And the stock was going down, down, down.” or [Jim Cramer](#) on CNBC “I had faith, but there is just no doubt that he has to go. That was just unconscionable. And the quarter itself, the way he handled it ... He made it sound like it was just a four-star quarter. Delusional.”

predecessor, Bob Iger.

Given contemporaneous media reports criticizing Chapek's behavior during the earnings call, it's intriguing to examine whether our measure is capable of detecting the apparent bloat in Disney's call. To do so, we use (Chat)GPT-3.5 to summarize each of Disney's earnings call transcript going back to 2015 and present the calculated bloat graphically in Figure 2(a). The figure reveals that disclosure bloat is trending up somewhat over time and spikes sharply during the infamous quarter. This observation suggests, even at first glance, that the generative AI possesses the capability to discern clutter and effectively sift through it.

We proceeded to examine the actual content of both the original and the summary of the 2022-Q4 earnings call. Appendix B displays the beginning of Chapek's presentation during the earnings call. In the text's first section (Panel A), Chapek portrays a highly optimistic view of Disney's standing. Notably, while the summary maintains the original's upbeat tone, it does not fail to mention Disney's operating losses and their plans to address them. More interestingly, the summary becomes much shorter for the second part (Panel B), during which Bob Chapek shifted his presentation to the discussion of largely irrelevant subjects. Specifically, nearly two paragraphs concerning unrelated celebratory events, such as Chapek's family visit to Disneyland for Halloween or the success of the "Oogie Boogie Bash" are summarized by GPT into a single short sentence. This in-depth analysis provides useful preliminary evidence illustrating the ability of GPT's self-attention mechanism to focus on the information that matters. We next discuss the implementation of our model in more detail.

### III Data and GPT Processing

**Sample Selection.** To probe the value of generative AI for processing financial information, we focus on the two most prominent types of narrative disclosures: the management discussion and analysis (MD&As) section in firms' annual reports and earnings conference calls. Both types of narrative disclosures are known to contain relevant information (e.g. [Hassan et al., 2019](#); [Cohen et al., 2020](#); [Li et al., 2021](#); [Cao et al., 2023](#)). To construct our sample, we obtain machine-readable MD&A sections of annual reports and earnings conference call transcripts for all US non-financial public firms from fiscal years 2009 to 2020. We remove firms from the financial sector (SIC code

starting with 6) or firms with missing values for key variables (e.g., stock returns or analyst forecasts). These filtering steps leave us with an initial sample of 8,699 MD&As and 40,362 conference calls.<sup>10</sup>

Due to GPT processing constraints, we then draw a random sample of about 20% of unique firms relative to the population described above. This results in 1,790 MD&As reported by 339 firms and 8,537 conference calls held by 360 firms. Additional details on each type of disclosure are provided below.

**Management Discussion and Analysis.** MD&As are included as “Item 7” of the 10-K filings. We download all 10-K filings (including 10-K/A and 10-KSB) from EDGAR and use regular expressions to extract Item 7 (Kim and Nikolaev, 2023). Out of 10,588 10-K statements, we successfully retrieve 8,699 MD&A sections (approximately 82.16%). Several firms do not have correct item numbers for MD&A sections or simply include a hyperlink that directs viewers to an external website. These outliers are not collected by our automated MD&A extraction algorithm. Our retrieval rate is comparable to other studies (e.g. Cohen et al., 2020). We delete figures, tables, html script, and XBRL tags.<sup>11</sup>

**Earnings Conference Calls.** Earnings conference calls are quarterly events voluntarily held by firms. Almost all US public firms hold quarterly earnings conference calls (Hassan et al., 2019). We obtain conference call transcripts from S&P Global Capital IQ Pro Transcripts and use the entire transcripts as inputs. We do not exclude operator instructions or questions from analysts as they also convey information about the speakers and the purpose of the speech.<sup>12</sup>

**Other Data.** We use the CRSP database for daily stock and market returns. We rely on the Trades and Quote (TAQ) database to calculate the probability of informed trades (*PIN*). Financial characteristics such as total asset, net income, filing dates, and earnings announcement dates are from Compustat. Analyst forecasts are from I/B/E/S Details file. Finally, the institutional holdings data is from Thomson Reuters 13-F filings.

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<sup>10</sup>Considering the need to control for earnings surprise in our analysis, we require that at least one analyst covers a given firm. This prerequisite tends to favor the inclusion of approximately 1,750 larger firms. Although it narrows our focus, we believe this sample more accurately reflects the segment of the market that is of greatest interest to investors.

<sup>11</sup>Unlike other natural language models such as BERT, we do not need to replace numbers with placeholder tokens as GPT is capable of understanding the contextual meaning of numbers used in texts.

<sup>12</sup>Since transcripts contain utterances or onomatopoeia (e.g., ‘um’, ‘ph’) in square brackets, we delete all expressions within the square brackets from the transcripts.

**GPT Processing.** We use the GPT-3.5-Turbo API provided by the OpenAI ChatCompletion endpoint to construct summaries.<sup>13</sup> GPT-3.5-Turbo allows 4,096 tokens per request. For longer documents, following Ramshaw and Marcus (1999), we divide the document into chunks not to exceed this limit and process each chunk separately. The token limit counts both input and output texts. Therefore, we divide the input text into chunks with a maximum of 2,048 tokens, leaving another 2,048 tokens for the summaries.<sup>14</sup> We then concatenate the generated summaries of each chunk and create a single summary for the entire document.

We use a prompt that instructs the model to summarize the input text using only the information included in the text and to not restrict the length of the summary. We deliberately opted for such a straightforward prompt to establish a foundational baseline for the effects. Nonetheless, employing more intricate prompts could facilitate the extraction of more tailored information (e.g., see Section VI).<sup>15</sup>

**Random Sampling.** As GPT involves significant time and resources to generate summaries, we only process a random sample of approximately 20% of all documents. Specifically, we obtain a list of the 1,694 (1,801) unique firms in the MD&A sample (conference call sample) and then randomly choose 20% of these unique firms (339 and 360 firms, respectively). We then retain all documents associated with these firms for GPT processing.<sup>16</sup>

Table 1 provides summary statistics for our sample vs. the population, reflecting firm size and its information environment. In both the MD&A and conference call samples, the randomly chosen sets of firms do not significantly differ from their populations and hence are representative. Additionally, the MD&A and conference call samples do not differ materially from each other. For example, the mean  $\text{Log}_{ME}$  (the natural logarithm of the market value of equity) of

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<sup>13</sup>GPT-3.5 underpinned the initial version of ChatGPT from November 2022. A more recent version for subscribers from March 2023 relies on GPT-4.0.

<sup>14</sup>Using SpaCy sentence tokenizer, we do not allow a single sentence to be divided into two different chunks. Furthermore, for conference call transcripts, since each turn-at-talk is marked with a new line separator, we do not allow a single turn-at-talk to be included in two separate chunks.

<sup>15</sup>The prompts are provided in Online Appendix A. For our model parameters, we set none for max\_tokens, 0.5 for temperature, 1.0 for top\_p, 0.0 for presence penalty, and 0.0 for frequency penalty. Our prompt only exploits the user role of the API and does not specify a system or assistant role. Furthermore, due to the probabilistic nature of the model, the results might slightly vary for each trial (e.g. de Kok, 2023). Therefore, we assess the robustness of our results by returning to our Disney example and summarizing each transcript 50 times. We find a low standard deviation in bloat of 0.010 relative to a mean of 0.702. Across all trials, 2022-Q4 shows the highest disclosure bloat (see Figure 2(b)).

<sup>16</sup>Compared to randomization on the document level, this cluster randomization allows us to track changes in the summaries within-firm across time.



the MD&A sample is 7.713, while the mean *Log-ME* of the conference calls sample is 7.798.

## IV How effective are the summaries?

In this section, we provide descriptive evidence on the attributes of the summarized disclosures. We subsequently analyze the information content of the summaries relative to that of the original documents.

### A Length, Sentiment, and Readability

**Measurement.** We investigate the textual properties of GPT summaries by focusing on three dimensions: length, sentiment, and readability (Fog index and plain English measure).<sup>17</sup> Length is measured by the number of words contained in a given document. The sentiment is based on financial keyword dictionaries provided by [Loughran and McDonald \(2011\)](#):

$$Sentiment = \frac{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \mathbf{1}[x \in \mathcal{P}] - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \mathbf{1}[x \in \mathcal{N}]}{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \mathbf{1}[x \in \mathcal{P}] + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \mathbf{1}[x \in \mathcal{N}]} \quad (7)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}$  is a set of given document,  $\mathcal{P}$  is a set of positive financial keywords,  $\mathcal{N}$  is a set of negative financial keywords,  $x$  is an individual word, and  $\mathbf{1}[\cdot]$  is an indicator function. A higher proportion of positive keywords corresponds to a higher *Sentiment* score.

We use *Fog* index ([Gunning, 1952](#)), but adjusted for financial terms ([Kim et al., 2019](#)). It measures the percentage of complex words per sentence as a measure of readability (e.g. [Li, 2008](#); [Loughran and McDonald, 2016](#)). A higher *Fog* indicates less readable disclosures. We supplement the *Fog* index by the “plain English” measure (*Plain\_Eng*) calculated in accordance with the narrative disclosure guidelines set forth by the SEC.<sup>18</sup> Analogous to *Fog*, higher *Plain\_Eng* indicates lower readability.

**Linguistic Attributes.** We calculate the linguistic attributes for both raw and summarized documents and present them in Table 2 and Figure 3.

<sup>17</sup>Another commonly used proxy, the Bog index, is only readily available for full 10-Ks via [Bonsall et al. \(2017\)](#). Due to processing constraints of the commercial software *StyleWriter*, it is not trivial to create this measure for our set of MD&A and earnings call transcripts.

<sup>18</sup>Specifically, following [Loughran and McDonald \(2014b\)](#), we calculate the following five components: (i) the average number of words per sentence, (ii) the average number of characters per word, (iii) the number of passive voice verbs, (iv) number of pronouns, (v) number of the word “respectively”. We then standardize (iii), (iv), and (v) with document length and add all five elements to obtain *Plain\_Eng*.

Panels A of Table 2 and Figure 3(a) focus on the MD&A sample. The levels statistics indicate that the GPT model reduces the document length of MD&As by nearly 80%, on average. The average (median) length of the original documents is 17,901 (14,254) words, whereas it goes down to 3,779 (3,433) for summarized documents. This difference is economically large and indicates potentially sizeable efficiency gains for a human reader.

Next, we observe that the average textual sentiment of raw MD&As is negative ( $-0.360$ ) and that it becomes slightly more negative in the summarized documents ( $-0.366$ ). More importantly, the standard deviation of sentiment increases from 0.202 (raw) to 0.316. This widening of the distribution of sentiment is indicative of sentiment becoming more clear-cut.

In terms of textual complexity, the average *Fog* in raw documents is 10.025 and the average plain English measure is 0.289. Based on common rules-of-thumb, both scores indicate high textual complexity in the raw documents. The summarized documents become slightly more complex in general, with an average *Fog* index of 10.175 and a plain English measure of 0.290. This phenomenon likely arises because summaries inevitably need to include financial jargon in a relatively shorter document. The changes statistics in Panel A of Table 2 also reveals substantial heterogeneity in the changes in length, sentiment, and readability across MD&As.

We repeat the same analysis for the conference calls sample and report the results in Panels B of Table 2, as well as Figure 3(b). One notable difference is that conference call summaries tend to be relatively longer, i.e., close to 30% of the original transcript, on average. This result is intuitive, given their less structured nature. Unlike MD&As, the call transcripts have, on average, a positive sentiment. Overall, however, the inferences remain qualitatively similar. The summarized sentiment continues to have a higher standard deviation than the raw sentiment, and the summaries become slightly less readable.

## B Detecting Positive vs. Negative Sentiment

The widening of the distribution of sentiment in the summary documents raises the question of whether the summaries capture the sentiment of the original document in a more definitive (precise) way. To test whether there is an amplification of the sentiment in the summarized document, we split our sample based on the median value of raw sentiment.

Table 3 reports these results for MD&As (Panel A) and conference calls (Panel B). Panel A

indicates that when the original's sentiment is above its median value, the summarized document becomes more positive, on average, compared to the original. The last column of the panel indicates that this difference is statistically significant. In contrast, when raw sentiment is below the median value, the summarized sentiment is significantly more negative than the original sentiment. Figure 3(a) helps to visualize these findings. As illustrated in the figure, GPT summarization makes a relatively positive document more positive and a relatively negative document more negative. These results support the notion that GPT summaries amplify the sentiment of the raw documents.

In terms of readability measures, for the above-median sentiment documents, the summaries exhibit a higher Fog index and plain English measure (10.310 and 0.289, respectively) compared to the raw documents (9.690 and 0.284, respectively). Interestingly, for the below-median documents, the summaries are now less complex in terms of Fog index (10.040), which is smaller compared to raw documents (10.362). Comparing the two MD&A partitions yields some insights into this finding. In line with the managerial obfuscation hypothesis (e.g. Li, 2008), firms issue longer and more complex (raw) reports when they deliver negative news. At the same time, the summaries exhibit a relatively more consistent length and readability across the two sub-samples. Combining these observations with previous findings, GPT appears to successfully navigate through the fog in corporate disclosures, producing consistent-quality summaries.

Next, we turn attention to the analysis of the conference call reported in Panel B of Table 3 and Figure 3(b). As in the MD&A sample, we observe that documents with above-median raw sentiment become more positive in their summaries and vice versa. Specifically, the average summary sentiment of the above-median group is 0.424, while the average raw sentiment of the same group is 0.398 (with the difference being statistically significant at the 1% level). In contrast, the average summary sentiment of the below-median group (0.082) is slightly smaller than the corresponding raw sentiment (0.092). Overall, we observe the same asymmetric effect of summarization on sentiment in the conference call sample.

Similar to the MD&A sample, the summarized documents also exhibit an increase in their Fog index. The resulting summaries are ultimately also fairly comparable in terms of their length (2,474 for above-median and 2,125 for below-median) and readability (Fog index of 10.163 versus 10.192 and plain English measure of 0.261 versus 0.261).

Taken together, our evidence suggests that summarization appears to amplify textual sentiment. As in prior studies (e.g. Li, 2008), narrative disclosures dealing with negative news tend to be lengthy and complex. GPT appears to filter out this noise by making negative documents more negative and positive documents more positive, i.e., amplifying their information content. Summarized documents become slightly less readable, however. To shed further light on the informational value of the summarized disclosures, the following subsection examines their information content more directly.

### C Informativeness of Summarized Disclosures

A natural question arising from our previous findings is whether GPT summaries are indeed more informative compared to the originals. As discussed previously, this question is only meaningful from the standpoint of a user with a limited information processing capacity (e.g., Maćkowiak et al., 2023; Veldkamp, 2006; Van Nieuwerburgh and Veldkamp, 2009). We take the perspective of an average investor who reads MD&As and conference call transcripts with the objective of learning key takeaways and their related sentiment.

**Test Design.** We compare raw document sentiment vs. summary sentiment in explaining stock price reactions to disclosure. Intuitively, if the model is effective at summarizing the most relevant information (key takeaways), the sentiment associated with such information should be more descriptive of stock price movements as compared to the sentiment of the entire document. Note that we make an assumption that stock prices are generally efficient at aggregating publicly disclosed information even when individual investors are subject to information processing constraints. Specifically, we estimate the following regression:

$$Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]it} = \beta Sentiment_{it}^j + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{it} + \delta_t + \theta_i + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{8}$$

where  $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]it}$  is firm  $i$ 's cumulative abnormal return over the window of two trading days (starting from the 10-K filing date for MD&As and conference call date for conference calls) at time  $t$ . We calculate abnormal returns by subtracting the value-weighted market returns.  $Sentiment_{it}^j$  is either  $Sentiment_{it}^{Raw}$  (raw document sentiment) or  $Sentiment_{it}^{Sum}$  (summary-based sentiment) of firm  $i$  at time  $t$ .  $\mathbf{X}_{it}$  is a vector of firm-level control variables: the natural logarithm

of market capitalization ( $Log\_ME$ ), the natural logarithm of book-to-market ratio ( $Log\_BE\_ME$ ), institutional holdings ( $Inst\_Own$ ), and scaled earnings surprise ( $SUE$ ).  $\delta_t$  represents year fixed effects for the MD&A sample and year-quarter fixed effects for the conference call sample.  $\theta_i$  represents either firm fixed effects or industry fixed effects at the two-digit Standard Industry Classification (SIC) code level. All continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99% to mitigate the influence of outliers. Standard errors are clustered at the industry level.

**Results.** Table 4 presents our findings. We start by discussing the MD&A sample (Panel A). Columns (1)-(4) examine the informativeness of raw document sentiment (raw sentiment). Columns (1)-(2) explore different fixed effects structures, whereas Columns (3)-(4) condition the sample on whether the sentiment is above (Pos) or below (Neg) the median, provided our prior findings that the two subsamples behave somewhat differently. We observe weak and mostly insignificant associations of raw sentiment with contemporaneous abnormal returns, in line with Frankel et al. (2022). This can happen if MD&As are too “noisy” or if the market had already anticipated and incorporated all information contained in MD&As into the price before its release. The following analysis indicates that the former is a more appropriate explanation.<sup>19</sup>

Columns (5)-(8) use the summary-based sentiment (summary sentiment) as our explanatory variable. We find the striking result that summary sentiment exhibits highly statistically and economically significant associations with abnormal stock returns. This result holds across all models. For example, the coefficient on  $Sentiment^{Sum}$  is 0.025 (standard error = 0.004) for the model with year and industry fixed effects and 0.051 (standard error = 0.009) when we include year and firm fixed effects. The results show considerable economic magnitudes. Based on estimates in column (6), a one standard deviation increase in  $Sentiment^{Sum}$  translates to a 0.336 standard deviation increase in abnormal returns (or 161 basis points). We also find that summaries are more informative for a more negative sub-sample of MD&A sentiment (column (8)) in line with prior evidence that GPT successfully navigates through disclosure fog (recall that negative sentiment is associated with more complex or less readable disclosures). The corresponding adjusted  $R^2$  also increases considerably when we use summarized sentiment.

Overall, we observe a remarkable contrast between the sentiment of the summarized versus

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<sup>19</sup>Since the summary-based sentiment explains the contemporaneous cumulative abnormal returns, it is not likely that all the information embedded in MD&A is already reflected in market prices on the filing date.

the original document in explaining market reactions. Note that, unlike more sophisticated machine-learning-based measures of sentiment (e.g. Frankel et al., 2022), our sentiment was not pre-trained to explain stock returns.

We then turn to the analysis with the conference calls sample tabulated in Panel B. In this sample, raw sentiment exhibits significant positive associations with stock price movement around the conference call date. One exception is that, when we partition the sample based on the median of the raw sentiment, the raw sentiment loses its statistical significance for the below median sub-sample (column (4)).

Nevertheless, columns (5)-(8) indicate that the summary sentiment has stronger associations with abnormal returns, highly significant throughout all specifications. For example, in our most stringent specifications with firm fixed effects (column 2 vs. column 6), the coefficient goes up from 0.050 (raw sentiment) to 0.097 (summary sentiment), and the statistical significance also increases with the calculated t-statistics increasing from 7.14 to 12.13) respectively. The economic magnitude of the summary sentiment implies that a one standard deviation increase in  $Sentiment^{Sum}$  is associated with a 0.32 standard deviation increase in abnormal returns. Furthermore, there is a remarkable increase in adjusted R-squared from 7.3% (raw sentiment) to 14.1% (summary sentiment) for the same model.<sup>20</sup>

It is helpful to visualize these findings semi-parametrically by plotting the average cumulative abnormal returns across sentiment quintiles in Figure 4. For each period, we partition the sample into quintiles based on the value of raw or summary-based sentiment. We then calculate the average cumulative abnormal returns for each quintile and plot the results. The dotted line in Figure 4(a) (the MD&A sample) represents raw sentiment, and the solid line represents the summary sentiment. We do not observe a clear trend in the raw sentiment. In contrast, there is a clear upward trend in the summary-based sentiment. We repeat this exercise with the conference calls sample (Figure 4(b)). Here, we observe a positive slope for both lines, consistent with our regression results. However, the solid line is steeper, implying a stronger positive association between the summary sentiment and stock market reactions.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>20</sup>To mitigate the concern that our finding is due to overreactions, we explore whether our returns experience a reversal for longer windows. Instead of focusing on a two-day window after the filing (conference call) dates, we also report 5-, 15-, and 30-day window returns in Online Appendix Table OA-1. Across different horizons, we observe similar positive coefficients for  $Sentiment^{Sum}$

<sup>21</sup>Since GPT is trained on a wide variety of publicly available information, it is possible that GPT has seen more

*Alternative test samples.* Even though GPT is neither trained to specifically summarize corporate disclosures nor to predict stock performance, one may be concerned that our sample period overlaps with the training period of the language model. This is unlikely to be an issue for our results because the model’s objective, which is to predict the following word in a sentence, has nothing in common with detecting sentiment or explaining stock market movements. To mitigate this concern further, we explicitly direct the model to summarize only the information included in the input text and also use an independent methodology to measure sentiment (Loughran and McDonald, 2011). Nevertheless, we also directly address this concern by performing the analysis using data that originated outside of GPT’s training period.

Specifically, we use our original sample of firms but restrict it to MD&As and conference call transcripts originating in the calendar year 2022. Since GPT stopped training in September 2021, any information generated in 2022 cannot be seen during the training phase. This design presents a clean “out-of-sample” test of the superior information content of the summarized documents. We present the results in Appendix D. We find that the results are similar and, in fact, even more pronounced compared to the results discussed above. We consistently find that the summaries’ sentiment has a substantially greater explanatory power with respect to contemporaneous stock market reactions, as evidenced by higher statistical significance and higher adjusted R-squared values.

Taken together, we find strong support for the claim that language models generate economically useful summaries representing complex textual disclosures in a concise way while retaining and amplifying the information content.

## D Understanding Excised Content

The transformer architecture allows GPT to focus on the most relevant portion of the text and omit less important content (see Section II.B). Following this structure, redundant statements and boilerplate language, which contain little incremental information, should be deleted first.

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information about large companies during its training phase and, hence, generates better summaries for such companies. To test this, we interact firm size with the summarized sentiment in equation (8). As reported in Online Appendix Table OA-2, we observe a negative coefficient on the interaction term for both MD&As and conference calls. This result indicates that summaries are arguably even more helpful for small firms, which mitigates the above concerns. This finding is also consistent with our results in Section V.B in which we show that small firms are more likely to have *bloated* financial disclosures.



Excessive or less relevant details, although they might be useful to some users (e.g., when performing an in-depth analysis), can also be removed or condensed. Our Disney example provided in Appendix B illustrates that GPT is capable of effectively removing or reducing such extraneous content.

To provide more systematic evidence on the deleted content, we perform three additional tests. First, we analyze the reduction in redundant or boilerplate information by measuring the cosine similarity scores of bag-of-words representations of adjacent period pairs. That is, for firm  $i$ , we compute the cosine similarity between time  $t$  and  $t + 1$  raw documents. Similarly, we compute the similarity scores for time  $t$  and  $t + 1$  summaries. We tabulate the results in Appendix C, Panel A. We find that the mean cosine similarity score for two adjacent (raw) MD&As is 85.94, whereas the mean score of the adjacent summaries is 73.51. In the case of conference calls, the mean cosine similarity between two adjacent raw call transcripts is 79.45, while that of the adjacent summaries is 70.75.<sup>22</sup> A considerable reduction in cosine similarity scores is indicative of the reduction in repeated or boilerplate language, suggesting that GPT summaries effectively remove uninformative contents (Cohen et al., 2020).

Second, we calculate the percentage of boilerplate words in the raw and summarized documents following Dyer et al. (2017). Specifically, we obtain the tetragrams (four-word combinations) included in more than 75% of the filings (calls) each year and identify the sentences that contain such common tetragrams. We then calculate the number of words that are included in the boilerplate sentences scaled by the total number of words in each document. The results are in Appendix C Panel A. The boilerplate language use in (raw) MD&A documents is 5.45% in our sample. However, it is reduced to 2.66% in the corresponding summaries. The difference between these two numbers is statistically significant at the 1% level.<sup>23</sup>

Last but not least, we corroborate our quantitative analysis by utilizing GPT to identify the reasons for excised contents. We randomly sample 20 MD&As and 20 conference calls and then instruct GPT to compile the list of reasons for deleted content. For this task, we use GPT-

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<sup>22</sup>A reduction of approximately 10 in pairwise cosine similarity is sizable given that, for example, MD&A reports within the same industry typically have an LDA of around 55.

<sup>23</sup>In line with call transcripts being less subject to boilerplate language, the boilerplate use in raw conference call transcripts is only 1.12% and 1.02% in the corresponding summaries. The difference between the two numbers is not statistically significant.



4.0 to identify the difference between the raw and summarized documents.<sup>24</sup> After obtaining the differences for each document-summary pair, we then prompt GPT to explain why each component is deleted.<sup>25</sup> For MD&As, boilerplate language (32.50%) and repeated statements (18.24%) are the most common reasons for deletion, which is consistent with our findings in Panel A. Other important reasons behind deletions include historical recaps (15.5%) and excessive details (12.9%). For conference calls, excessive details (39.80%) and repeated statements (20.90%) comprise the most common reasons for removing the content, only then followed by boilerplate language (15.93%). Overall, these results indicate that the model is successful at removing less relevant information from the viewpoint of an investor with information processing constraints.

Taken together, our results support the conclusion that summaries tend to distill redundant or excessively detailed information from disclosures.

## V Measuring Disclosure Bloat

The flip side of GPT's remarkable performance in summarizing complex disclosures while preserving the information content is that one can quantify the degree of redundant (or less relevant) information in the original disclosure. Motivated by the conceptual underpinnings in Section II.B, we introduce such a measure. Specifically, *Bloat* is the difference between the length of the original document and that of its summary scaled by the length of the original. Higher *Bloat* is associated with a higher degree of "noise" in the original document. In this section, we analyze *Bloat* and explore its determinants and capital market consequences.

### A Sources of variation in Bloat

**Descriptive Statistics.** In Table 5, Panel A, we provide descriptive statistics for our measure. The average *Bloat* for the MD&A (conference calls) sample is 0.754 (0.685), i.e., 75% (69%) of the original. In other words, GPT considers approximately 70-75% of the disclosed content to be less relevant when trading off its "signal" and "noise" components.<sup>26</sup> We also observe a meaningful

<sup>24</sup>GPT-4.0 avoids the issue that the total input length of the original document plus the summary is a binding constraint. However, it is an order of magnitude more costly, so we do not perform a large-scale investigation

<sup>25</sup>See Online Appendix A for details on the procedure. Additionally, Appendix C provides the full statistics on the deletion reasons.

<sup>26</sup>Note that this does not necessarily indicate that 70% of the disclosure is pure noise. This information can contain details that are generally less relevant from the perspective of a user with information processing costs.

variation in *Bloat*, which is 0.081 (0.126) for the MD&A (conference calls) sample. Overall, we observe a higher *Bloat* for the MD&A than for conference call samples.<sup>27</sup>

Figures 5(a) and 5(b) plot the average *Bloat* for the MD&A and conference calls samples, respectively. We observe several interesting patterns. First, *Bloat* seems to increase slightly over time yet with sizable fluctuations for both samples. Second, we do not observe a high correlation between the changes in disclosure length and *Bloat*. Third, *Bloat* measures computed for MD&A and conference call samples are correlated over time; the Spearman correlation coefficient between annual numbers is 0.70. Lastly, in 2020, we note a steep decline in MD&A *Bloat* and an increase in conference call *Bloat*. We also observe a steep increase in length for both samples. This phenomenon is likely driven by corporate disclosures highlighting the impact of COVID-19.<sup>28</sup>

**Variance Decomposition of *Bloat*.** We next examine how much variation in *Bloat* can be attributed to time-, industry, or firm-specific factors. Panel B of Table 5 reports incremental R-squared after adding different sets of fixed effects. For the MD&A (conference calls) sample, year fixed effects explain only 1.64% (5.19%) of the total variation in *Bloat*. The inclusion of industry fixed effects increases the explained variation by 12.16% (3.36%). A more sizable portion of variance is explained by the interactions between industry and time fixed effects, which account for an additional 16.27% (19.95%) of the total variance. The remaining 69.93% (71.50%) of the total variance is thus attributable to firm-level factors. We zoom in on this firm-level variation at the bottom of Panel B by showing that firm-fixed effects, i.e., time-invariant firm characteristics, explain about 46.23% (35.99%) of firm-level variance. This means that less than half of firm-level variation in *Bloat* is time-varying.<sup>29</sup>

<sup>27</sup>Based on the out-of-sample test in Appendix D, the average *Bloat* is 0.774 for MD&As and 0.731 for conference calls, in line with the estimates reported in Table 5.

<sup>28</sup>Indeed, we manually check several summaries for 2020 and find that almost all of them include COVID-related information to some extent. We interpret this finding as anecdotal evidence that GPT is capable of extracting new, material information and including it in its summaries. Since COVID-19 often had a material impact on firms, GPT is likely to find such information relevant and include it in its summaries, evidenced by a lower *Bloat* in MD&A disclosures. However, our keyword search reveals that more than one analyst usually asks questions about the impact of the pandemic in approximately 40% of the conference calls. GPT likely condenses such repeated contents, resulting in a higher *Bloat*.

<sup>29</sup>However, one alternative explanation for large unexplained variation by firm fixed effects is that our measure potentially has high measurement error. To partially address this issue, we follow Hassan et al. (2019) and estimate the measurement error associated with *Bloat*. Specifically we regress  $Bloat_{it}$  on  $Bloat_{it-1}$  and obtain the coefficient  $\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ . Then we use  $Bloat_{it-2}$  as an instrument of  $Bloat_{it-1}$  and obtain two-stage least squares estimator  $\hat{\beta}^{IV}$ . The measurement error is  $1 - \frac{\hat{\beta}^{OLS}}{\hat{\beta}^{IV}}$ . The estimated measurement error is 8.03% for MD&A *Bloat* and 4.62% for conference call *Bloat*.

**Stickiness in *Bloat*.** To shed additional light on firm-level variation in *Bloat*, we rank firms into quintiles (each period) and then measure the frequencies with which they transition across quintiles in the subsequent period. Panel C focuses on the MD&A reports, whereas Panel D covers conference calls. The  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column intersection ( $c_{ij}$ ) report the fraction of firms that moved from the  $i$ -th quintile in year  $t - 1$  to the  $j$ -th quintile. The diagonal elements show the frequency with which a firm stays in the same quintile.

Both Panels C and D indicate that approximately 35% of companies stay within the same quintile from period to period. Therefore, *Bloat* in corporate disclosures tends to change considerably within the same firm from period to period, but it also exhibits some persistence.

## B Determinants of *Bloat*

**Test Design.** We next examine the economic determinants of *Bloat* by estimating the following OLS regression:

$$Bloat_{it} = \gamma \mathbf{X}_{it} + \delta_t + \theta + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (9)$$

where  $\mathbf{X}_{it}$  is a vector of firm-level determinants. Following Li (2008), we first include several variables that proxy for investment opportunities and incentives to obfuscate disclosed information. Specifically, we include the natural logarithm of market capitalization ( $Log\_ME$ ) and the natural logarithm of book-to-market ( $Log\_BE\_ME$ ) as proxies for firm size or growth opportunities, respectively. We also include the number of analysts following a firm ( $N\_Analyst$ ) and institutional holdings ( $Inst\_Own$ ) to capture differences in the demand for information across companies. Next, we include variables that capture firms' performance and its variability: return-on-assets ( $ROA$ ), the textual sentiment of raw disclosure ( $Sentiment^{raw}$ ), an indicator for whether a firm reports negative earnings ( $Loss$ ), and the standard deviation of seasonally adjusted earnings ( $Earn\_Vol$ ). Broadly, the goal of adding these variables is to capture reporting complexities that come with differences in performance and also possible incentives to make disclosures more opaque when things are not going well.

We also include several textual attributes that measure the readability or complexity of a firm: *Fog* and *Plain\_Eng* proxy for readability, whereas *Log\_Length* and *Complexity* proxies for

business complexity. We follow [Loughran and McDonald \(2023\)](#) to compute *Complexity*. Finally,  $\delta_t$  denotes time (year or year-quarter) fixed effects and  $\theta$  denotes industry or firm fixed effects. All continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99%. Standard errors are clustered at the industry level.

**Results.** We report the results in Table 6. Columns (1) and (2) focus on the MD&A sample. Based on column (1), which conditions on industry and year fixed effects, we find statistically significant coefficients on *Log\_ME*, *Inst\_Own*, *Earn\_Vol*, *ROA*, *Loss*, *Sentiment*, *Log\_Length*, and *Complexity*. A negative coefficient on *Log\_ME* implies that larger firms have less bloated disclosures on average. We further find a positive coefficient on *Loss*, a positive coefficient on *Earn\_Vol*, a negative coefficient on *ROA*, and a negative coefficient on *Sentiment*. Collectively, these relations suggest that *Bloat* increases as performance declines or becomes less stable. However, there are two plausible explanations for this finding: (1) *Bloat* may increase if negative performance is more difficult to explain, or (2) managers may try to obfuscate the bad performance (e.g. [Li, 2008](#); [Loughran and McDonald, 2014a](#)). Although both explanations are plausible, the Disney example in Section II.C is more in line with the second explanation. Next, we observe that document length, *Log\_Length*, and firm complexity, *Complexity*, have a positive and significant relation with *Bloat*. However, economically, the effect is modest. A 10% increase in length corresponds to a 0.008 (or 0.010 standard deviations) increase in *Bloat*. Jointly, the above variables explain about 64.4% of the variation in the MD&A *Bloat*. In column (2), we replace industry fixed effects with firm fixed effects. While the coefficient estimates are generally consistent regardless of the fixed effect structure, the adjusted R-squared increases to 77.1%.<sup>30</sup>

For the conference call analysis, tabulated in columns (3) and (4), the results are generally similar, except that we find a positive and statistically significant coefficient on *Plain\_Eng*, which is likely to reflect disclosure readability. Compared to the MD&A sample, the determinants of conference calls' *Bloat* jointly explain a somewhat lower portion of its variation (about 36.5% without and 55.6% with firm fixed effects).

Overall, we find preliminary evidence that *Bloat* is associated with the financial circumstances of a firm in intuitive ways, which helps to establish its validity. We also find that managers are

<sup>30</sup>The inclusion of document length is one of the reasons for relatively high  $R^2$ . *Bloat* tends to increase with document length, which is intuitive. By dropping *Log\_Length*, the adjusted  $R^2$ s of all specifications decrease by about 30%. Other estimates remain qualitatively similar, however.

more likely to release bloated disclosures when their firm performs worse, which is consistent with the managerial obfuscation hypothesis.

## C Capital Market Consequences

Rich cross-sectional and over-time variation in corporate disclosure bloat, in conjunction with incentives for obfuscation of actual performance, makes it interesting to study the effect of *Bloat* on capital market outcomes. In theory, a reduction in disclosure quality leads to lower liquidity and higher cost of capital (e.g., [Leuz and Verrecchia, 2000](#); [Lambert et al., 2007](#)). Specifically to our measure, the presence of excessively detailed, irrelevant, or redundant information is likely to slow down price discovery and give rise to informational asymmetries among investors trading the stock, e.g., to the extent some investors have better information processing capacity.

**Test Design.** We use three proxies that jointly capture the degree of price informativeness and information asymmetry. First, we calculate the probability of informed trading *PIN* ([Easley et al., 1996](#)) by following the algorithm in [Brown and Hillegeist \(2007\)](#). We use annual PINs for the MD&A and quarterly PINs for conference call samples.<sup>31</sup>

Second, we use abnormal daily bid-ask spreads measured on the announcement day, following [Corwin and Schultz \(2012\)](#). The daily spreads are calculated using intraday indicators, and we use simple-averaged spreads. Subsequently, we measure abnormal bid-ask spreads by taking the difference between the spread on the disclosure date and the average daily spread over the two-week period preceding the disclosure date. This design alleviates potential concerns that firm-year (quarter) characteristics confound our tests.

Third, we use the post-filing volatility of daily stock returns (*Post\_Vol*) as a measure of uncertainty in the informational environment created by firms' poor-quality disclosures ([Loughran and McDonald, 2014a](#)). Following their methodology, we estimate the market model over the period starting six days after the disclosure date and ending 28 days after the disclosure date. We then compute the root-mean-squared error of the residuals to measure post-filing volatility.

To test for informational frictions created by bloated reporting, we estimate the following

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<sup>31</sup>We follow [Lee and Ready \(1991\)](#)'s algorithm to infer the directions of daily trades from the Trade and Quote (TAQ) database. The calculation is performed as follows:  $PIN = \frac{\mu\alpha}{\mu\alpha + 2\varepsilon}$ , where  $\alpha$  is the probability of an information event,  $\mu$  is the trading intensity informed traders, and  $\varepsilon$  is the trading intensity of uninformed traders.

ordinary least squares regression:

$$Info\ Friction_{it} = \beta Bloat_{it} + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{it} + \delta_t + \theta + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (10)$$

where  $Info\ Friction_{it}$  is either  $PIN_{it}$ ,  $Abn\_Spread_{it}$  (abnormal bid-ask spread), or  $Post\_Vol_{it}$  (post-filing volatility),  $\mathbf{X}_{it}$  is a set of firm-level control variables, and  $\delta_t$  stands for time fixed effects and  $\theta$  stands for either firm or industry fixed effects. We use the same set of control variables as in Section IV.B, except that we also include the absolute value of earnings surprise ( $abs\_SUE$ ), Friday indicator ( $Friday$ ), and disclosure date returns ( $One\_Day\_Ret$ ) to control for the news component of the announcement. As before, the standard errors are clustered by industry and all continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99% levels.

**Results.** Table 7 presents the results. Panel A focuses on the MD&A sample. We use industry fixed effects in columns (1), (3), and (5), and firm fixed effects in columns (2), (4), and (6). In line with our expectations, we find that *Bloat* exhibits positive associations with the probability of informed trade, abnormal bid-ask spread, and post-filing volatility. In terms of economic magnitudes, a one standard deviation increase in *Bloat* is associated with a 0.8% point ( $=0.099 \times 0.081$ ) increase in the probability of informed trading, a 4.3% ( $=0.494 \times 0.081$ ) increase in abnormal bid-ask spread, and a 12.2% ( $=\frac{0.027 \times 0.081}{0.018}$ ) increase in post-filing volatility from the mean (these values computed using coefficients in columns (1), (3), and (5), respectively).<sup>32</sup> These are considerable economic magnitudes, which point to an economically important role of disclosure bloat in capital markets. The results remain similar when we focus on within-firm variation in columns (2), (4), and (6).

In Panel B, we repeat the same analysis for the conference calls sample. The inferences are qualitatively similar. A one standard deviation increase in *Bloat* is associated with a 0.4% point ( $=0.034 \times 0.126$ ) increase in the probability of informed trading, a 2.2% ( $=0.172 \times 0.126$ ) higher abnormal bid-ask spread, and a 4.8% ( $=\frac{0.008 \times 0.126}{0.021}$ ) increase in post-filing volatility (computed

<sup>32</sup>In additional tests, we include pre-filing volatility, which is measured between 257 days before the filing and 6 days before the filing, as a control variable when we use post-filing volatility as the dependent variable. Furthermore, in Online Appendix Table OA-3, we estimate abnormal volatility by computing the change between pre- and post-filing volatility (i.e., (post - pre)/pre) and use it as our dependent variable. In the same set of tests, we also use five-day abnormal bid-ask spreads and 29-day volatility, measured from the filing (conference call) dates to 28 days after the filing (call), as alternative outcome variables. Throughout these additional robustness tests, we find consistent results.

using columns (1), (3), and (5), respectively).<sup>33</sup>

Taken together, our results are strongly in line with the theoretical prediction that disclosure bloat hinders effective information transfer between companies and information users.

## VI Analysis of Theme-Specific Summaries

Our final analysis probes another relevant application of GPT by exploiting query-based summaries. A query gives a specific set of instructions to a machine when performing summarization. GPT is known to successfully perform query-based summaries without further fine-tuning or training, so-called zero-shot prompts (Yang et al., 2023). We instruct GPT to prepare summaries specifically related to financial and non-financial performance. We then examine their informativeness.

### A Construction of Theme-Specific Summaries

Our targeted summaries aim to distinguish between financial and ESG performance. We only focus on conference call transcripts for this analysis because ESG discussions are not as common within MD&As, whereas conference call transcripts typically have a broader scope and feature discussions of environmental and social issues (Hassan et al., 2019; Sautner et al., 2023).

We use the unconstrained summaries performed by GPT as a starting point and further instruct the model to extract information about specific aspects of a firm’s disclosed performance.<sup>34</sup> When writing the prompts, we ask the model to summarize information about ESG or

<sup>33</sup>In addition to the tabulated proxies, we also use intraperiod timeliness (*IPT*), following Butler et al. (2007), to measure the speed of price discovery. *IPT* is calculated over a five-day window relative to filing or conference call dates based on the following formula:

$$IPT_{[0,5]} = \sum_{i=0}^4 \left( \frac{Abn\_Ret_{[0,i]}}{Abn\_Ret_{[0,5]}} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \quad (11)$$

where  $Abn\_Ret_{[0,i]}$  denotes cumulative abnormal returns from day 0 to day  $i$ . We use market-adjusted abnormal returns in the calculation of  $Abn\_Ret_{[0,i]}$ . Intuitively, a higher *IPT* indicates faster price discovery after a release of certain information. In untabulated tests, we find that *Bloat* is negatively associated with *IPT*, implying that high *Bloat* is associated with slower price discovery, consistent with Cohen et al. (2020).

<sup>34</sup>We perform summaries on summaries to economize on estimation time and cost both of which are proportional to the number of summaries and number of input tokens. The original summaries are optimized to contain the most relevant information only. Thus, if the algorithm considers ESG or financial performance as less important or noisy, it should have discarded it in the initial summarization step. Therefore, besides relaxing the processing constraints of GPT, extracting theme-specific information from the pre-processed summaries guarantees that we identify highly important information only.



financial performance without any additional explanations of these concepts. Instead, we rely on GPT’s “understanding” of these concepts.<sup>35</sup> Although a more complex prompt might yield even stronger results, we aim to establish a baseline effect for targeted summaries. We discuss additional implementation details in Appendix E.

To assess the face validity of the summaries, Appendix F provides several snippets taken from ESG- and financial-performance-related summaries. In the case of ESG, we observe that firms discuss greenhouse gas emissions, environmental sustainability, renewable energy, etc. In the case of financial performance, the discussion is mainly related to operations, earnings, cash flows, fluctuations in revenue, etc. Based on these examples, the contents of theme-specific summaries seem to be aligned with our objectives.

## B Attributes of Financial- vs. ESG-related Summaries

We start by examining time trends in performance summary attributes. Following a sharp rise in ESG-related attention among investors, we expect the proportion of summaries that contain ESG-related information to increase over time. In contrast, because financial performance constitutes the basis of firm valuation, we expect financial performance to be featured in most summaries.

Table 8, Panel A, provides summary statistics illustrating the information content of the financial and ESG-related summaries.  $\%ESG$  represents the percentage of non-empty ESG-related summaries (an empty summary is generated when GPT determines there is no relevant information to summarize), whereas  $\%Fin$  represents the percentage of non-empty financial-performance-related summaries. Recall that we perform summaries on summaries, which ensures that only the most salient information is retained.  $lenESG$  and  $lenFin$  are the length of ESG-performance-related and financial-performance-related summaries, respectively, scaled by the length of the original summarized document. We find that summaries of financial performance are almost always non-empty. At the same time, the frequency of non-empty ESG sum-

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<sup>35</sup>As a validation exercise, we ask GPT to compose an artificial earnings conference call transcript that features the discussion of ESG (or financial performance). We include the full text of this “constructed” transcript in Appendix E. As can be seen from the example, the model understands the concept of ESG and financial performance without any further directions to narrow down its answers. Additionally, we instruct the model to use only the information provided by the input text to ensure that it does not make up or refer to other topics of information when it fails to find ESG- or financial-performance-related information from a given text.



maries varies between 15% and 38% over time. Only 20.37% of the original summaries contained ESG-related information in 2009. This number gradually increased to 38.20% in 2020. Similarly, the length of ESG summaries has increased gradually from 1.29% of the original summary in 2009 to 5.00% of the original summary in 2020. In contrast, the length of financial summaries does not exhibit a systematic trend.

We visualize these results in Figure 6(a). The left-hand-side depicts the time trend for %ESG and *lenESG* and the right-hand-side depicts %Fin and *lenFin*. One can observe a positive time trend in ESG-related summary characteristics, while this is not the case for financial summaries.

**Informativeness.** To examine the informativeness of theme-specific summaries to investors, we use them to generate ESG-performance-related sentiment ( $Sentiment^{ESG}$ ) and financial-performance-related sentiment ( $Sentiment^{Fin}$ ), using the same definition of sentiment as in Section IV.A. We then run the following ordinary least squares regression by year:

$$Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]it} = \beta_1 Sentiment_{it}^j + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{it} + \delta_t + \theta_j + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (12)$$

where  $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]it}$  is the cumulative abnormal return around the conference call date,  $Sentiment_{it}^j$  is either  $Sentiment_{it}^{ESG}$  (ESG sentiment) or  $Sentiment_{it}^{Fin}$  (financial sentiment),  $\mathbf{X}_{it}$  is the same set of firm-level controls as used in Table 4,  $\delta_t$  stands for quarter fixed effects and  $\theta_j$  stands for industry fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered by industry and all continuous variables at winsorized at 1% and 99%.

Table 8, Panel B reports the results. Columns (1) and (2) report annual coefficient estimates and  $t$ -values for  $Sentiment^{ESG}$ .<sup>36</sup> From 2009 to 2014, we find insignificant coefficients with the exception of 2012 (coefficient = 0.035,  $t$ -value = 2.99). Several coefficients are even negative (although statistically indistinguishable from zero). However, starting in 2015, the coefficients related to ESG sentiment turn positive and gradually increase in both magnitude and statistical significance. In 2020, the coefficient reaches 0.070 with a  $t$ -value of 4.06. At the bottom of the panel, we report the estimates from the pooled (full sample) estimation. We observe a positive coefficient of 0.022 ( $t$ -value = 3.49) on  $Sentiment^{ESG}$ . The last row shows that the observed time trend is statistically significant, indicating a steady increase in the importance of ESG-related

<sup>36</sup>In this section only, we report  $t$ -values instead of standard errors. This change is implemented to facilitate the interpretation of our  $t$ -value time trend analysis.

information from 2009 to 2020.<sup>37</sup>

Columns (3) and (4) report the estimates and  $t$ -values for  $Sentiment^{Fin}$ . Unlike for ESG sentiment, we observe positive and statistically significant coefficients on  $Sentiment^{Fin}$  throughout the sample period (one exception is 2009, where the coefficient loses statistical significance but remains economically important). In the full sample analysis, we also find a positive and statistically significant coefficient (0.026) on  $Sentiment^{Fin}$  ( $t$ -value = 10.41). The  $t$ -statistic is higher than that of  $Sentiment^{ESG}$ . Interestingly, we also observe a positive and statistically significant time trend (0.209 with a  $t$ -value of 2.94) for financial sentiment, although it is not as pronounced as for ESG sentiment.

Figure 6(b) helps to visualize these findings. The left-hand side of the figure shows a time trend in the coefficients over time. The solid line, which represents yearly coefficients on  $Sentiment^{ESG}$ , shows a strong increasing time trend. Similarly, the dotted line, which represents yearly coefficients on  $Sentiment^{Fin}$ , also shows some increasing time trend yet not as strong as in the ESG sentiment. On the right-hand-side, we observe that the  $t$ -values related to  $Sentiment^{ESG}$  and  $Sentiment^{Fin}$  exhibit similar increasing time trends.

Overall, we find that GPT’s query-based summaries effectively extract important topical information of interest for a broader stakeholder base. Thus, generative AI shows promise in providing standardized insights on important firm-level topics.

## VII Conclusion

We probe the economic usefulness of large language models using financial markets as a laboratory. By summarizing a large sample of corporate disclosures with GPT-3.5-Turbo, we show that the length of the summaries is shortened by as much as 70-75%, on average. Importantly, the obtained summaries appear to provide more relevant insights as compared to the underlying raw documents. Specifically, we show that the summary-based sentiment better explains stock market reactions to disclosed information than the raw document sentiment. Building on this insight, we construct a novel and easy-to-implement measure of the degree of “bloat” in corporate disclosures. Disclosure bloat exhibits rich heterogeneity across firms and over time and varies

<sup>37</sup>We estimate the following model:  $t\text{-value}_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{Year}_t + \epsilon_t$  and report  $\hat{\gamma}_1$  accompanied by its heteroskedasticity-robust  $t$ -statistics.

intuitively with its economic determinants. We show that bloated disclosures are associated with higher price efficiency and higher information asymmetry, thus implying negative capital market consequences. Finally, we show that GPT is useful to investors interested in targeted summaries related to topics such as firms' ESG activities.

Our results indicate that investors can utilize generative AI systems to cut through the clutter of corporate disclosures. Over the past decades, corporate disclosures have been increasing in length and complexity and investors often do not have the capacity to fully process disclosed information in a timely manner (e.g. [Blankespoor et al., 2020](#); [Cohen et al., 2020](#)). Our findings suggest that generative language models show promise in dealing with this information overload. Summaries generated by GPT are significantly shorter while they retain and amplify the main takeaways. Such AI tools should be beneficial for investors in making more informed investment decisions. Although investors can seek out tools like ChatGPT themselves, regulators or information intermediaries could build the infrastructure to provide on-demand summaries to facilitate the informational efficiency of capital markets. This presents an alternative to a two-tier reporting system featuring financial summaries that the SEC considered in the 1980s and 1990s to deal with informational overload ([SEC, 1995](#); [FASB, 1995](#)).

Finally, by relying on recent advancements in generative AI, we develop a simple and intuitive measure of the degree to which textual information contains redundancies and irrelevant or excessive details. Due to its straightforward nature, our methodology can be easily implemented for any other type of corporate communication (e.g., press releases, job postings, and websites). Additionally, as textual data has become ubiquitous in many disciplines (e.g. [Gentzkow et al., 2019](#)), our approach can prove useful in non-corporate settings (e.g., news outlets).

In closing, we note that our results are subject to an important caveat. Generative output may contain inaccuracies or nonsensical information ("hallucinations"). This issue has been raised in various generative AI applications and generally arises due to the probabilistic nature of the model. Compared to other tasks, however, summarization relies on the specific context (e.g., the MD&A section) and, therefore, is less subject to this concern (e.g. [Pu et al., 2023](#)). Nevertheless, while the summaries are informative based on statistical criteria, information users should view summaries only as an input and need to verify critical information before making decisions.

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## Appendix A. Variable Descriptions

Name	Description
<i>Bloat</i>	The difference between the length of the original document and summarized documents, scaled by the length of the original document.
<i>Length</i>	The number of words contained in a document.
<i>Sentiment<sup>Raw</sup></i>	Textual sentiment of a raw document calculated using financial keyword dictionaries provided by <a href="#">Loughran and McDonald (2011)</a> .
<i>Sentiment<sup>Sum</sup></i>	Textual sentiment of a summarized document calculated using financial keyword dictionaries provided by <a href="#">Loughran and McDonald (2011)</a> .
<i>Fog</i>	Fog readability index calculated based on <a href="#">Gunning (1952)</a> , adjusted for financial terms, with higher values indicating less readable text.
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	Plain English readability measure based on the methodology in <a href="#">Loughran and McDonald (2014b)</a> with higher values indicating less readable text. Specifically, we add the following components: (i) the average number of words per sentence, (ii) the average number of characters per word, (iii) the number of passive voice verbs scaled by the document length, (iv) number of pronouns scaled by the document length, and (v) number of the word “respectively” scaled by the document length.
<i>Complexity</i>	A measure of firm complexity as used in <a href="#">Loughran and McDonald (2023)</a> .
<i>Abn.Ret<sub>[0,1]</sub></i>	Market adjusted cumulative abnormal returns accumulated over two days starting from the filing date to a day after the filing date.
<i>PIN</i>	Probability of informed trading calculated following <a href="#">Easley et al. (1996)</a> . Buy and sell directions are imputed using <a href="#">Lee and Ready (1991)</a> ’s algorithm. We use quarterly <i>PIN</i> for the conference calls sample and annual <i>PIN</i> for the MD&A sample.
<i>Abn.Spread</i>	The difference in the bid-ask spread on the disclosure date and the average bid ask spread calculated over a two-week window preceding the disclosure date.
<i>Post_Vol</i>	The root mean squared error of residuals (abnormal returns) from the market model ( <a href="#">Loughran and McDonald, 2014a</a> ). We estimate the RMSE using daily returns data starting from day 6 and ending on day 28 following the disclosure date.
<i>Log_ME</i>	The natural logarithm of the market capitalization.
<i>Log_BE_ME</i>	The natural logarithm of the book-to-market ratio.
<i>N_Analyst</i>	The number of analysts following the firm.
<i>Inst_Own</i>	Institutional ownership based on 13-F filings. Missing data is set to zero.
<i>Earn_Vol</i>	Earnings volatility calculated as the standard deviation of earnings (net income) scaled by averaged total assets. Earnings are measured annually over the preceding five years. For quarterly data, we use earnings for the same quarter in preceding five years.
<i>Loss</i>	An indicator variable that equals one when a firm reports negative earnings.
<i>ROA</i>	Return (net income) scaled by total assets.
<i>One_Day_Ret</i>	Raw return on the filing date (conference call date).
<i>Price</i>	The price of a stock measured as of the fiscal period end date.
<i>SUE</i>	Earnings surprise calculated as the difference between reported earnings-per-share and the analyst consensus forecast from the end of the prior quarter, scaled by the stock price as of the fiscal period end date. We require at least three distinct analyst estimates.
<i>Abs_SUE</i>	Absolute value of earnings surprise, <i>SUE</i> .
<i>Friday</i>	An indicator variable that equals one when the reporting date is Friday.
<i>%Fin</i>	The percentage of summaries that contain financial-performance-related information.
<i>%ESG</i>	The percentage of summaries that contain ESG-performance-related information.
<i>lenFin</i>	Length of the financial summary scaled by the total length of the summary.
<i>lenESG</i>	Length of ESG summary scaled by the total length of the summary.
<i>Sentiment<sup>Fin</sup></i>	Sentiment of financial-performance-related summaries.
<i>Sentiment<sup>ESG</sup></i>	Sentiment of ESG-performance-related summaries.

## Appendix B. 2022-Q4 Disney Transcript

This figure depicts the process of summarizing conference call transcripts with GPT, specifically using Disney's 2022-Q4 earnings call as a case study. Panel A shows the initial segment of Bob Chapek's presentation. It has the same upbeat messaging, but retains the information about operating losses in the summary. Panel B then shows the summarization of the more "bloated" second part of his speech. As highlighted with the red box, more than two paragraphs about extraneous celebratory events are absorbed into a single short sentence.

### Panel A. Beginning of the CEO's Presentation

[...] Thank you, Alexia and good afternoon everyone. Fiscal 2022 was a strong year for our company as we continued our journey of telling incredible Disney stories, utilizing groundbreaking technology in order to further develop our brands and franchises while customizing and personalizing experiences to make magical memories that last a lifetime. Those efforts resulted in truly phenomenal storytelling, record annual results at our Parks, Experiences and Products segment, and outstanding growth at our Direct-to-Consumer services, which added nearly 57 million subscriptions this year to reach a total of more than 235 million.

We are particularly pleased with growth in the fourth quarter, which saw the addition of 14.6 million subscriptions across our suite of services including 12 million Disney+ subscriptions, over 9 million of which were core Disney+. It has taken just 3 short years for Disney+ to transform from a nascent business to an industry leader. That transformation is the direct result of the strategic decision we made at launch to heavily invest in our Direct-to-Consumer offering, a decision made knowing that achieving rapid growth would result in short-term losses.

Building a streaming powerhouse has required significant investment. And now with its scale, incredible content pipeline and global reach, Disney+ is well situated to leverage our position for long-term profitability and success. Our financial results this quarter represent a turning point as we reached peak DTC operating losses, which we expect to decline going forward. That expectation is based on 3 factors.

First, the benefit of both price increases and the launch of a Disney+ ad tier next month. Second, a realignment of our cost, including meaningful rationalization of our marketing spend. And third, leveraging our learnings and experience in direct-to-consumer to optimize our content slate and distribution approach to deliver a steady state of high-impact releases that efficiently drive engagement and subscriber acquisition.

With these factors, we believe we are on a path to profitable streaming business that generates shareholder value long into the future. And assuming we do not see a meaningful shift in the economic climate, we still expect Disney+ to achieve profitability in fiscal 2024 as losses begin to shrink in the first quarter of fiscal 2023. Christine will go into more detail on the drivers of our direct-to-consumer operating performance and provide more insight into our expectations going forward and some of our key assumptions. But first, I'd like to share a few highlights from the quarter. [...]

[...] One of the noteworthy highlights of the fiscal year 2022 was the outstanding performance of the Parks, Experiences, and Products division. Nevertheless, the most remarkable achievement was the substantial growth in Disney's Direct-to-Consumer services. The company reported a significant increase of almost 57 million subscriptions, pushing the total to over 235 million. This surge in subscriptions, including a notable gain of 14.6 million in the fourth quarter, with 12 million attributed to Disney+, can be attributed to their strategic investments in the Direct-to-Consumer segment. Achieving such substantial growth did require some short-term sacrifices, but Disney remained committed. They made substantial investments in Disney+ to transform it into a formidable streaming platform with an extensive content library and global accessibility. Despite recent operating losses for Disney+, there is optimism that these losses will decrease due to price adjustments, the introduction of ad-supported tiers, cost optimization, and strategic content releases. However, fiscal 2022 wasn't solely about streaming success. [...]

### Panel B. Continuation of the CEO's Presentation

[...] Q4 was another strong period for Parks, Experiences and Products, which continue to deliver phenomenal results despite the impact of Hurricane Ian. I want to thank the amazing cast members in Orlando who went above and beyond to help keep our guests safe and entertained during the storm. From protecting the many animals at Disney Animal Kingdom to packing thousands of meal kits, to donating and delivering emergency supplies to the community, I am so proud of how our team came together to support our guests, our neighbors and each other.

Our Parks team is laser focused on enhancing the guest experience in creating those magical memories I mentioned at the outset. This focus, along with the investments we made to bringing new attractions and experiences to our domestic parks, is generating consistently strong demand, which, on many days, exceeds our current capacity. And we continue to manage attendance levels with a focus on providing guests with the highest quality experience in enhancing our Park's overall financial performance.

One of the things our guests love most is the opportunity to celebrate at our parks, as evidenced by the post-pandemic return and sell-out of special ticketed events like Boogie Boogie Bash and Mickey's Not So Scary Halloween party. I visited Disneyland with my family just before Halloween and the celebration was phenomenal. Tickets for Mickey's Very Merry Christmas party at Walt Disney World has now officially gone on sale and over half of all dates have already sold out.

As you know, we are about to embark on the company's 100th anniversary celebration. The fun kicks off in our parks on January 27 at Disneyland, where we'll unveil new platinum infused decor, Premier II, all new nighttime spectaculars and opened a highly anticipated Mickey & Minnie's Runaway Railway attraction. This is only one part of what will be the largest cross-company celebration in Disney's history with activations around the world, and we're so excited for fans and families to join us.

At our international parks, Disneyland Paris is enjoying a great resurgence. Our fantastic new Marvel Avengers Campus opened on July 20, and guests love a highly immersive and dynamic environment of the first-ever Marvel-themed land in Europe. Prior to the recent closure of Shanghai Disney Resort, we are seeing positive momentum there and at Hong Kong Disneyland. We are hopeful that the situation will improve and are thinking of all of our employees there as we manage through the challenging COVID environment. Our Disney Cruise line is showing strong signs of recovery. The new Disney Wish is in high demand, and we've seen a ramp-up in bookings for our base fleet. [...]

[...] Despite the challenges posed by Hurricane Ian, the Parks, Experiences, and Products segment exhibited resilience. The Orlando team demonstrated remarkable dedication by ensuring guest safety, protecting animals, and providing community assistance during the storm. Their focus on enhancing guest experiences remained a top priority, leading to investments in new attractions and experiences, even as they managed overwhelming demand. Celebratory events also gained immense popularity. Disney's international ventures also thrived. Disneyland Paris benefited from the Marvel Avengers Campus, and the Asian parks performed well before unexpected closures. Disney Cruise Line, especially the new Disney Wish, experienced high demand. [...]



## Appendix C. Excised Content

Panel A compares the degree of boilerplate language usage between the raw and summarized documents. Cosine Similarity<sub>t, t+1</sub> denotes the cosine similarity scores of firm *i*'s year *t* and *t* + 1 filings (conference call transcripts), averaged over all *is* and *ts*. Boilerplate % is the average percentage of words included in boilerplate sentences as defined in [Dyer et al. \(2017\)](#). \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Panel B illustrates why some contents are deleted from the raw documents to generate summaries. We obtain these percentages by instructing GPT to classify the reasons for differences between the raw document and its summary (see Online Appendix A for details). Panel B1 shows the reasons for deletion in MD&As and Panel B2 shows the reasons for deletion in conference calls.

<b>Panel A. Boilerplate</b>			
<b>A1. MD&amp;As</b>			
Metrics	Raw Document	Summarized Document	Difference
Cosine Similarity <sub>t, t+1</sub>	85.94	73.51	12.43***
Boilerplate %	5.45%	2.66%	2.79%***
<b>A2. Conference Calls</b>			
Metrics	Raw Document	Summarized Document	Difference
Cosine Similarity <sub>t, t+1</sub>	79.45	70.75	8.70***
Boilerplate %	1.12%	1.02%	0.10%
<b>Panel B. Deleted Reasons</b>			
<b>B1. MD&amp;As</b>			
Reason	Count		
Excessive Details	16.80%		
Repeated Statements	18.24%		
General Market Overview	3.15%		
Boilerplate Languages	32.50%		
Historical Recaps	15.20%		
Other Reasons	14.11%		
Total	100.00%		
<b>B2. Conference Calls</b>			
Reason	Count		
Excessive Details	39.80%		
Repeated Statements	20.90%		
General Market Overview	5.47%		
Boilerplate Languages	15.92%		
Historical Recaps	9.95%		
Other Reasons	7.96%		
Total	100.00%		

## Appendix D. Out-of-Sample Tests

This table reports the association between the textual sentiment and two-day cumulative abnormal returns for samples in calendar year 2022. In columns (1) and (2), we use random samples chosen from the MD&A disclosures. In columns (3) and (4), we use random samples chosen from conference call transcripts. As control variables, we include *Log\_ME*, *Log\_BE\_ME*, *Inst\_Own*, and *SUE*. Industry definition is based on two-digit SIC codes. Standard errors are clustered at the industry level and are reported within parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. Continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99%.

Dependent Variable = $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]}$				
	MD&A		Conference Call	
	Raw (1)	Summarized (2)	Raw (3)	Summarized (4)
<i>Sentiment<sup>Raw</sup></i>	0.011 (0.023)		0.073*** (0.020)	
<i>Sentiment<sup>Sum</sup></i>		0.082*** (0.027)		0.144*** (0.018)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	No	No	No
Industry FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Cluster	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind
N	221	221	552	552
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.008	0.064	0.124	0.216

## Appendix E. Theme-Specific Summaries

For our query-based summaries, we add a prompt to prevent the model from including other topics if it is not able to identify the requested information (e.g., ESG-related information). We explicitly instruct the model to print out NA when there is no information available and provide a related example (one-shot training), which in our experience improves the quality of theme-specific summaries. The full prompts for the targeted summaries are provided in Online Appendix A. Note that these prompts do not specify the concept of ESG or financial performance. Thus, to validate GPT’s understanding of ESG and financial performance concepts, we ask it to write a paragraph in a hypothetical conference call transcript: “Imagine that you are a CEO of a company. You are holding an earnings conference call. Write a paragraph of the conference call transcript that talks about ESG (financial) performance.”

Topic	Generated Script
ESG	Ladies and gentlemen, thank you for joining us on today’s earnings conference call. I am pleased to share that our company has made significant progress in our Environmental, Social, and Governance (ESG) performance this quarter. Through our investments in sustainable technologies and resource management, we have managed to reduce our carbon footprint by 18% year-on-year, surpassing our initial target of 12%. Our commitment to diversity and inclusion has resulted in a 25% increase in underrepresented groups within our workforce, and we have implemented comprehensive training programs to foster a culture of respect and equal opportunity. In terms of governance, we have strengthened our board’s oversight with the addition of two independent directors, who bring with them deep expertise in sustainable business practices. Our focus on ESG not only underscores our commitment to responsible corporate citizenship, but also strategically positions our company for long-term growth and profitability in a rapidly evolving global market.
Financial	Ladies and gentlemen, thank you for joining us on today’s earnings conference call. I am delighted to share that our company has delivered a robust financial performance this quarter, driven by strong operational execution and a continued focus on innovation. Our revenues have grown by 15% year-on-year, reaching \$4.2 billion, with a 20% increase in net income at \$850 million. This outstanding performance reflects the success of our strategic investments in high-growth markets and the expansion of our product and service offerings. Furthermore, our adjusted EBITDA margin has improved by 250 basis points to 30%, primarily due to the ongoing optimization of our cost structure and efficiency gains across our operations. Our balance sheet remains healthy, with a net debt-to-EBITDA ratio of 1.5x, providing ample liquidity and financial flexibility to support our future growth initiatives. We are confident in our ability to continue delivering value to our shareholders, and as a testament to this confidence, we are raising our full-year guidance for both revenue and earnings per share.

## Appendix F. Sample Summaries

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**Panel A. Snippets from a sample summary (ESG-performance-specific)**

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[...] The company's success can be attributed to its focus on renewals and the introduction of innovative products, including mobile solutions and privacy technology. Norton has initiated its journey towards Digital Safety by introducing new offerings that focus on ESG, such as Wi-Fi privacy and Norton Core, a home IT security and next-generation parental control solution. [...]

[...] The shift to FIFO is expected to provide greater transparency and accuracy in inventory valuation, which will enhance the company's ability to manage its supply chain and reduce waste. [...]

[...] The technology delivery company is committed to improving its environmental capabilities to assist clients in achieving their emission reduction objectives. The company remained committed to advancing clean energy technologies to help their clients reduce their carbon footprint. The company is committed to reducing its greenhouse gas emissions and has implemented various measures to achieve this goal. These measures include facility consolidations, employee remote work options, and increased recycling efforts. [...]

[...] The team behind the project has developed a new set of risk governance models and tools with the aim of assisting members in managing risks while also maximizing the business value of information. CEB researchers made a significant impact at the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology event in Houston by leading 63 of the panels. This event provided a platform for the company to showcase its expertise in the field of organizational psychology. [...]

[...] The Kroger Co. Foundation and the Zero Hunger — Zero Waste Foundation will each receive an equal share of the funds. This decision reflects the company's commitment to addressing issues such as hunger and waste, and its dedication to making a positive impact in the communities it serves. The company allocated \$5 million to a fund aimed at promoting racial equity and justice. The fund is expected to support initiatives that address systemic discrimination and inequality in society. [...]

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**Panel B. Snippets from a sample summary (Financial-performance-specific)**

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[...] The company had a strong quarter with 17% year-over-year revenue growth to 47.7 million, non-GAAP gross margin of 70.2% and non-GAAP net income of \$0.02 per share. There is no further information on financial performance. In Q2, the company's total revenue increased 17% year-over-year to \$47.7 million, with product revenue increasing 14% year-over-year to \$38.9 million and professional services and support revenue increasing 53% year-over-year to \$8.5 million. [...]

[...] The company had cost-reduction initiatives and lower input costs that helped offset the impact of reduced volumes. Net interest expense was down from last year due to lower borrowings and a drop in interest rates. The company expects to recover most of the additional cash taxes paid in the next two quarters in 2010 due to a recent tax law change allowing a five-year carryback of operating losses. [...]

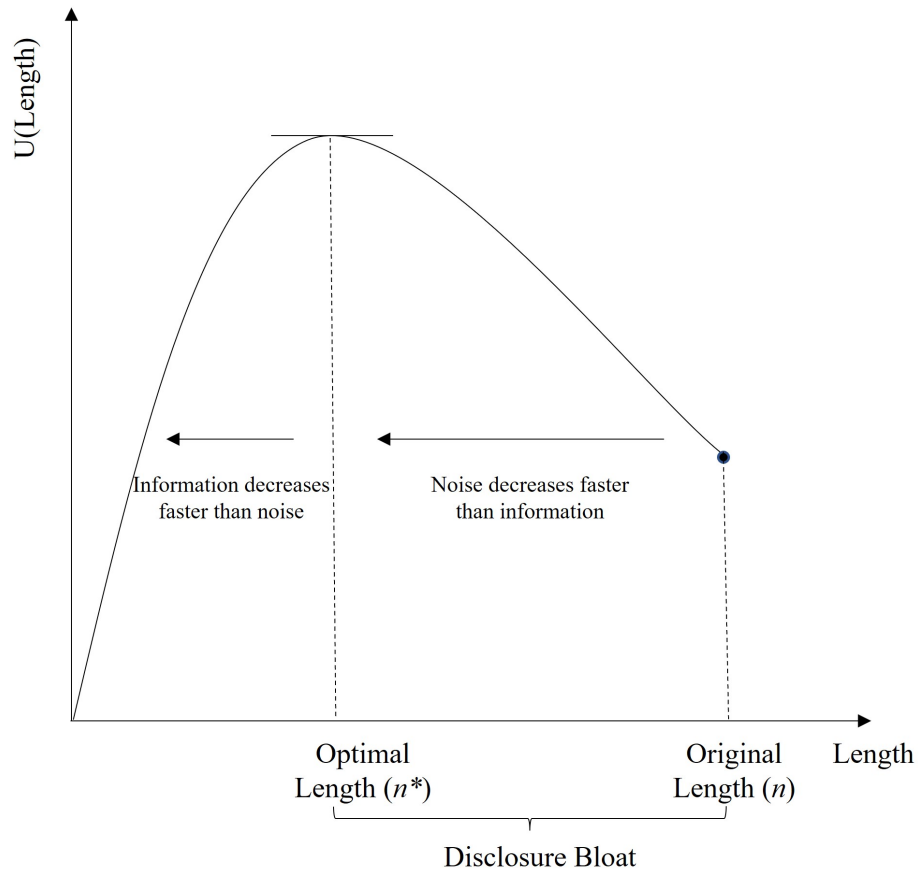
[...] The company expects the conditions seen in the first quarter to continue into the second quarter and will be taking some actions to reorganize some of its operations in the segments, with total costs to be incurred related to this to be in the area of \$6 million. These charges will be recorded in the quarter in which they are recognizable for accounting purposes. Annual savings from these actions are projected to be in the area of \$3 million pretax, with most of the savings expected to be realized in the beginning of next year. [...]

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## Figure 1. Visual Illustration of Disclosure Bloat

This figure illustrates the conceptual underpinning of our bloat measure. The horizontal axis is the length of each document with  $n$  being the original length. The length of the summarized document is denoted as  $n^*$ . The vertical axis is the utility of an investor who processes a document of length  $k$ .

Figure 1. Visual Illustration of Disclosure Bloat



## Figure 2. Disney’s Disclosure Bloat over Time

This figure illustrates the time series of Disney’s *Bloat* from 2015 until 2023-Q2. Figure 2(a) shows the disclosure bloat based on a representative draw of our summarization algorithm. Figure 2(b) shows the same information, but also reports 95% confidence intervals based on 50 repetitions of our summarization algorithm.

Figure 2(a). Disney’s Disclosure Bloat over Time

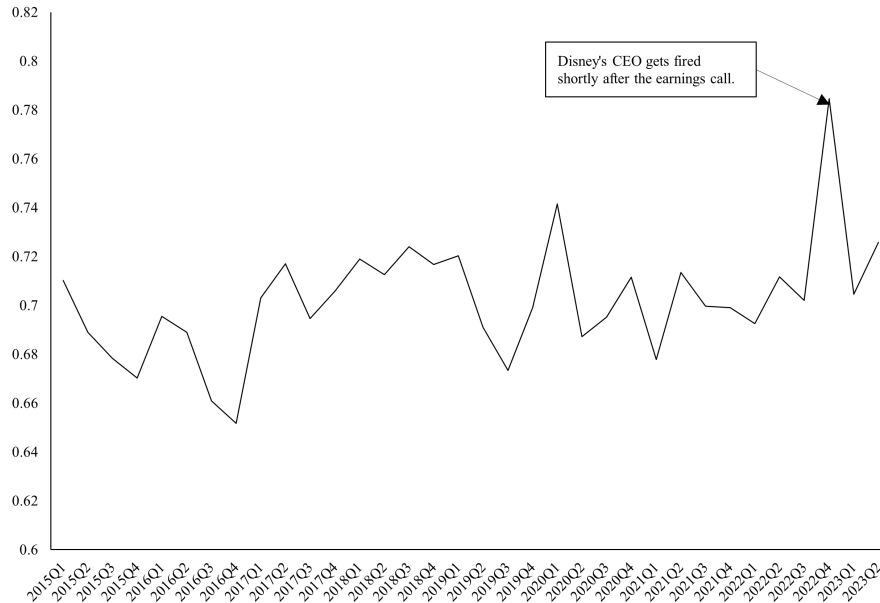
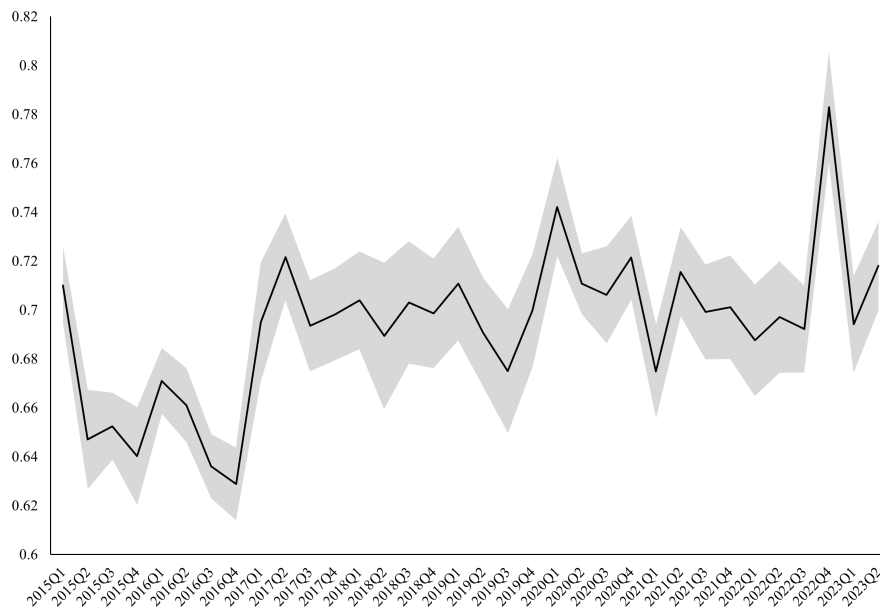


Figure 2(b). Disney’s Disclosure Bloat over Time with 95% Confidence Intervals



### Figure 3. Changes in Average Length and Sentiment

This figure illustrates the changes in average length and sentiment before and after the summarization. AboveMed (BelowMed) refers to the observations that are above (below) the median value of sentiment (e.g., AboveMed length is the average length of the documents whose sentiment is larger than the median and AboveMed sentiment is the average sentiment of the documents whose sentiment is larger than the median). Bar charts represent the length and line graphs represent the sentiment of the documents. Figure 3(a) uses the MD&A sample and Figure 3(b) uses the conference call sample. Refer to Appendix A for variable descriptions.

Figure 3(a). Changes in Average Length and Sentiment (MD&A Sample)

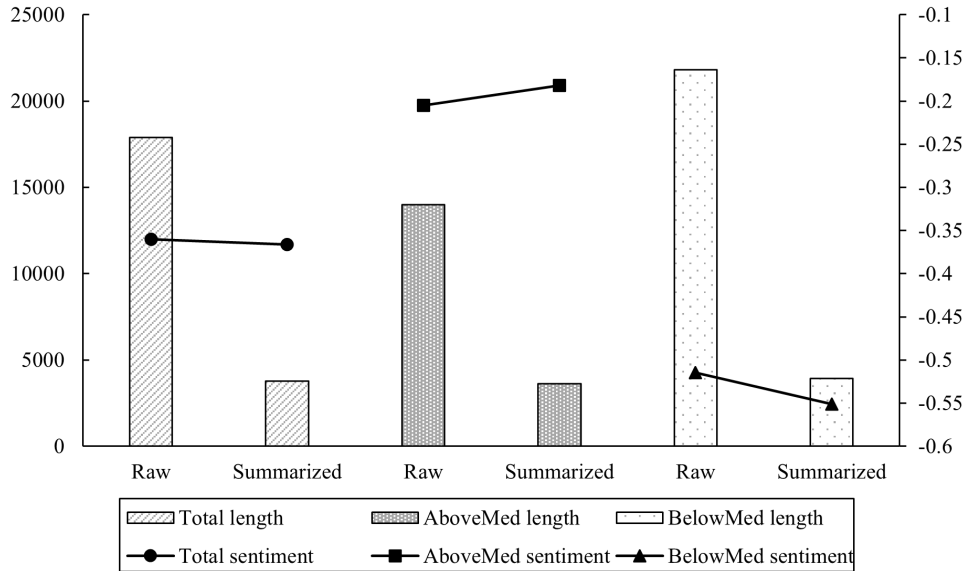
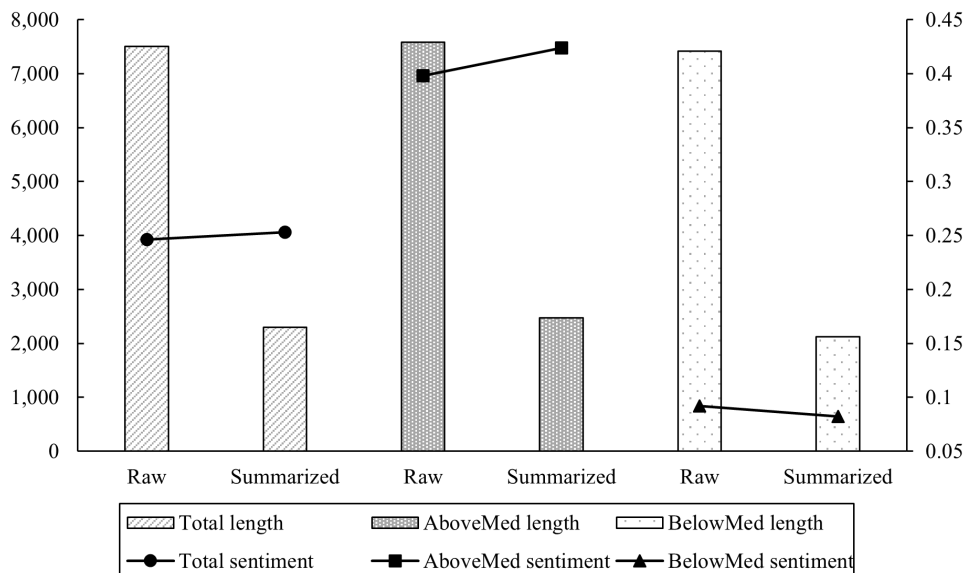


Figure 3(b). Changes in Average Length and Sentiment (Conference Call Sample)



## Figure 4. Abnormal Returns and Sentiment

This figure illustrates the averaged cumulative abnormal returns over two days (filing date and one day after) across sentiment quintiles. For each period, we partition the sample into quintiles based on the value of raw or summarized sentiment. Then we calculate the average cumulative abnormal returns for each quintile and plot the results. The dotted line in Figures represents raw sentiment, and the solid line represents the summary sentiment. Figure 4(a) uses the MD&A sample and Figure 4(b) uses the conference call sample. Refer to Appendix A for variable descriptions.

Figure 4(a). Abnormal Returns and Sentiment Quintiles (MD&A Sample)

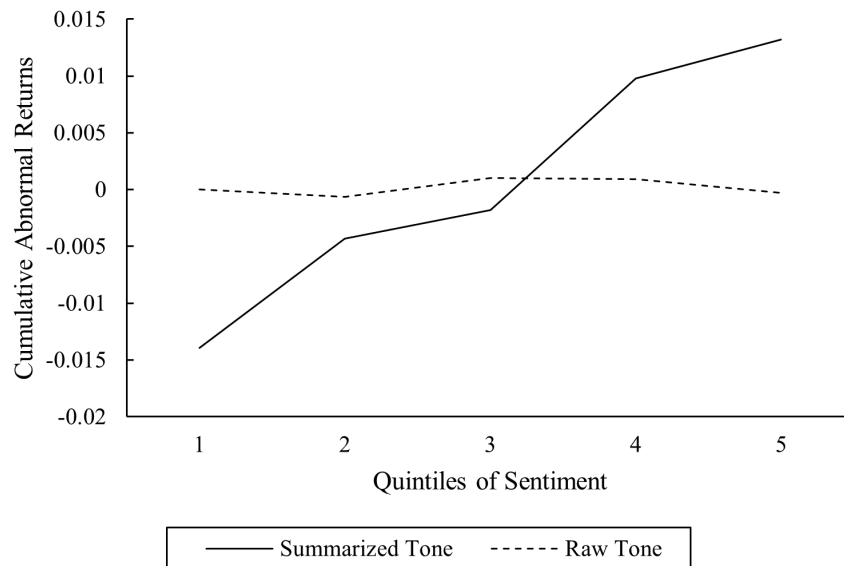
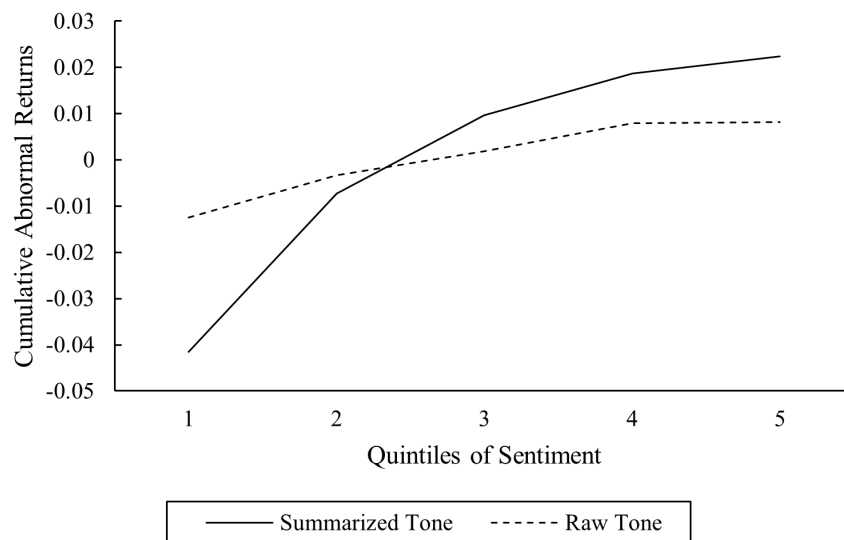


Figure 4(b). Abnormal Returns and Sentiment Quintiles (Conference Call Sample)





## Figure 5. Average Length and Disclosure Bloat

Figures 5(a) and 5(b) plot the average annual length and *Bloat* for the MD&A and conference calls samples, respectively. Figure 5(a) uses the MD&A sample and Figure 5(b) relies on the conference call sample. Refer to Appendix A for variable descriptions.

Figure 5(a). Average Length and Disclosure Bloat (MD&A Sample)

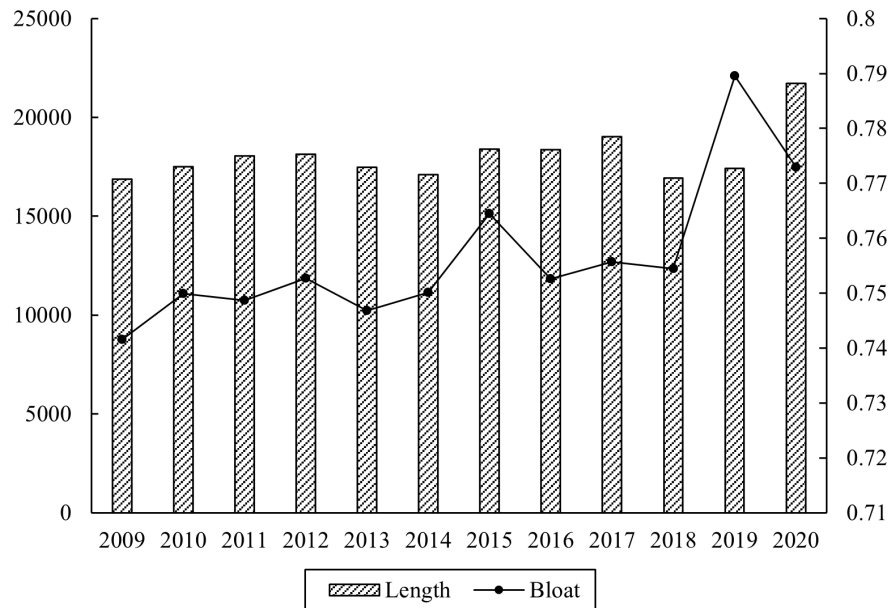
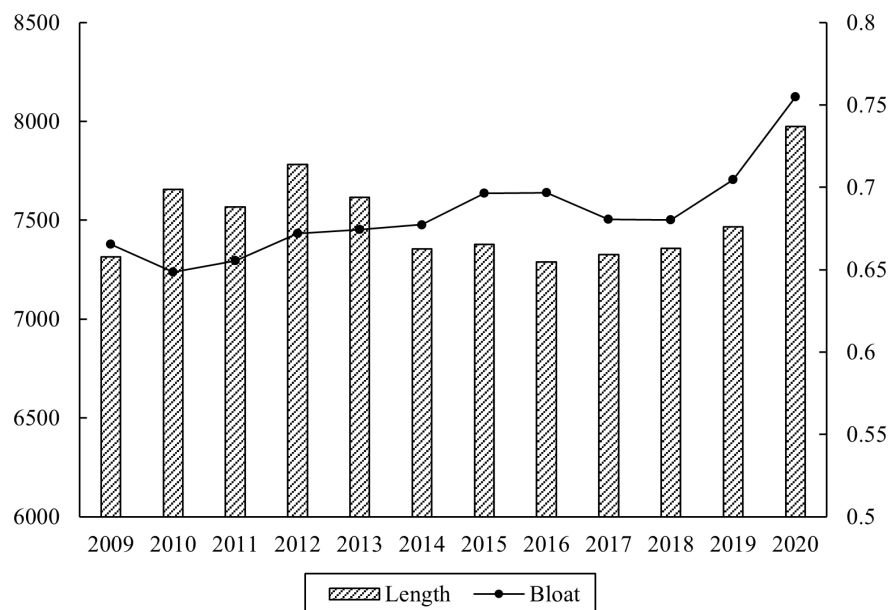


Figure 5(b). Average Length and Disclosure Bloat (Conference Call Sample)



## Figure 6. Theme-Specific Summaries

Figure 6(a) shows the time trend of ESG-related summaries (left) and financial-performance-related summaries (right). The left-hand-side depicts the time trend of %ESG and *lenESG* and the right-hand-side depicts %Fin and *lenFin*. The left-hand side of the Figure 6(b) shows the time trend in *t*-statistics over time. The solid line represents yearly *t*-values of *Sentiment*<sup>ESG</sup> and, in contrast, the dotted line represents yearly *t*-values of *Sentiment*<sup>Fin</sup>. On the right-hand-side, we plot the coefficient values of both *Sentiment*<sup>ESG</sup> and *Sentiment*<sup>Fin</sup>. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions.

Figure 6(a). Time Trend (left: ESG, right: financial performance)

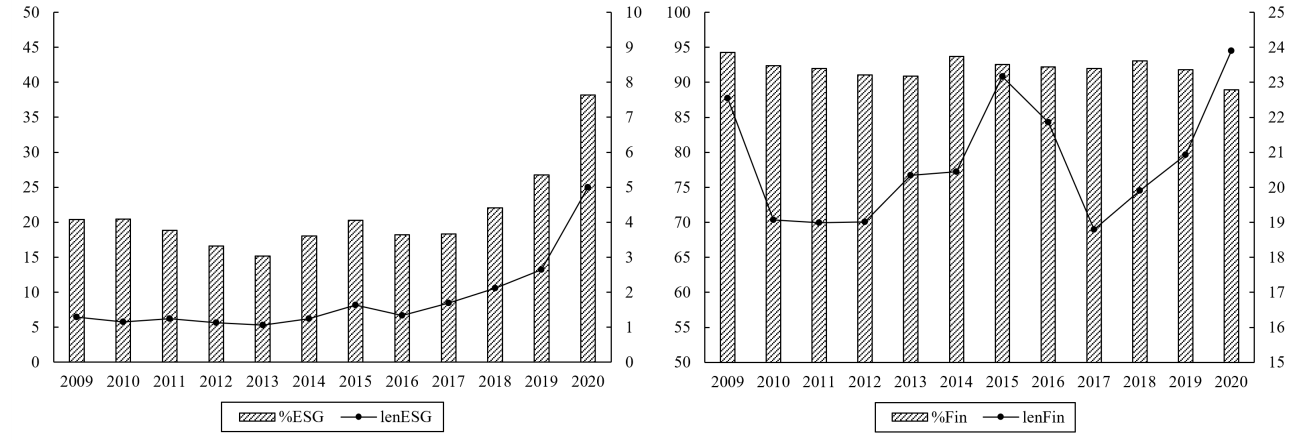
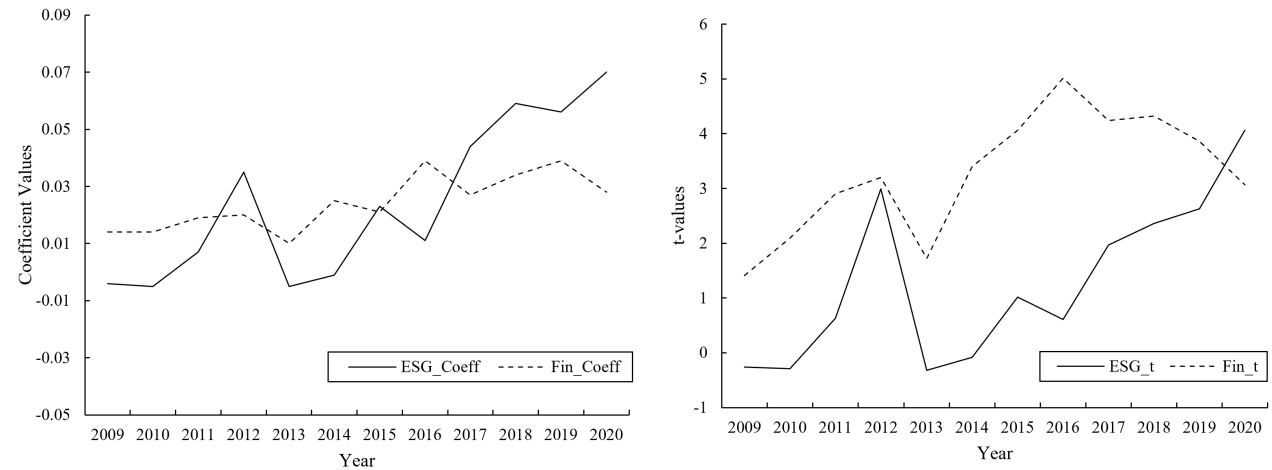


Figure 6(b). Time Trend of Informativeness (left: *t*-values, right: coefficient magnitudes)



## Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

This table reports the descriptive statistics for the population and the randomly selected sample. We report the natural logarithm of market capitalization, the natural logarithm of book-to-market ratio, and the number of analysts following. In the last column, we report the difference of mean values between the population and the random sample. In Panel A, we report descriptive statistics of the MD&A samples and in Panel B, we report descriptive statistics of the conference call samples. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. Standard two-sided t-tests are performed to calculate the statistical significance of the differences. *t*-values are reported in parentheses.

<b>Panel A. MD&amp;A Sample</b>									
	Universe				Sample				Diff. (2) – (6)
	N (1)	Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	N (5)	Mean (6)	Median (7)	Std (8)	
<i>Log_ME</i>	8,699	7.801	7.653	1.698	1,790	7.713	7.648	1.706	-0.088 (-1.03)
<i>Log_BE_ME</i>	8,699	-1.106	-1.031	0.880	1,790	-1.100	-1.022	0.869	0.006 (0.13)
<i>N_Analyst</i>	8,699	5.170	3.000	5.282	1,790	4.915	3.000	5.344	-0.255 (-0.99)

<b>Panel B. Conference Calls Sample</b>									
	Universe				Sample				Diff. (2) – (6)
	N (1)	Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	N (5)	Mean (6)	Median (7)	Std (8)	
<i>Log_ME</i>	40,362	7.801	7.740	1.841	8,537	7.798	7.738	1.844	-0.003 (-0.09)
<i>Log_BE_ME</i>	40,362	-1.088	-1.002	0.913	8,537	-1.087	-0.998	0.915	0.001 (0.00)
<i>N_Analyst</i>	40,362	7.554	6.000	6.430	8,537	7.557	6.000	6.428	0.003 (0.02)

**Table 2. Linguistic Attributes of Summaries**

This table presents the linguistic attributes of both raw and summarized documents. In the last column we report the difference between the mean values of the two groups with its statistical significance. In Panels A, we tabulate statistics for the MD&A sample. In Panels B, we repeat the analysis for the conference call sample. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

<b>Panel A. MD&amp;A Sample</b>								
<b>Levels:</b>								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	1,790	17,901	14,254	13,151	3,779	3,433	1,882	-14,122***
<i>Sentiment</i>	1,790	-0.360	-0.371	0.202	-0.366	-0.438	0.316	-0.006
<i>Fog</i>	1,790	10.025	9.960	1.591	10.175	10.130	0.936	0.150***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	1,790	0.289	0.286	0.039	0.290	0.290	0.011	0.000
<b>Changes:</b>								
	N	Mean	Std	Percentiles				
				p25	p50	p75		
$\Delta$ <i>Length</i>	1,790	-14,122	11,788	-16,729	-10,462	-7,093		
$\Delta$ <i>Sentiment</i>	1,790	-0.006	0.188	-0.132	-0.039	0.110		
$\Delta$ <i>Fog</i>	1,790	0.150	1.144	-0.600	0.190	0.920		
$\Delta$ <i>Plain_Eng</i>	1,790	0.000	0.036	-0.020	0.004	0.026		

<b>Panel B. Conference Call Sample</b>								
<b>Levels:</b>								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	8,537	7,501	7,657	2,371	2,300	2,240	1,098	-5,201***
<i>Sentiment</i>	8,537	0.246	0.261	0.197	0.253	0.257	0.286	0.008***
<i>Fog</i>	8,537	8.970	8.950	0.852	10.177	10.040	0.952	1.207***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	8,537	0.252	0.251	0.027	0.261	0.260	0.014	0.009***
<b>Changes:</b>								
	N	Mean	Std	Percentiles				
				p25	p50	p75		
$\Delta$ <i>Length</i>	8,537	-5,201	2,085	-6,533	-5,015	-3,637		
$\Delta$ <i>Sentiment</i>	8,537	0.008	0.190	-0.107	0.011	0.118		
$\Delta$ <i>Fog</i>	8,537	1.207	0.828	0.680	1.190	1.690		
$\Delta$ <i>Plain_Eng</i>	8,537	0.009	0.026	-0.008	0.010	0.029		

**Table 3. Partitions Based on Raw Sentiment**

This table reports the linguistic attributes of raw and summarized documents when we partition the sample based on the sentiment of the raw document. Specifically, we split the sample into two groups depending on the annual (quarterly) median value of raw sentiment. In Panel A, we use the MD&A sample and in Panel B, we use the conference call sample. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively.

<b>Panel A. MD&amp;A Sample</b>								
Subsample 1: $Sentiment^{Raw} > \text{Median}$								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	897	13,997	12,445	7,493	3,637	3,419	1,602	-10,360***
<i>Sentiment</i>	897	-0.205	-0.240	0.147	-0.182	-0.276	0.322	0.024***
<i>Fog</i>	897	9.690	9.540	1.591	10.310	10.310	0.914	0.620***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	897	0.284	0.282	0.039	0.289	0.289	0.011	0.005***
Subsample 2: $Sentiment^{Raw} < \text{Median}$								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	893	21,821	17,066	16,117	3,922	3,444	2,118	-17,899***
<i>Sentiment</i>	893	-0.515	-0.499	0.110	-0.551	-0.564	0.168	-0.036***
<i>Fog</i>	893	10.362	10.190	1.518	10.040	10.010	0.939	-0.322***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	893	0.294	0.290	0.038	0.290	0.291	0.011	-0.004***

<b>Panel B. Conference Call Sample</b>								
Subsample 1: $Sentiment^{Raw} > \text{Median}$								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	4,281	7,579	7,799	2,388	2,474	2,423	1,062	-5,105***
<i>Sentiment</i>	4,281	0.398	0.386	0.107	0.424	0.448	0.208	0.025***
<i>Fog</i>	4,281	8.701	8.670	0.819	10.163	10.040	0.874	1.462***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	4,281	0.235	0.234	0.022	0.261	0.260	0.013	0.025***
Subsample 2: $Sentiment^{Raw} < \text{Median}$								
	N (1)	Raw Document			Summarized Document			Diff. (5) – (2)
		Mean (2)	Median (3)	Std (4)	Mean (5)	Median (6)	Std (7)	
<i>Length</i>	4,256	7,422	7,515	2,351	2,125	2,030	1,106	-5,297***
<i>Sentiment</i>	4,256	0.092	0.117	0.139	0.082	0.091	0.249	-0.010***
<i>Fog</i>	4,256	9.241	9.220	0.797	10.192	10.050	1.024	0.951***
<i>Plain_Eng</i>	4,256	0.268	0.267	0.022	0.261	0.260	0.015	-0.007***

**Table 4. Informativeness of Summarized Documents**

This table reports OLS regressions of two-day cumulative abnormal returns on the sentiment proxies. In columns (1) - (4), we use the sentiment calculated from raw documents. In columns (5) - (8), we use the sentiment calculated based on the summaries. In columns (3) and (7), we use a sub-sample with sentiment larger than the median value (denoted as *Pos*). In columns (4) and (8), we use a sub-sample with sentiment smaller than the median value (denoted as *Neg*). As control variables, we include *Log\_ME*, *Log\_BE\_ME*, *Inst\_Own*, and *SUE*. Industry definition is based on two-digit SIC codes. In Panel A, we use random samples chosen from the MD&A disclosures. In Panel B, we use random samples chosen from conference call transcripts. Standard errors are clustered at the industry level and are reported within parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. Continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99%.

<b>Panel A. MD&amp;A Sample</b>								
Dependent Variable = $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]}$								
	Raw Documents				Summarized Documents			
	Full (1)	Pos (2)	Neg (3)	Neg (4)	Full (5)	Pos (6)	Pos (7)	Neg (8)
$Sentiment^{Raw}$	-0.008 (0.008)	0.001 (0.012)	0.005 (0.017)	-0.028 (0.020)				
$Sentiment^{Sum}$					0.025*** (0.004)	0.051*** (0.009)	0.027*** (0.006)	0.099*** (0.011)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
Industry FE	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Cluster	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind
N	1,790	1,790	897	893	1,790	1,790	897	893
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	-0.009	0.041	-0.027	0.001	0.017	0.098	0.001	0.121

<b>Panel B. Conference Call Sample</b>								
Dependent Variable = $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]}$								
	Raw Documents				Summarized Documents			
	Full (1)	Pos (2)	Neg (3)	Neg (4)	Full (5)	Pos (6)	Pos (7)	Neg (8)
$Sentiment^{Raw}$	0.035*** (0.006)	0.050*** (0.007)	0.006 (0.013)	0.040*** (0.011)				
$Sentiment^{Sum}$					0.078*** (0.006)	0.097*** (0.008)	0.092*** (0.008)	0.105*** (0.011)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
Industry FE	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Cluster	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind	Ind
N	8,537	8,537	4,281	4,256	8,537	8,537	4,281	4,256
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.054	0.073	0.045	0.065	0.111	0.141	0.093	0.147

**Table 5. Variance Decomposition of Disclosure Bloat**

This table performs variance decomposition of our *Bloat* measure. We report descriptive statistics in Panel A. In Panel B, we first report incremental  $R^2$  from adding sets of year and industry fixed effects. It then zooms in on firm-specific variation and reports  $R^2$  when including firm fixed effects. In Panel C, presents a transition matrix across *Bloat* quintiles. Each row corresponds to a quintile of *Bloat* in prior year. Each column, corresponds to a quintile of *Bloat* in the current year. For instance, the  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column ( $c_{ij}$ ) of Panel C shows the fraction of firms that moved from the  $i$ -th quintile in year  $t - 1$  to the  $j$ -th quintile. The diagonal elements show the frequency with which a firm stays in the same quintile. Panel D repeats reports analogous transition matrix for the conference calls sample.

Panel A. Descriptive Statistics					
Sample from	Mean	Std	Percentiles		
			p25	p50	p75
MD&A	0.754	0.081	0.694	0.744	0.819
Conference Call	0.685	0.126	0.577	0.670	0.785

Panel B. Fixed Effect Structure		
	MD&A (1)	Conference Call (2)
<i>B1. Incremental <math>R^2</math></i>		
Time FE	1.64%	5.19%
Industry FE	12.16%	3.36%
Time $\times$ Industry FE	16.27%	19.95%
Implied Firm Level	69.93%	71.50%
Sum	100.00%	100.00%
<i>B2. Fraction of Variation</i>		
Firm FE	46.23%	35.99%
Residual	53.77%	64.01%
Sum	100.00%	100.00%

Panel C. Time-Series Variation for MD&As						
Q[Bloat <sub><math>t-1</math></sub> ]	Q[Bloat <sub><math>t</math></sub> ]					Total
	Low	2	3	4	High	
Low	48.81%	25.79%	14.29%	7.94%	3.17%	100.00%
2	23.90%	24.63%	27.57%	16.54%	7.36%	100.00%
3	12.89%	22.66%	26.95%	23.83%	13.67%	100.00%
4	7.11%	14.62%	24.11%	27.67%	26.49%	100.00%
High	0.93%	4.67%	9.81%	29.44%	55.15%	100.00%

Panel D. Time-Series Variation for Conference Calls						
Q[Bloat <sub><math>t-1</math></sub> ]	Q[Bloat <sub><math>t</math></sub> ]					Total
	Low	2	3	4	High	
Low	48.01%	23.13%	15.37%	8.87%	4.62%	100%
2	23.86%	30.10%	21.76%	15.12%	9.16%	100%
3	13.99%	21.01%	26.62%	23.51%	14.87%	100%
4	7.96%	15.65%	23.28%	27.87%	25.24%	100%
High	3.28%	7.79%	14.96%	25.96%	48.01%	100%

**Table 6. Determinants of Disclosure Bloat**

This table reports the determinants of our *Bloat* measure. In columns (1) and (2), we focus on the MD&A sample. In columns (3) and (4), we use the conference call sample. Industry definition is based on two-digit SIC codes. Standard errors are reported within parentheses and are clustered at the industry level. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. Continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99%.

Dependent Variable = Sample =	<i>Bloat</i>			
	MD&A		Conference Call	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>Log_ME</i>	-0.012*** (0.001)	-0.004 (0.004)	-0.006** (0.002)	-0.009*** (0.003)
<i>Log_BE_ME</i>	-0.005* (0.003)	-0.000 (0.003)	0.004 (0.004)	0.010*** (0.003)
<i>N_Analyst</i>	0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.001)	0.000 (0.000)
<i>Inst_Own</i>	-0.008** (0.003)	-0.001 (0.005)	-0.006 (0.005)	-0.000 (0.003)
<i>Earn_Vol</i>	0.026*** (0.009)	-0.005 (0.014)	0.117* (0.061)	0.063 (0.045)
<i>ROA</i>	-0.036* (0.021)	-0.056** (0.026)	-0.028 (0.053)	-0.008 (0.043)
<i>Loss</i>	0.008* (0.004)	0.002 (0.004)	0.019*** (0.005)	0.010*** (0.003)
<i>Sentiment</i>	-0.073*** (0.010)	-0.026* (0.014)	-0.030* (0.016)	-0.111*** (0.012)
<i>Fog</i>	-0.001 (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)	-0.004 (0.006)	0.019*** (0.007)
<i>PlainEng</i>	0.017 (0.084)	-0.062 (0.064)	2.021*** (0.172)	1.058*** (0.190)
<i>Log_Length</i>	0.084*** (0.006)	0.108*** (0.012)	0.085*** (0.009)	0.089*** (0.008)
<i>Complexity</i>	0.033** (0.013)	0.041*** (0.012)	0.076*** (0.025)	0.066*** (0.014)
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	Yes	No	Yes
Industry FE	Yes	No	Yes	No
Cluster	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry
N	1,790	1,790	8,537	8,537
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.643	0.771	0.365	0.556



**Table 7. Capital Market Consequences of Bloat**

This table reports the estimates from an OLS regression of proxies for capital markets' informational frictions on our *Bloat* measure. We use three proxies: probability of informed trading (*PIN*), abnormal bid-ask spreads (*Abn\_Spread*), and post-filing volatility (*Post\_Vol*), respectively. As control variables, we include all variables used in the determinant tests in Table 6 and several market-related variables (*Friday*, *One\_Day\_Ret*, *Price*, and *abs\_SUE*). Industry definition is based on two-digit SIC codes. Panel A is based on a random sample of the MD&A disclosures. Panel B is based on a random sample of conference call transcripts. Avg.Dep. means the mean value of the dependent variable. Standard errors are reported within parentheses and are clustered at the industry level. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% level, respectively. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions. Continuous variables are winsorized at 1% and 99%.

<b>Panel A. MD&amp;A Sample</b>						
Dep Var =	<i>PIN</i>		<i>Abn_Spread</i>		<i>Post_Vol</i>	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<i>Bloat</i>	0.099*** (0.014)	0.062*** (0.015)	0.494*** (0.125)	0.544** (0.214)	0.027*** (0.007)	0.037*** (0.007)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Industry FE	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Avg. Dep.	0.009	0.009	0.043	0.043	0.018	0.018
Cluster	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry
N	1,790	1,790	1,790	1,790	1,790	1,790
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.146	0.452	0.076	0.310	0.476	0.569

<b>Panel B. Conference Calls Sample</b>						
Dep Var =	<i>PIN</i>		<i>Abn_Spread</i>		<i>Post_Vol</i>	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<i>Bloat</i>	0.034*** (0.007)	0.037*** (0.005)	0.172** (0.068)	0.226*** (0.052)	0.008*** (0.003)	0.007*** (0.001)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm FE	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Industry FE	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Avg. Dep.	0.023	0.023	0.279	0.279	0.021	0.021
Cluster	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry	Industry
N	8,537	8,537	8,537	8,537	8,537	8,537
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.284	0.477	0.174	0.368	0.393	0.498

## Table 8. Theme-Specific Summaries

This table reports descriptive statistics for theme-specific summaries and evaluates their informativeness. In Panel A, we report the annual averages of %ESG, %Fin, lenESG, and lenFin.  $Sentiment^{ESG}$  is the sentiment of ESG summaries.  $Sentiment^{Fin}$  is the sentiment of financial summaries. We run regressions by year and report the coefficient for each sentiment variable using the same set of controls as in Table 4. Standard errors are clustered at the industry level. Industry definition is based on two-digit SIC codes. We report the  $t$ -statistics associated with each regression coefficient.  $t$ -value time trend is obtained by regressing  $t$ -values on years. We use heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors to obtain the significance of time-series regression coefficients. Refer to Appendix A for detailed variable descriptions.

Panel A. Time Trends												
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
%ESG	20.37	20.48	18.84	16.61	15.20	18.06	20.28	18.21	18.32	22.08	26.75	38.20
%Fin	94.24	92.38	91.99	91.05	90.88	93.70	92.57	92.18	92.00	93.07	91.80	88.95
lenESG	1.29	1.15	1.24	1.13	1.06	1.25	1.64	1.34	1.69	2.12	2.65	5.00
lenFin	22.55	19.07	18.99	19.01	20.34	20.45	23.16	21.86	18.80	19.91	20.93	23.90

Panel B. Theme-Specific Sentiment and Stock-Market Reactions				
Dependent Variable	= $Abn\_Ret_{[0,1]}$			
	$Sentiment^{ESG}$		$Sentiment^{Fin}$	
Year	Coefficient (1)	$t$ -value (2)	Coefficient (3)	$t$ -value (4)
2009	-0.004	-0.26	0.014	1.41
2010	-0.005	-0.29	0.014	2.09
2011	0.007	0.63	0.019	2.90
2012	0.035	2.99	0.020	3.20
2013	-0.005	-0.32	0.010	1.72
2014	-0.001	-0.08	0.025	3.40
2015	0.023	1.02	0.021	4.06
2016	0.011	0.61	0.039	5.01
2017	0.044	1.97	0.027	4.24
2018	0.059	2.36	0.034	4.32
2019	0.056	2.63	0.039	3.86
2020	0.070	4.06	0.028	3.07
Full Sample	0.022	3.49	0.026	10.41
$t$ -value Time Trend	0.296	3.27	0.209	2.94