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Does Asset Quality Persist on Bank Lending Behaviour? Empirical Evidence from Ghana

ByAbdul Latif Alhassan, Freeman Owusu Brobbey & Michael Effah Asamoah

University of Ghana Business School, Legon, Ghana

Abstract - Purpose: The objective of this study is to examine the persistence of bank asset quality on bank lending behaviour in Ghana.

Data/Methodology: Using a dataset from the Bank of Ghana for 25 Ghanaian banks from 2005 to 2010, the study employed a random effects (RE) model with AR(1) and heteroskedastic disturbances to test the relationship between bank lending behaviour proxied as the ratio loans and advances to total asset and bank asset quality (ratio of nonperforming loans to gross loans and advances) while controlling for deposit mobilization, equity, management efficiency, intermediation spread and income diversification.

Findings: The empirical estimation found that the effect of the deterioration of bank asset quality (high levels of non-performing loans) on bank lending behaviour is persistence and not contemporaneous. Additionally, bank deposit mobilization, intermediation spread and equity were also found to influence bank lending behaviour.

Originality/Value: This paper is the first study to examine the persistence impact of the three classes of asset quality on bank intermediation functions in Ghana.

Keywords : asset quality, non-performing loans, bank lending, persistence, deposit, equity, ghana.

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Does Asset Quality Persist on Bank Lending Behaviour? Empirical Evidence from Ghana

Abdul Latif Alhassan ^a, Freeman Owusu Brobbey ^o & Michael Effah Asamoah ^p

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I. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

ommercial banks are the most important savings, mobilization and financial resource allocation institutions. Consequently, these roles make them an important phenomenon in economic growth and development. In performing this role, it must be realized that banks have the potential, scope and prospects for mobilizing financial resources and allocating them to productive investments. Both theoretical and empirical finance literature suggests that the availability of bank credit is important determinants of economic growth and development in developing economies. However evidence shows that banks in these economies are reluctant to extend long-term credit to private businesses. Some factors influencing this reluctance are the unstable local government economic policies and the riskiness and opacity of business borrowers in these countries Djiogap and Ngomsi (2012).

Many firms especially those in developing economies rely on banks for financing since capital markets in those countries may not be well-developed and efficient. These firms that are rather small and medium-scaled cannot finance their projects by issuing securities in financial markets. They usually borrow funds at loanable funds market from financial institutions and often through banks. Therefore, changes in credit supply directly affect the investment projects and budget constraints of firms and thus their spending decisions (Saarenheime, 1995).

A deterioration in a banks' asset quality serve as indicator of the risk levels being assumed by banks. hence tighten credit standards leading to a reduction in future banks' lending to reduce its risk levels. The impact of bank asset quality on lending behaviour is both direct and indirect. With the direct effect, a deterioration in bank loan assets indicates that banks are taking on high risks and hence banks cannot build up its risk levels ad infinatum, they tighten credit standards which will reduce the number of loan applicants as well as successful loan applicants. With the indirect effect, incurring losses from non-performing loans demands loan write-offs which depletes the equity capital of banks. This would in-turn affect the bank's ability to write more loan businesses, hence reduction in lending, called the capital crunch by Richard Syron former president of the Boston Federal Reserve (Bernanke et. al., 1991).

With the asset quality posing a threat to the financial stability of the banking sector (IMF, 2011), this study seeks to examine the persistence of bank asset quality of Ghanaian banks on the lending behaviour of Ghanaian banks. The rest of the paper is organized into section 2 focused on stylized facts about the Ghanaian banking industry, section 3 reviews the empirical literature, methodology is discussed in section 4 and discussion of findings dealt in section 5. Section 6 concludes the study.

II. Overview of Ghanaian Banks

The first bank to be established in West Africa was the branch of Africa Banking Corporation of South Africa (ABC) in September 1891 in Lagos, Nigeria. Due to disputes with local powerful merchants, the directors of ABC with their predominately South African interest withdrew from Lagos in March, 1893. However, one Sir Alfred Jones and his assistant bought the Lagos office of ABC and incorporated a new banking company to take over the ABC Lagos branch, Known as the Bank of British West Africa Ltd (BBWA), the new bank was registered in the UK on 30th March 1894 (Anin, 2000). A

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branch of BBWA was established in Accra in 1896 followed by the opening of new branches in Sekondi (1902) and Kumasi (1906). The BBWA's expansion programme closely followed the parallel expansion of both the rail and the road development programme of the colonial government with the result that by 1916, 12 branches of the Bank had been opened in Accra, Sekondi, Obuasi, Tarkwa, Prestea, Half-Assini, Cape Coast, Kumasi, Winneba, Axim, Nsawam and Koforidua.

The BBWA enjoyed banking monopoly at this time. However, this monopoly ended in 1917 with the establishment in Accra of a branch of the Colonial Bank which had since 1836, operated in the West Indies, Anin (2000). Soon after the end of the First World War, the colonial bank expanded its branch network by opening branches in Sekondi and Kumasi. In 1925, Barclays concluded all the financial agreement which led to the merger of the colonial bank, the Anglo Egyptian Bank and the National Bank of South Africa to form a new bank known as Barclays DCO (Dominion, Colonial and Overseas). Thus, in 1926 the six branches of the Colonial Bank became branches of the Barclays Bank (DCO).

Financial distress afflicted all the public sector banks in the 1980s. The DFIs appear to have run into serious difficulties first, while the emergence of distress in the two main commercial Banks, GCB and SSB was delayed until the mid-1980s. All the banks were rendered insolvent by non-performing assets (NPAs) and had to be restructured in 1989-91. The NPAs included non-performing loans, letters of credit and equity investments which yielded no income. Nonperforming loans amounted to C32 billion, representing 41% of all outstanding loans to the non-government sector (Kapur et al, 1991, pp 60-61).

After 1983, the banking sector saw a lot of reforms and entry of new banks into the country. Financial Sector Adjustment Programme (FINSAP II and I), Non-Performing Assets Recovery Trust (NPART) and the Foreign 41 Exchange Bureau legislation. A new Banking Law was also promulgated. Aside these reforms, prudential regulations were enacted to protect the stability of the financial system and deposits in ensuring the safety and soundness of the banking system. The banking laws instituted in the Ghana since the financial distress of state banks include, the Banking Law, 1989 (P.N.D.C.L. 225), Bank of Ghana Act 2002, Act 612, the Banking Act, 2004 (Act 673) and the Banking Amendment Act 2007, (Act 783).

The new banks that entered the Ghanaian banking scene included; Ecobank, First Atlantic Bank, Continental Acceptances (now Cal Bank), Metropolitan and Allied Bank, Prudential Bank, Meridian/ The Trust Bank, International Commercial bank, Unibank, UT bank, Bank of Baroda, Sahel Sahara bank, Stanbic bank, HFC Bank, Amalgamated Bank and recently Standard Trust Bank (now United Bank of Africa, UBA),

Various products have been developed in the banking industry over the last decade. Automated teller machines (ATMs) have become common giving clients the freedom to transact business at their own convenience. Also home banking, for example telephone banking, SMS banking and internet banking have been introduced. the Payment Systems Act 2003 (Act 662) empowered the BoG to establish, operate, promote and supervise payment, fund transfers, clearing and settlement systems, subject to rules as it may publish and to designate any other payment, fund transfers, clearing and settlement systems operating in the country which the BoG considers to be in the public interest for it to supervise under the PSA. This lead to the roll out of rolled out the e-zwich, a national payment and settlements system that creates an electronic clearing house for all banking and financial institutions, as well as a biometric smartcard which is a very secure way of paying for goods and services.

Credit Reporting Act 2007 (Act 726) led to the creation of the credit reference bureau which is a repository of credit information and neutral entity that collates consumer credit information by soliciting creditors such as banks and other lending institutions to contribute and share their credit information on consumers. The main importance of the reference bureau is to bridge the information asymmetry in credit markets.

The Cheque Codeline Clearing (CCC) system was introduced in January 2010 to enable banks and other financial institutions to speed up the processing and settlement of cheque transactions. Under the system, depositors of cheques are expected to get value within three days.

III. Determinants of Bank Lending Behaviour : Related Studies

a) Asset Quality

The level of non-performing loans in bank's loan portfolio depicts the quality of bank loans which gives an an indication of the profitability bank lending activities. It requires the provision for write-offs of either portions or all of the loans. The write-offs are losses that the banks absorb with its equity capital, hence the banks reluctance to take new risks and commit new 'loans which is described as the credit crunch'. Lower bank asset quality signals banks as to their risk levels, therefore their reluctance to take on more risk through lending. This variable is entered in the model in both levels and lags forms. Amidu and Hinson (2006) found a contemporaneous between bank lending and credit risk. This study posits that it's rather the experience from giving bad loans that influences banks decision to extend more credit.

b) Deposits

Deposits forms majority of banks liabilities and plays an important role in the intermediation activities of banks. The decisions of banks management to lend are greatly influenced by the volume and cost of deposits to the banks. The interest paid on deposits ensures that banks should earn return over and above their cost of funds, hence the transformation of these liabilities to loan assets to generate interest income. The larger the volume of bank deposits, the more loan able funds available to the banks, hence the higher likelihood of given out more loans and advances.

A positive relationship is thus expected between deposits and bank lending behaviour. The deposits ratio is measured as the ratio of customer deposits to total bank liabilities.

c) Management Efficiency

The quality of banks' management is captured by the expenses they pay their employees with a highly skilled work force attracting higher salaries. A highly skilled banking staff are assumed to have better appreciation of loan markets, hence are able to differentiate bad loan from good ones, hence the less likelihood of granting loans which have low probability of default.

d) Equity Ratio

The equity ratio is an indication of the risk characteristics which is risk aversion. Bank capitalization can affect bank willingness and ability to extend longterm loans in several different ways. Banks with larger capital cushion against credit risks should have higher capacity to extend risky, long-term loans. Therefore increasing bank equity enhances the bank's capacity to increase lending. Bank capitalization is measured by the book equity to assets ratio. In addition, better capitalized banks can attract more creditworthy borrowers that will qualify for longer term loans. Alternatively, high levels of capital can reveal risk averse and conservatively managed banks that may be reluctant to issue risky long-term loans. Bouvatier and Lepetit (2007) and Djiogap and Ngomsi (2012) found that poorly capitalized banks are constrained to expand credit.

e) Income Diversification

The diversification of banking activities serves to stabilise bank income by focusing other sources of bank income which leads to decreased intermediation activities. This study proxies diversification as the ratio of non-interest income to total income. A negative relationship is expected between diversification and bank lending since diversification ensures that banks use its resources in non-interest generating activities.

f) Intermediation Spread

The spread between interest income and expense gives an indication of bank profitability. A higher spread means lending is profitable and thus profit driven bank management are more likely to lend more. Therefore, it is expected that higher interest margin will induce banks to give out more loans and advances. On the other hand, a higher spread gives an indication of a costly lending business leading to low risk borrowers being charged above average rates. This would reduce the loan customers, hence demand for loanable funds.

The point of departure of this study from literature (ie Amidu and Hinson, 2006) lies in its methodological approach. The often used nonperforming loan ratio was used as a proxy for bank lending whereas it was hypothesised that the asset quality also has a persistence effect on bank lending behaviour. This study hypothesizes that, after building up its loan portfolio, there is a year's lag assessment of the performance of the portfolio by management after which decisions are made as to whether to continue expanding their loan portfolio to be more profitable or concentrate its efforts on improving its existing portfolio.

IV. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This research considered 25 banks in Ghana covering the period from 2005 to 2010 using annual bank data. The data was obtained from the Bank of Ghana which serves as the regulatory body for Ghanaian banks. A pooled time series cross-section analysis was employed in the analysis of the data.

a) Measures of Asset Quality

In line with literature, this study posits the use of the non-performing loans ratio as a proxy for bank asset quality (ASQ) which is measured as the ratio of nonperforming loans to gross loans and advance. Making use of a unique dataset which decomposes the nonperforming loans into substandard loans ratio (SSLR), doubtful loans ratio (DLR) and loss loans (LLR). A more robust evidence is brought to the studies by also using the ratios of the three classes of non-performing loans as proxies for assets quality.

b) Empirical Model

To examine the impact of asset quality on bank lending behaviour, the study estimated the model below which was adopted and modified from Olokoyo (2011) and Djiogap and Ngomsi (2012) for the panel data analysis.

$$\begin{split} & LEND_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 ASQ_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 ASQ_{i,t} + \beta_3 DEPR_{i,t} + \beta_4 INTSPRD_{i,t} + \beta_5 INCDIV_{i,t} + \\ & \beta_6 MEFF_{i,t} + \beta_7 EQR_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} LEND_{i,t} &= \alpha_i + \beta_1 LLR_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 LLR_{i,t} + \beta_3 DEPR_{i,t} + \beta_4 INTSPRD_{i,t} + \beta_5 INCDIV_{i,t} + \beta_6 MEFF_{i,t} + \beta_7 EQR_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} LEND_{i,t} &= \alpha_i + \beta_1 DLR_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 DLR_{i,t} + \beta_3 DEPR_{i,t} + \beta_4 INTSPRD_{i,t} + \beta_5 INCDIV_{i,t} + \beta_6 MEFF_{i,t} + \beta_7 EQR_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} & LEND_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 SSLR_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 SSLR_{i,t} + \beta_3 DEPR_{i,t} + \beta_4 INTSPRD_{i,t} + \beta_5 INCDIV_{i,t} + \\ & \beta_6 MEFF_{i,t} + \beta_7 EQR_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{split}$$

 $LEND_{i,t}$ is the ratio of loans and advances to total assets for bank *i* in period *t*, $ASQ_{i,t-1}$ represents the lag of asset quality, $ASQ_{i,t}$ is the banks' assets quality, the non-performing loans ratio for bank *i* in period *t*, $LLR_{i,t}$ is the loss loan ratio for bank *i* in period *t*, $LLR_{i,t-1}$ is the lag of loss loan ratio, $DLR_{i,t-1}$ is the doubtful loan ratio for bank *i* in period *t*, $DLR_{i,t-1}$ is the lag of doubtful loan ratio, $SSLR_{i,t}$ is the substandard loan ratio for bank *i* in period *t*, $SSLR_{i,t-1}$ is the lag of substandard loan ratio, $DEPR_{i,t}$, the ratio of bank deposits to total liabilities of bank *i* in period *t*, *INTSPRD*_{*i*,*t*}, the interest spread for bank *i* in time *t*, *INCDIV*_{*i*,*t*}, proxied as the ratio of non-interest income to total income for bank *i* in time *t* **MEFF**_{*i*,*t*} represents the ratio of staff and administration expenses to total operating expenditure for bank *i* at time *t*, *EQR*_{*i*,*t*}, the ratio of equity to total assets for bank *i* in time *t* while *a*_{*i*} is the firm-specific fixed effects.

VARIABLE	SYMBOL	EXPECTED SIGN
Asset Quality.L1	ASQ_{t-l}	Negative
Asset Quality	ASQ	Negative
Loss Loan Ratio.L1	LLR _{i,t-1}	Negative
Loss Loan Ratio	LLR	Negative
Doubtful Loan Ratio.L1	$DLR_{i,t-1}$	Negative
Doubtful Loan Ratio	DLR	Negative
Substandard Loan Ratio.L1	SSLR _{i,t-1}	Negative
Substandard Loan Ratio	SSLR	Negative
Deposit Ratio	DEP	Positive
Management Efficiency	MEFF	Negative
Equity	EQR	Positive
Income Diversification	INCDIV	Positive
Interest Spread	NITI	Negative

Table 4.1	: Expected	Results
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c) Estimation Technique

The tendency for a correlation between the unobservable heterogeneity μ_i of each firm and the explanatory variables of the model makes the ordinary least squares (OLS) biased. If there is a correlation, $E(\mu_i, x_{1i,t}) = E(\mu_i, x_{2i,t}) \neq 0$ or $cov(\mu_i, x_{1i,t}) \neq 0$, it would be possible to obtain the consistent estimation by means of the within-group estimator of fixed effects. Otherwise (random effects) a more efficient estimator can be achieved by estimating the equation by generalized least squares (GLS). The

normal strategy to determine whether the effects are fixed or random is to use the Hausman (1978) test under the null hypothesis of random effects model. If the null hypothesis is rejected, the effects are considered to be fixed, and the model is then estimated by OLS. If the null hypothesis is accepted, there would be random effects, and the model is then estimated by GLS, which according to Baltagi (1995) allows the Random Effects Model to support inference for the population, assuming the sample is representative of the underlying population.

V. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

a) Summary Statistics and Test for Multicollinearity

The study sought to establish the impact of bank asset quality on bank lending over the study period. An empirical model was estimated with bank lending, the dependent variable measured as the ratio gross loans and advances to total assets while the independent variables included the lag of asset quality, asset quality, deposit ratio, management efficiency, equity ratio, income diversification and net interest spread. The summary statistics of the variables are displayed in Table 5.8. From the table, the mean value of bank lending (LEND), 0.6706 indicates that an average Ghanaian banks uses 67.06 percent of its assets as to make loans (loans forms 67 percent of banks total assets), with the deposit ratio (DEPR) of 0.7394 also indicating that most banks liabilities are sourced from deposits. This implies that the banks are more focused on their intermediation activities of deposit taking and granting of loans. Management efficiency (MEFF), measured as the ratio of staff and administration expenses to operational expenses has a mean of 0.7738 indicating that the banks spend 77.38 percent of their income on staff and administration costs. The means for equity ratio (EQR), interest spread (INTSPRD), income diversification (INCDIV) and asset quality (ASQ) are 0.1428, 0.6366, 38.91 and 0.1157 respectively.

SUMMARY STATISTICS																
		1				1	1		1		1	1	- 1			
		LE	IND	AS	Q	LLR		DLR	SSL	R	DEPR	NITI		INCDIV	MEFF	EQR
Mean		0.	.67	0.1	15	0.058	3	0.031	0.02	6	0.74	8.67		0.39	0.54	0.14
Std. Dev		0.	.83	0.1	2	0.08		0.04	0.03	}	0.15	69.89		0.12	31.53	0.11
Minimun	า	0.	.01	0.0	00	0.00		0.00	0.00)	0.24	0.29		0.12	0.35	0.03
Maximur	n	.5	550	0.7	70	0.54		0.29	0.14	ŀ	0.99	.813		0.71	0.361	0.76
N		1	40	14	0	140		140	140		141	141		141	141	137
CORRELATION MATRIX																
LEND	1															
ASQ	-0.059	9	1													
LLR	-0.050)	0.88	***		1										
DLR	-0.092	2	0.76*	***	0.4	17***		1								
SSLR	0.023	3	0.51*	***	0	.17*	0	.38***	1							
DEPR	0.140	*	0.01	16	0.	0007		0.05	-0.01		1					
NITI	-0.075	5	-0.0)9	-(0.06		-0.07	-0.08		0.044	1				
INCDIV	-0.128	3	-0.1	4*	-0.	.20**		0.03	-0.05		0.024	-0.01		1		
MEFF	-0.069	9	-0.0)9	-(0.06		-0.07	-0.07		0.112	0.25***	;	-0.06	1	
EQR	0.36**	*	-0.	1	-(0.09		-0.09	-0.04		0.177	-0.015		-0.21**	-0.03	1

Lend=Gross Loans/Assets ASQ=Non-performing Loans Ratio, LLR=Loss Loan Ratio, DLR=Doubtful Loan Ratio, SLR= Substandard Loan Ratio, DEP=Deposits/Total Liabilities, MEFF=Staff and Administration Expenses/Total Expenditure EQR=Equity Ratio NITI=Net Interest Income/Total Income, INCDIV=Non-Interest Income/Total Income,

The strength of relationships among the independents can affect the regression coefficients. In order to arrive at robust and consistent estimates, a correlation coefficient was estimated to measure the strength of the relationship among the independent variables. The results as presented in Table 5.1 indicates a weaker relationships among the independent variables hence the issue of multi-collinearity with the independent variables which produces biased regression estimates was avoided.

b) Regression Results

Panel regression is also estimated depending on the relationship between the unobserved terms and the explanatory variables. To determine the whether to use the random effects or fixed effects estimation, a Hausman (1978) specification test was carried out with the null hypothesis that difference in coefficients is not systematic. The results for four models do not reject the null hypothesis that random effects estimation provides consistent and unbiased estimates of the regression model. On other model diagnostics, the error terms found to be serially correlated and were heteroskedastic, hence the random effects model was estimated taking into account the behaviour of the disturbance terms.

For the random effects models, the Wald χ^2 results (Prob > χ^2 = 0.0000) indicates a rejection of the null hypothesis implying that that the independent variables jointly explains the variations in bank lending. The R-squared of 0.6366, 0.6615, 0.5980, 0.6325 indicates that 63.66 percent, 66.15 percent, 59.80

percent and 63.35 percent variations in bank lending behaviour is explained by the models 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively as shown in table 5.2. The results of the random effects (RE) estimation as shown in Table 5.2 find a significant negative relationship between the lags of asset quality (ASQ.L1), loss loan (LLR.L1), doubtful loan (DLR.L1) and bank lending. Also, deposits ratio (DEPR), management efficiency (MEFF) and equity ratio (EQR) were found to significantly influence the lending behaviour of Ghanaian banks as measured by the ratio of gross loans and advances to total assets.

Table 5.2 : Random Effects Model with First Order Autocorrelation and Heteroskedastic Disturbances

	DEPENDENT	VARIABLE : BANK LE	ENDING	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Constant	0.109 (0.29)	0.074 (0.2)	0.073 (0.18)	-0.042 (-0.1)
ASQ.L1	-0.809 (-1.99)**			
ASQ	-0.198 (-0.39)			
LLR.L1		-1.279 (-1.92)*		
LLR		-0.154 (-0.13)		
DLR.L1			-1.916 (-1.96)**	
DLR			-1.542 (-1.4)	
SSLR.L1				-0.832 (-0.33)
SSLR				0.215 (0.12)
DEPR	0.826 (2.14)**	0.849 (2.25)**	0.797 (1.97)**	0.788 (2.13)**
NITI	-0.003 (-0.84)	-0.004 (-0.93)	-0.003 (-0.63)	-0.003 (-0.91)
INCDIV	-0.850 (-1.0)	-0.901 (-1.09)	-0.755 (-0.86)	-0.698 (-0.76)
MEFF	-0.002 (-2.86)***	-0.002 (-2.47)**	-0.002 (-2.71)***	-0.001 (-2.41)**
EQR	3.503 (2.69)***	3.528 (2.67)***	3.613 (2.83)***	3.656 (2.83)***
	MOI	DEL DIAGNOSTICS		
Wald χ^2 (7)	67.09***	61.22***	74.39***	61.5***
R-square	0.6366	0.6615	0.5980	0.6325
Adj. R-square	0.6124	0.6389	0.5712	0.6080
BP-CW Hettest χ^2 (1)	111.11***	114.77***	112.34***	108.43***
AR(1) F(1,21)	16.857***	18.857***	15.984***	9.182***
Hausman χ^2 (7)	3.98	3.82	9.31	4.85
Prob> χ^2	0.7826	0.8008	0.2314	0.6781
Number of Banks	25	25	25	25
Observations	113	113	113	113

***, ** and * denotes significance levels of 1%, 5% and 10% respectively, z-statistics are in parentheses, BW/CW Hettest=Breusch-Pagan/Cook Weisberg Heteroskedasticity test, AR(1)=Autocorrelation test

The lag of asset quality was found to be negatively related to bank lending. This can be explained that current levels of a bank's non-performing loans to mean an unprofitable lending business, hence the banks reluctance to extend more credit in future. Higher levels of non-performing loans (lower asset guality) inhibit the bank's ability to extend more credit since it will concentrate its efforts on improving on the performance of its current loan portfolio. This finding supports the credit crunch theory (Bernanke et al. 1991) that problem loans (non-performing) clog credit channels making it difficult for businesses and households to obtain credit. This relationship is significant at 5 percent. The coefficient of -0.809, which denote elasticity of lending with respect to bank asset guality indicates that a percent deterioration in asset guality reduces any future bank lending by 80.9 percent. Jordan et al. (2002) found that the cyclicality of loan loss provisions directly affects bank profits and bank capital which could influence the bank's incentive to grant new loans. Amidu and Hinson (2006) and Bouvatier and Lepetit (2007) also provided evidence of the influence of asset quality on bank lending behaviour. However, this study finds that such a relationship is not contemporaneous but persistent as evident by the insignificant negative coefficient between asset quality (ASQ) and bank lending. With the lags of the three classes of bank asset quality, both loss loan and doubtful loan ratios exhibited significant negative relationship with bank lending behaviour at 1 percent and 5 percent significance levels respectively. This supports the persistence impact of bank asset quality on lending behaviour.

In terms of the deposit ratio, the z-statistics reveal that volume of deposits of banks liabilities is significant at 5 percent level with a positive coefficient in all four models, portraying that the amount of loanable funds banks are able attract positively impact on the banks' lending behaviour. This means that, as banks continuously accumulate deposits which attract interest expense, they must generate enough returns to cover that interest expense and make profit hence, the extension of loans and advances to earn interest income cover their deposit cost. Similar relationship was found by Olokoyo (2011) in Nigeria and Bouvatier and Lepetit (2007) on European banks. Management inefficiencies also showed a negative relationship with lending behaviour.

A positive and significant relationship was found between bank equity capital and lending behaviour confirming a priori expectation that riskier lending businesses culminating in loan write-offs depletes banks equity capital which affect banks capacity to take on more risk at a 5 percent significant level.. This finding supports the capital crunch argument of Richard Syron (cited by Bernanke et. al, 1991).

Interest spread (NITI), a proxy for bank lending rate and the proxy for bank income diversification (INCDIV) were found to have insignificant negative relationship with bank lending, Olokoyo (2011) found no significant relationship between bank lending and lending rate in Nigeria.

VI. Conclusion and Recommendations

The importance of the banking institutions as intermediaries in channeling funds from the surplus spending units to deficit spending units cannot be overemphasized with regards to its contributions to growth in developing countries. Therefore, factors that inhibits the banking institutions decisions to extend credit which is vital for growth has to be identified and remedied. In this direction, this study examined the relationship between bank lending behaviour and asset quality of Ghanaian banks. By employing a random effects (RE) estimation with both auto-correlated and heteroskedastic disturbance term to bank level data of 25 banks from 2005 to 2010, a robust evidence on the determinants of bank lending behaviour in an environment where deteriorating bank asset quality poses a great challenge to the stability of the financial system. Banking lending was found to be the dominant function of Ghanaian banks over the study period. The empirical evidence that the deteriorating loan portfolio of banks (low bank asset quality) has a persistence and not contemporaneous effect on bank lending. Banks with poor loan portfolio reduces the loan originations in favour of improving the performance of its loan portfolio. Shortage of loanable funds, inefficient bank management and less-capitalized banks are more lend (credit slowdown/crunch). Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that efforts should be made to improve the performance of bank loan portfolios and innovative ways devised to bring in more deposits to enhance bank lending in Ghana.

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Innovative Price Adjustments Technique for Thermal Coal: A Study of Operation Function under Changing Techno Environment

By Dr. Sumeet Gupta, Dr. Manvinder Singh Pahwa & Mr. Ankur Gupta

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Abstract - Coal is a vital source of energy in India. Major portion of energy requirement in India fulfill by coal based thermal power plant. Price of electricity indirectly depends on raw material (coal). In India coal trading generally done on over the counter basis, in which price of coal is depend on settlement price of coal as per the quality of coal. Coal price is generally calculated on certain parameter moisture content, calorific value, ash content, sulfur content. India supplier settles coal prices on some formula to adjust coal price.

The object of this paper is to highlight the price adjustment formula which buyer and seller used to calculate price settlement for their contract agreement. Price of coal is generally decided by their calorific value, moisture content, ash content and sulphur content in coal. So for the adjustment in price Coal supplier and buyer use some formula as per quality to adjust quantity.

The aim of this paper is to amend existed formula, and to give innovative approach to implement a price adjustment formula of coal as per the quality bases.

Keywords : moisture content, sulphur content, Ash content, calorific value, price adjustment.

GJMBR-C Classification : JEL Code: P22, O31

I N N OVAT I VE PRI CE A DJ USTMENT STECHNI DUEFORTHERMA LCOA LASTU DY OF OPERATI ON FUNCTION UN DER CHANGING TECHNOEN VIR ONMENT

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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Innovative Price Adjustments Technique for Thermal Coal: A Study of Operation Function under Changing Techno Environment

Dr. Sumeet Gupta ^a, Dr. Manvinder Singh Pahwa^o & Mr. Ankur Gupta ^p

Abstract - Coal is a vital source of energy in India. Major portion of energy requirement in India fulfill by coal based thermal power plant. Price of electricity indirectly depends on raw material (coal). In India coal trading generally done on over the counter basis, in which price of coal is depend on settlement price of coal as per the quality of coal. Coal price is generally calculated on certain parameter moisture content, calorific value, ash content, sulfur content. India supplier settles coal prices on some formula to adjust coal price.

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The aim of this paper is to amend existed formula, and to give innovative approach to implement a price adjustment formula of coal as per the quality bases.

Keywords : moisture content, sulphur content, Ash content, calorific value, price adjustment.

I. INTRODUCTION

oal is a vital source of energy in India. Major portion of energy requirement in India fulfill by coal based thermal power plant. Cost of electricity indirectly depends on raw material (coal). In India coal trading generally done on over the counter bases, in which price of coal is depend on settlement price of coal as per the quality of coal. Coal price is generally calculated on certain parameter moisture content, calorific value, ash content, sulfur content. India supplier settles coal prices on some formula to adjust coal price.

Coal being a commodity does not have uniform quality of coal. The quality of coal changes with every shipment and is different for every rake supplied to power utilities. Commercially, in India and various countries some adjustment is done in case of variation

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in quality of coal. There are some quality parameters guaranteed by supplier within the quality range, as finalized with their Suppliers.

a) Price Adjustment Formula

The imported coal to be supplied under any agreement between two parties follow price adjustment formula based on calorific value of coal specification. There is specified range of guaranteed parameters which depends on agreement specified earlier:

Typical price basis for supply of coal to major thermal power plants in India Total Moisture: 16%

Ash content: 10%

Sulphur content: 80%

Gross calorific value: 6400kcal/kg

Generally a range of coal parameters are specified along with base parameter for price. The indices of these base parameters are published daily e.g. API4, NEX, global Coal Index.

Based on the published indices and actual quality of coal supplied, price of coal is determined.

II. Adjustments Due to Quality Variation

In the variation of the quality parameter, suitable adjustment will carried out as per the formula given here:

a) Total Moisture (ARB)

If there are moisture present in the coal then adjustment in quantity of coal in weight for x% increase over the guarantee total moisture, total weight is reduced by x%.

But the in case of decrease in total Moisture below the guaranteed value is ignored.

ARB: as received bases.

b) Ash Content (ADB)

For every increase of x% of the ash content, the weight of coal reduced by x%.

But the decrease in the ash content below the guaranteed value will be ignored.

c) Sulphur (As Dried Bases)

If the sulphur content in delivered coal quantity is increased by some percentage then penalty should be levied as per the agreement in the contract. 2013

Year

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d) Objectives of the Study

- 1. To compute Adjustment in quantity of Coal as per moisture content.
- 2. To compute penalty should be levied on quantity of coal as per sulphur content.

e) Research Design

Research Methods which have been used for this project are as follow:

i. Exploratory Research Method

This research is considered as an exploratory due to the following reasons:

- The research aims is to provide a comprehensive insight study into a newly developed situation.
- The research primarily relies on secondary sources of data.

f) Source of Data

In this study of project secondary data used:

i. Secondary Source of Data

For this research several source of secondary data have been used.

- Tender report for Coal trading contract.
- Modern *ABC* of *Textbook Chemistry* Vol. I & II For by Dr. S.P.Jauhar Modern.
- Internet search
- Research paper publish on world /India energy market
- Report published on Coal trading.

III. Adjustment Due to Moisture Content in Imported Coal

If coal contains moisture then extra energy in form of heat require to burn coal. The amount of heat can be calculated as:

a) Amount of Heat Required to Evaporate Moisture Contain in Thermal Coal

The amount of heat required to heat a subject from one temperature level to another can be expressed as:

 $Q = c_p m DT$

Where

Cp = Specific Heat (kJ/kg.K),

Q = Amount of heat (kiloJoule) and

M = mass (kg)

dT= temperature difference between hot and cold side (K)

b) If Coal Contains Moisture in form of Water then Amount of Energy Required to Evaporate Water is

Let the energy (in form of heat) needed to heat 1.0 kg of water from 0 °C to 100 °C when if the specific heat of water is 4.19 kJ per kg K:

$$\label{eq:Q} \begin{split} \mathsf{Q} &= (4.19 \ \text{kJ/kg.K})^{*} \ (1.0 \ \text{kg})^{*} \ ((100 \ ^{\circ}\text{C}) \ \text{--} \ (0 \ ^{\circ}\text{C})) \\ &= 419 \ (\text{kJ}) \end{split}$$

c) Boiling Water at 100°C, 0 Bar Atmospheric Pressure

At atmospheric pressure water boils at 100 $^{\circ}$ C, and 417.51 kilo joule of energy will be required to heat 1 kg of water from 0 $^{\circ}$ C to its evaporating temperature of 100 $^{\circ}$ C.

Another 2257.92 kJ of energy in form of heat are also required to evaporate 1 kg of water at 100 $^{\circ}C$ into 1 kg of steam at 100 $^{\circ}C$

Total heat requires to evaporating water is:

So from the above result we justified that 640 kilo cal heat is required if coal contain 1 kg of water as form of moisture. So there should be a requirement of amendment of price adjustment formula of coal as specified above.

d) Adjustment

In moisture contain adjustment generally we reduced weight of coal by x% if moisture is excess by x%.

- One kg of coal equivalent to 6300kcal of energy.
- One kg of water requires 640kcal of heat to evaporate.

So in a adjustment formula 1 kg of water = 0.1 kg of coal

e) Finding

Actual amendment in price adjustment should be 1.1x% of reduction in quantity of coal if there is x% moisture contain in imported coal. Because this excess of amendment should be done due to equivalent the amount of heat require to evaporate water inform of moisture present in coal.

f) Mechanical Work done on Excess of Moisture Contain in Coal

There are also some mechanical work should be done to uplift the weight of coal due to the excess of moisture which can be calculated as:

Work = Force x Distance

Example - Work done by Force

Let if 100 kg of coal have 1% moisture that means it have 1kg of water, so to lift this excess amount of coal work has to be done, which can be calculated as follow:

The work done by force 1 kg water moving a body 50 m can be calculated as

 $W = F^*L = mg^*I \quad \text{where } m \text{ is weight and } g \text{ is } gravitational force.}$

Work is described as the product of the applied pressure and the displaced volume:

Work = Displaced volume x Applied pressure

The unit of work is joule, which is defined as the amount of work done when a force of 1 Newton acts for a distance of 1 m in the direction of the force.

1 J = 1 Nm

So total energy required is 500 joule.

Example - Work due to Gravitational Force

The work done when lifting a mass of 1kg an elevation of 10 m can be calculated as

W = m* g* h = (1 kg)* (10 m/s²)* (10 m) = 100Nm (J)

IV. Result

Energy required lifting and transport of moisture contain in coal can be calculate by excess of work done on weight of moisture. Amount of this energy is variable in nature depends upon distance travelled by coal.

Finding: First finding of our report due to moisture content require following amendments:

- If imported coal content x% moisture above the agreed limit then we should decrease coal quantity by 1.1x% because of extra energy requirement of burning of coal.
- There should be amendment because of uplifting the excess moisture, which cause excess of freight charges to transport coal.

V. Adjustment Due to Sulphur Content in Coal

Sulphur is a most harmful and environmentally damaging pollutant in our air. Each year, uncontrolled power plants release much more sulphur into the air then cars, truck and factories. Power plants sulphur comes from burning coal. SO_2 emissions are a major problem in the burning of coal and depend on the level of their sulphur concentration. Thermal coal is used in power plant is, a major source of sulphur emission in India.

a) Price Adjustment for Sulphur: (Air Dried Bases)

i. Present Penalty Adjustment in Indian Industry

The sulphur content in coal should be limited to 0.8 % and there shall not be any penalty for sulphur content in the coal received upto 0.8 %. The penalty for sulphur content upto 0.9% shall be @ Rs.10/- per MT for every 0.1% rise and the same above 0.9% shall be @ Rs.15/- per MT for every 0.1% rise .

It is to be noted that if the sulphur content exceed 0.9% for which buyer has to pay penalty for SOx emission above permissible limit that has to be borne by the party.

Calculation of penalty for Sulphur Content (ADB) above 0.8 %

Let the coal sample is having sulphur content of 1 %.

Thus the penalty for high sulphur will be levied in two slabs as below: 5

- @ Rs. 10/- per MT for every 0.1% rise in Sulphur upto 0.9%. As per this, penalty will be for 0.9 (-) 0.8 = 0.1 % = Rs.10/-
- @ Rs. 15/- per MT for every 0.1% rise in Sulphur above 0.9%. As per this, penalty will be for 1.0 (-) 0.9 = 0.1% = Rs.15/-

Hence, penalty deduction per MT for coal received having Sulphur 1.0% the penalty will be:

Here above rate of penalty change depends upon prior agreements.

b) Penalty Associated with Sulphur Content in Imported Coal Depends Upon Following

Sulphur content in coal is removing by scrubbers, so total cost incurred in purification of flue gas desulphurization is associated as penalty of imported coal .Capital costs for So2 scrubbers applied to electric utilities are reported to be approximately \$150/Kw.

Type of scrubber	Size of unit in (MW)	Capital Cost in (\$/KW)	O&M Cost (\$/KW)	Cost per annum (\$/KW)	Cost per tonne of Pollutant Removed (\$/ton)
Wet	>400	1000-2500	2-8	20-50	200-500
wei	<400	2500-1500	8-20	50-200	500-5000
	>200	40-150	4-10	20-50	150-300
Spray Dry	<200	150-1500	10-300	50-500	500-4000

Source : EIA, EPA 2001

c) Calculation

Since the desulphurization cost data is of 2001 and in absence of current data, we may make price adjustment for the inflation.

Assuming a minimum of 5% inflation, compounded inflation factor for 10 years becomes (1.05) $^10 = 1.63$

So from the above calculation average cost per ton of pollutant removed is 500\$/ton.

=500*54 * 1.63 Rs per ton

=44000 per ton

=44 Rs per kg of pollutant removed

Such that if our coal sample content 0.1% of excess of sulphur per metric ton of coal

= 1 kg of sulphur per metric ton of coal

So penalty should be levied should be more than the cost of desulphurization i.e. Rs 44.00 per Mt of coal.

More aware, consumers of steam coal are aware of the fact and have updated the penalty of sulphur. M/s West Bengal Power Development corporation Limited charges Rs 50 PMT for 0.1% increase in sulphur from the guaranteed parameter of 0.8% and charges rs 150 for every 0.1%

VI. Recommendation

Sulphur content in coal is also a major problem for environment. Coal based Thermal power plant are reluctant to cut sulphur contain and their policies are not stringent to contain sulphur pollution in future. Sulphur has ill effect for environment as well as health. Penalty levied on imported coal should be more than cost of desulphurization there should be proper regulation on sulphur emission act.

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Financial Performance of Supermarkets in Karnataka

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GJMBR-C Classification : JEL Code: F65

F I NANC I A LPERFORMANCE OF SUPERMARKETS I NKARNATAKA

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Dr. Ramappa K.B $^{\alpha}$ & Shivaprasad G $^{\sigma}$

Abstract - Global supermarket food products sales are predicted to generate revenue in excess of \$1.70 trillion by 2015, according to research from Global Industry Analysts. Market growth has been driven by the rising importance of consumerism. Since supermarkets first appeared in the US. they have been rolled out all over the globe, with supermarket chains securing their place at the top of the world's retail chain. Due to the effects of the economic recession, the number of consumer visits to supermarkets has fallen over recent years. Currently the UK is undergoing a sustained period of retail growth, with the high level of consumer confidence witnessed in previous years holding up. However, this situation is fragile and could change rapidly. Slower earnings, coupled with speculation about changes in interest rates and job insecurity could affect the rate of growth. Consequently retailers will suffer from even a minor economic downturn as profit margins have already been cut to sustain levels of sales. Overall, however, it is apparent that many retailers are committed to expansion with many new sites due to open over the next few years.

India, with its large, young, and growing population, presents an attractive target for expanding supermarket chains, especially from other less-developed countries. India is attractive to foreign retailers demographically and perhaps economically. Even the local marketers in the developing countries are renovating their traditional shops into a modern supermarket. With this regards an attempt has been made to understand the financial performance of supermarkets (both traditional & organized) in different cities across Karnataka. Various financial ratios were worked out for the year and presented in this paper.

I. INTRODUCTION

Retailing in India is one of the pillars of its economy and accounts for 14 to 15 percent of its GDP (Jonathan, A., et.al, 2007). The Indian retail market is estimated to be US\$ 450 billion (Majumder, S., 2011)) and one of the top five retail markets in the world by economic value. India is one of the fastest growing retail markets in the world, with 1.2 billion people (Bharadwaj, V. T., et al, 2005).

The retail market has been the subject of some profound changes over the recent past. The mix of social and economic conditions which prevailed in the 1980s triggered the arrival of a much more discerning consumer, driven not just by value for money but also increased selectivity and a demand for higher quality shopping environments. These conditions continue to impinge on the nature of today's retail market where consumer loyalty has become a vital ingredient in the success of retailers. Increasingly, successful shopping facilities have to fulfill the role of a destination location. In large parts this means providing a wide range of shopping and leisure facilities able to attractand retain the interest of the entire family. In return such schemes benefit not only from much wider catchment areas, but also from substantially longer shopping trips.

Financial performance refers to any company's ability to generate new resources, from day to day operations, over a given period of time. The financial ratio represents the relationship between two accounting figures expressed mathematically. In financial analysis, a ratio is used as an index or yardstick for evaluating the financial performance or status of any institution against certain standards. Ratio analysis technique is popular in the accounting system of enterprises in general and helps in spotting trends towards better or poor performance. It is helpful in finding significant deviations from an average or pre-determined standard.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Arora and ZebulNisha (1996) in their study on rural food processing in Rampur district of UP concluded that even with a low level of operation rural food processing complexes are making profits. Their annual net returns, operating profit to revenue ratio, net profit to revenue ratio, operating ratio and operating efficiency are 23.70, 25.03, 41.81, 34.49 and 58.18, respectively. The working capital intensity, operating profit to capital employed, net profit to capital employed and interest coverage ratios of 51.16, 68.38, 57.01 and 5.90, respectively, prove their financial soundness.

Devaraja (2000) study examined the performance of the Horticultural Producers Cooperative Marketing and Processing Society Limited in Karnataka, India, during the period 1958/59-1995/96. Physical and financial indicators of performance such as membership, retail outlets, share capital, owned funds, total assets, long-term investments, fixed assets, working capital, total liabilities, and sales, were analysed. Results show that there were substantial increases both in physical and financial indicators over the period of study.

Gustafson (2003) study revealed that in Fargo, USA, on an average, both food manufacturing and food retailing small businesses had positive financial

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characteristics. Although, they were only marginally profitable and liquid, they were highly solvent. Accounts receivable and inventory comprise nearly half of food manufacturers' total assets and a third of food retailers' assets. By most financial measures, food retailers were statistically smaller than food manufacturers. Both food manufacturers and food retailers utilized computers, primarily for accounting/book keeping, inventory management, and administration. Primary financial services used were for transactions and trade credit. Nearly three-fourths of food manufacturing and one-half of food retailing supply purchases involve trade credit from a large number of trade credit suppliers, on average. Both firm types have higher credit risks and were tardy with repayment of trade credit.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study is mainly concerned with the food retailing activities of the supermarkets across selected five cities in particular and Karnataka state in general.

To fulfill the objectives related to the supermarkets operations of the study a multistage random sampling technique was used. In the initial stage, Karnataka state was selected as it is one of the leading states in organized retailing in India. At the second stage, five cities across Karnataka such as Bangalore, Hubli-Dharwad, Mangalore, Belgaum and Mysore were selected as the majority of organized retailers were existed in these areas. Recently, most of the local retailers in these areas also modernizing their stores in the form of modern formats like supermarkets. In the last stage, three supermarkets (one outlet/ branch) from each city were selected randomly, so, that the total sample size selected for the study were 15. Among the number of supermarkets existing in these areas, only three supermarketers who were agreed to provide the data are selected. However, supermarkets which were in operation for at least two successive years were selected and their performances were studied for the last financial year.

The detailed information required for the study was collected from secondary sources in order to accomplish the objective of the study.

The data on financial management aspects like different assets and liabilities, owned fund, inventory, working capital, sales and returns were collected from their records like Balance sheet, Profit and Loss account and Trade account were collected to know the financial status of these supermarkets.

a) Analytical Techniques Employed

The financial ratio analysis technique was considered in evaluating the performance of the supermarkets and they mainly point out the relative importance of the selected items. The financial statements used in this study correspond to the financial year of the supermarkets. The ratio analysis technique has been heavily relied upon, to test the solvency, liquidity, profitability, turnover and sales of the supermarkets.

IV. Results & Discussions

The financial ratios relevant to supermarkets in retailing are grouped under four different categories namely, solvency ratios, liquidity ratios, profitability ratios and turnover ratios and are presented in Table 4. 28.

a) Solvency Ratios

The solvency ratios indicate the extent of amount borrowed per rupee of owned funds in the business. Solvency refers to the ability of the supermarket to repay its outside long-term liabilities/total liabilities in turn it indicates long-term stability of a concern. The solvency ratios analyzed during the study were identified as total liabilities to owned funds ratio and fixed assets to owned funds ratio.

The ratio of total liabilities to owned funds was found to be 0.798, 0.600, 1.905, 3.535, 0.345 in Bangalore, Mysore, Mangalore, Hubli-Dharwad and Belgaum, respectively. Even the ratio of fixed assets to owned funds was found to be highest in Mangalore (1.731) followed by Hubli-Dharwad (1.367) and Bangalore (0.697). This indicated that the amount of borrowed fund per rupee was higher in Hubli-Dharwad followed by Mangalore, Bangalore, Mysore and Belgaum. This was because the amount pooled by the Hubli-Dharwad and Mangalore markets was low when compared to other cities. On the overall across cities, it was 1.400 which indicates the soundness of the supermarket business in the state. The recent conversion of traditional stores to modern type of supermarkets in these cities also made these supermarkets to be more dependency on external funds. Therefore, the supermarkets should taken care for improving the own funds and volume of business to the need of improving financial strengths of the supermarkets.

b) Liquidity Ratios

Liquidity ratio indicates the continuous operation of the supermarkets. These ratios are used to measure the ability of an institution to possess adequate cash to meet immediate obligations. The liquidity position of the supermarkets was examined using two ratios namely liquid assets to total assets ratio and current assets to current liabilities ratio.

It was noticed from the table (Table 4.28) that in all the supermarkets the liquid assets to total assets ratio was less than 0.5, which is 0.459 in Bangalore, 0.404 in Mysore, 0.399 in Mangalore, 0.157 in Belgaum and 0.268 in Hubli-Dharwad and hence the overall was 0.337. It indicated that more than 50 per cent of the assets were not in liquid assets form. Therefore, all the

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units should increase the proportion of liquid assets in the total assets so as to improve the liquidity status of all the supermarkets.

The current ratio (ratio of current assets to current liabilities) presented in the table indicates that the ratio was more than one in all the cities supermarkets except Mysore, wherein the ratio was 0.994. It means to say the supermarkets had more than one rupee of current assets per rupee of current liabilities. The minimal acceptable level for value of this ratio is two. Hence, there existed a need for improving the liquidity position of the supermarkets by reducing its dependency on the short-term borrowings.

c) Profitability Ratios

In the present study, the profitability ratios were analysed for measuring the efficiency of the firms in utilizing their resources for generating profits. The profitability of the study supermarkets in this case was analysed through net profits to fixed assets ratio, net profits to total assets ratio, net profits to owned funds ratio and net profits to total sales ratio were calculated and presented in Table 4.28.

Net profits to fixed assets ratio were found to be high in Mysore wherein the ratio was 1.297 and least in Bangalore (0.572) and in other cities also the ratio was more than 0.677. This indicated that the profit generated per rupee of fixed assets was guite good in all the cities in turn it indicates the efficient use of fixed assets by the supermarkets. Similarly, the overall net profit to total assets was 2.499 which indicate that the profit generated per rupee of total assets was nearly 2.50 which indicated the improved efficiency of rupees supermarkets in utilizing the total assets. The ratio of net profits to owned funds ratio point outs the net profits for each rupee of own funds used in the business, which were 4.621 incase of Mangalore, while 1.773 in case of Hubli-Dharwad and the least was observed in Belgaum (0.537). This ratio shows that the supermarkets were quite able to protects its equity and hence generate profits on the equity. Net profits to total sales were also found to be very significant in all the cities across the state indicating more than a 0.170 rupee contribution to per rupee total sales and still there is a need for improving capacity utilization and sales performances.

d) Turnover Ratio

The turnover ratio indicates the operational efficiency of the supermarkets in the study area. The efficiency of supermarkets in the selected cities was compared using the indicators such as working capital turnover ratio and fixed assets turnover ratios.

The working capital turnover ratio indicated the efficiency of a supermarket in utilizing its working capital for generating sales revenues. The ratio was highest of 5.156 in Belgaum followed by 1.890 in Bangalore, 1.576 in Mangalore, 1.539 in Hubli-Dharwad and 1.331 in Mysore supermarkets. This indicated the turnover per

unit of working capital was higher in Belgaum over all other supermarkets and good in all other cities. This shows the lack of efficiency in sales even with higher working capital. In contrast, the fixed assets to turnover ratios were higher in the order of Mysore, Hubli-Dharwad, Mangalore, Belgaum and in Bangalore (6.784, 4.319, 3.971, 3.931 and 3.581, respectively). This was because these supermarkets were able to achieve higher sales targets with less investment in fixed assets accordingly.

The above all financial statuses of the retailers/supermarketers were similar to the study conducted by Gustafson (2003). The study revealed that in Fargo, USA, on an average, both food manufacturing and food retailing small businesses had positive financial characteristics. Although, they were only marginally profitable and liquid, they were highly solvent. Accounts receivable and inventory comprise nearly half of food manufacturers' total assets and a third of food retailers' assets.

V. Summary & Conclusions

The ratio of total liabilities to owned funds was found to be 0.798, 0.600, 1.905, 3.535, 0.345 in Bangalore, Mysore, Mangalore, Hubli-Dharwad and Belgaum, respectively. The ratio of fixed assets to owned funds was found to be the highest in Mangalore (1.731) followed by Hubli-Dharwad (1.367) and Bangalore (0.697).

It was noticed that in all the supermarkets, the liquid assets to total assets ratio was less than 0.5, which is 0.459 in Bangalore, 0.404 in Mysore, 0.399 in Mangalore, 0.157 in Belgaum and 0.268 in Hubli-Dharwad and hence the overall was 0.337. It indicated that more than 50 per cent of the assets were not in liquid assets form.

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The solvency and liquidity ratios of the supermarkets were found to be very negligible and hence they should be taken care for improving the own funds, volume of business and liquidity position to the need of improving financial strengths of the supermarkets.

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Ratios	Particulars	Bangalore	Mysore	Mangalore	Hubli- Dharwad	Belgaum	Overall
Test of Solvency	Ratio of total liability to owned funds Fixed assets to owned funds ratio	0.798 0.697	0.600 0.317	1.905 1.731	3.353 1.367	0.345 0.154	1.400 0.853
Test of Liquidity	Ratio of liquid assets to total assets Ratio of current assets to current liabilities	0.459	0.404	0.399	0.268	0.157 3.623	0.337
Tests of Profitability	Net profits to fixed assets ratio Net profits to total assets ratio Net profits to owned funds ratio Net profits to total sales ratio	0.572 1.373 0.856 0.205	1.297 3.146 1.229 0.191	0.677 2.187 4.621 0.170	0.717 0.868 1.773 0.180	0.705 4.509 0.537 0.178	0.811 2.499 1.989 0.189
Test of Turnover	Working capital turnover Fixed assets turnover ratio	1.431 2.716	1.331 6.784	1.576 3.971	1.375 3.974	5.156 3.931	2.174 4.275

Table 1 : Financial Performance of Supermarkets



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Analysis of the Determinants of Earnings Smoothing: The Case of Tunisian Companies

By Myriam Boudiche

El Manar University, Tunis Cedex, Tunisia

Abstract - The objective of this paper is to analyze the impact of the determinants of income smoothing in Tunis, which is to reduce the volatility of results.

From a sample of 50 companies listed on the stock exchange of Tunis (Tunis Stock Exchange) during the period 2006-2010. We have developed an explanatory model of earnings management practices based on logistic regression. Our results show that the use of debt companies, calling the companies audited by a firm of "big six" provides a smoothing of results high.

In the end, this original work of Tunisian data led to very carefully reinterpret the results of previous studies.

Keywords : earnings management, manager, operating profit. GJMBR-C Classification : FOR Code: 150201, JEL Code: F65



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Keywords : earnings management, manager, operating profit.

I. INTRODUCTION

t is commonly accepted that leaders seek to change the perception of stakeholders on the financial situation of the company managing the results according to their objectives. Managers results "down" to reduce the amount of taxes, manage "upward" to meet the expectations of financial analysts or the smooth (Dechow and Skinner, 2000). Indeed, in a context of asymmetric information and bounded rationality stakeholders, smoothing results may provide various gains, reducing the volatility of results.

Our contribution is to highlight the importance of some specific incentives smoothing results in the context of the Tunisian economic environment. We analyze the impact of specific factors that potentially influence the policy of smoothing results.

Smoothing is done in order to achieve the forecasts made by financial analysts or announced by the leaders. Indeed, Bartov, Givoly and Hayn (2002) noted that leaders are forced to manage the results according to these forecasts prove to shareholders and much of their information.

The approach adopted by the authors to study the impact of earnings management is essentially based on a quantitative approach. However, Durtschi and Easton (2005) have questioned the appropriateness of the models used because of the researchers' ability to measure reliably the observed phenomenon. Ramana and Watts (2007) admit that the motivation to manage different results from one society to another and that the expected gains from smoothing are more important for the most indebted companies, smaller and operate in sectors business more competitive.

In the end, this paper adds to the literature in two ways, in one hand, it analyzes the high sensitivity of smoothing to methodological choices. In this sense, it leads to very carefully reinterpret the results highlighted by Leuz, Nanda and Wysocki (2003), who retained a measure of specific smoothing. On the other hand, our study complements the international literature by providing current results on the determinants of income smoothing by Tunisian companies such as debt, the size of the company, the industry, the leaders in capital and audit quality.

This paper is organized as follows. In second section, we describe our methodology. The third section is devoted to the analysis of the determinants of smoothing. A final section summarizes our results and concludes.

II. METHODOLOGY

a) Sample

In a baseline study of smoothing results at international level, Leuz, Nanda and Wysocki (2003) find that companies located in countries where shareholders protection is better protected, tend to be more smooth earnings, compared to companies located in countries where shareholders protection is weaker. Our study of Tunisian data, is part of this current research which aims to deepen the results of three main ways.

First, we check if the findings are contingent on the extent of smoothing measure used. These authors proposed a specific measure that focuses on operating profit corporations. However, it is possible that different measures of smoothing significantly alter these conclusions.

Second, we analyze the smoothness of Tunisian companies, traded, during a more recent period (2006-2010), six years, to verify whether the conclusions are contingent on the study period. Third, we observe the impact of smoothing on the determinants of riskier companies.

Finally, this study expands the literature in two main ways. On one hand, it leads to reinterpret carefully the results highlighted by Leuz, Nanda and Wysocki (2003), who retained a measure of specific smoothing. On the other hand, our study complements the international literature by providing current results on the smoothing results by Tunisian companies.

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b) The Smoothing Measures

Various measures have been proposed smoothing in the literature, one of them seems to be particularly interesting. The measure used by Leuz, Nanda and Wysocki (2003), which retains the variability of operating cash flows to assess the smoothing. It consists of comparing the variability of the results with the variability of cash flows, therefore, the variability results lower than cash flow which will lead to smooth results.

$$Liss = \frac{\partial BN / \partial TA}{\partial FTO / \partial TA}$$

With:

2013

 ∂ : Standard deviation of changes

BN: Net profit of the company

TA: Total assets of the company

FTO: Operating cash flow of the company.

III. The Determinants of Income Smoothing

If previous results tell us about the behavior of companies smoothing, however they do not provide any information about the reasons for smoothing which is considered as more or less important between the companies.

This section aims to introduce the factors that motivate companies to smooth their results more strongly, apprehended using the following five factors: debt, size, and sector of companies' activities, the leaders in capital and audit quality.

a) The Debt

Debt increases the risk borne by shareholders and the risk perceived by other partners. Smoothing is supposed to reduce the risk, to expect gains in terms of financing's cost.

Truemann and Titman (1988) find that information asymmetry between managers and an external user of information is an incentive for earnings management practices. Empirically, Carlson and Bathala (1997) found a positive relationship between smoothing and debt levels.

i. Hypothesis 1a

The debt should positively influence the smoothing results.

b) The Size

Size presents another variable to explain the smoothing. Indeed, large companies are more diversified and less risky. Moreover, leaders are encouraged to naturally smooth results due to the pressure of financial analysts. The empirical results provide conflicting results, Fern, Brown and Dickey (1994) confirm the importance of the size, against the

research and Chenail Breton (1997) cannot connect to the smoothing size of the company.

i. Hypothesis1b

The larger companies should have more influence on smoothing results.

ii. Hypothesis1b

Larger companies do not smooth results.

c) Sector

Also, Sector is a variable that can explain the smoothing. Companies operating in less competitive sectors are less risky. Belkaoui and Picur (1984) confirm that companies belonging to the sector competitive smooth their results more than other companies in order to neutralize the uncertainty of the environment. These findings are contradicted by Breton and Chenail (1997) who find that there is no difference between the behaviors of firms in both sectors.

i. Hypothesis1c

The sector is expected to positively influence. the smoothing

ii. Hypothesis1c

The area has no influence on the smoothing.

d) The Proportion of Leaders in the Capital

Smoothing results preserved human capital management, it has a better picture that can help to protect against the risk. Holthausen, Larker and Sloan (1995) find that increasing the leaders in the capital to align the interests of executives with those of shareholders. Also, Mork, Shleifer and Vishney (1998) find a positive influence of the concentration of capital in the hands of the leader on the level of smoothing.

i. Hypothesis1d

Leaders are encouraged to smooth earnings when their shares in the capital of the company are high.

e) The Quality Audit

Listeners can constrain the smoothing results. Previous studies of Becker, Defond, Jiambalvo and Subramanyam (1998) and those of Francis, Maydew and Sparks (1999) suggest that audit quality is often reflected in a lower income smoothing. Listeners "big six" are presumed to be more competent and therefore provide a better quality of service than auditors' non big six. "

i. Hypothesis1e

Managers have less incentive to perform smoothing accounting results when the company is audited by a firm of "big six."

Table 1 : Summary table presenting an overview of empirical studies and hypotheses on the determinants of income
smoothing

Variables	Authors	Sample	Period	Assumptions Authors
Debt: (H1a)	Truemann et Titman (1988)	Qualitative	1987	There is a positive relationship between smoothing and debt
	Carlson et Bathala (1997)	100 companies	1990 to 1995	levels.
Size: (H1b)	Fern, Brown et Dickey (1994)	26 companies	1971 to 1989	Larger companies more heavily smooth results.
	Defon M et Park C (1997)	20 companies	1994	Larger companies do not smooth results.
Sector: (H1c)	Watts et Zimmerman (1990)	26 companies	1988	The sector should positively influence the smoothing.
	Defon M et Park C (1997)	20 companies	1994	Sector has no influence on the smoothing.
Percentag e-retention	Mork, Shleifer et Vishney (1989)	500 companies	1980	Leaders are encouraged to smooth earnings when their
leaders: (H1d)	Holthausen, Larker et Sloan (1995)	Three groups of manager A,B et C	1980 to 1990	shares in the capital of the company are high.
Quality Audit: (H1e)	Becker, Defond, Jiambalvo et Subramanyam (1998)	10,379 big six 2,179 non big six	1995	Leaders have fewer incentives to exercise accounting income smoothing when the company is
、 - /	Francis, Maydew et Sparks (1999)	100 companies that use big 6 auditors	1975 to 1994	audited by a firm of "big six."

f) The Measures of the Determinants of Smoothing Tunisian Companies

To assess the importance of the five factors discussed in the smoothing results, we define the following five variables:

- Debt: The debt ratio (total debt / total assets) median of the study period considered (2006-2010);
- Size: the median of the natural logarithm of total assets over the study period fixed;
- Sector: the sector of society. This variable is used to assess the level of competition in the sector. If the

company belongs to a competitive industry, the variable takes the value 1, otherwise it equals 0;

- Percentage-retention leaders: This variable is used to test the influence of the concentration of capital in the hands of the leaders on the level of earnings management;
- Quality Audit: This variable can capture audit quality.
 If the company is audited by a firm of "big six", the variable takes the value 1 if it is equal to 0.

Hypotheses tested	operational definition	operational name	Sign	Data source
H1a	Total debt Total assets	Indebt	+	Annual Report
H1b	Ln (total assets)	Size	+	Annual Report
H1b'		0120	-	Annual hepon
H1c	dichotomous variable	Sect	+	Annual Report
H1c'	High technology: 1 Other: 0		-	
H1d	% Retention of managers	DIR	+	Annual Report
H1e	0 : agency « non big six » 1 : agency « big six » (binary variable)	Audit	-	Annual Report

Table 2 : Definition of variables smoothing results

IV. Empirical Results

a) Methodology

To reflect the level of smoothing Tunisian companies and the impact of the various measures

used on the results, we analyze the relationship between the level and determinants of smoothing contained in the financial records, through the logistic regression model. To assess the determinants of earnings management, we use the following model:

$$Liss = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Endett + \alpha_2 Taille + \alpha_3 Sect + \alpha_4 DIR + \alpha_5 Audit + \varepsilon_{i,j}$$
(1)

i. Correlation Matrix

It is appropriate to examine the correlations of the explanatory variables may bias the conclusions of this analysis to detect collinearity between them.

Variables	Dettes	Taille	Secteur	Dir	Audit
Dettes	1	0.5216981	-0.07712473	-0.1282415	-0.103064
Taille	0.5216981	1	-0.11845	-0.0711245	0.0242464
Secteur	-0.0771247	-0.11845	1	0.225473	-0.030009
Dir	-0.128241	-0.071124	0.225473	1	-0.103064
Audit	0.155129	0.024246	-0.0300099	-0.103064	1

An examination of the correlation matrix shows that there is no problem of collinearity between the explanatory variables because they have a low correlation, consequently, we are not obliged to take corrective action.

Correlation coefficients range from a minimum equal to -0030 to a maximum equal to 0225, with the exception of the relationship between the size and the debt, the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.521 respectively. According to Kennedy (1992), these two values do not reveal the presence of a serious collinearity problem, as it confirms that this problem exists when the correlation coefficient exceeds the threshold of 0.8. So we will use all the variables in our model.

In addition, our model explained 18% of the Durbin-Watson statistics are almost equal to 2, hence no problem of autocorrelation.

Variable	Coeffi	cient	Prob.		
С	0.006	6754	0.9924		
AUDIT	**-0.29	98197	0.0454		
DETTE	***-1.4	0E-09	0.0891		
DIR	0.114	747	0.7632		
SECT	0.139	653	0.6173		
TAILLE	0.128	3592	0.1647		
R-squared	0.181461	Mean dependent var		0.748637	
Adjusted R-squared	0.088445	S.D. depe	0.472864		
S.E. of regression	0.451469	Durbin-Wa	2.417478		

ii. Model Estimation

iii. Interpretation of the Significance of the Signs of the Estimated Coefficients

We note that the explanatory variables completely different depending on the extent of smoothing. More specifically, the debt variable has a negative sign (-1.40E-09), which implies that when the company is leveraged, the smoothing is more important. However, the debt variable is significant at a level of risk equal to 10%. These results allow us to conclude that the debt is a factor smoothing. This conclusion can accept the first hypothesis (H1a), that the debt should positively influence the smoothing results. Thus, the most indebted companies strongly smooth the result because they find it more difficult to raise new funds.

Regarding the Audit variable, although the coefficient on this variable is negative (-0.298197), this supports the companies audited by a firm of "big six" smooth stronger result. Variable is significant at a level

of risk equal to 5%. This conclusion can accept the fifth hypothesis (H1e). This result in Tunisian companies, auditors "big six" can not compel leaders against a high smoothing.

With regard to the variable size, the sign is positive (0.128592), which means that corporations smooth less strongly than smaller. Certainly, large corporations, subject to closer monitoring by financial analysts are better diversified and should show results more smoothed. Despite its positive sign, the coefficient on the size variable is not significant. The size of Tunisian companies does not seem to have a major impact on income smoothing.

Also, the sector variable admits a positive coefficient (0.139653), implying that the sector has a positive effect on smoothing. By cons, this coefficient is not significant, reflecting the idea that smoothing is not different in more competitive areas.

Finally, the coefficient on the variable measuring the percentage of Dir ownership concentration in the hands of leaders is positive (0.114747), however, is not significant, hence the leaders in the capital n 'is not a determinant of smoothing, this result allows us to reject the fifth hypothesis. We conclude that a high concentration of capital in the hands of management cannot overcome the conflicts of interest between managers and shareholders.

V. Conclusion

This work devoted to Tunisian data smoothing results by Tunisian companies' which aims to verify the importance of the five factors that assess the behavior of smoothing companies.

The main results are as follows. First, the use of debt companies provides high performance smoothing because they find it more difficult to raise new funds. More specifically, it appears that the debt positively influences the smoothing results.

Second, the use of audited companies with a firm "big six" influences the quality of the explanatory model smoothing. This is true because the companies audited by a firm of "big six" smooth stronger result. More specifically, it appears that in Tunisian firms, auditors "big six" cannot compel leaders against a high smoothing.

These results lead us to conclude that the results of previous studies conducted around the world, should be explained with some caution, since the choice of measures used differs from one country to another that may cause an impact on the results set evidence.

To conclude, we assume that the smoothing is far from being exhausted, since many events can affect companies such as changes in management, changes in accounting standards, which are likely to significantly influence the smoothing. Hence further studies will be necessary to determine whether these events affect the smoothing result and will help us to identify it correctly.

The classical limits for this type of study, the choice of variables or measures of these variables can be highlighted. Also, we encourage researchers to conduct further research on this topic and on other samples with various methodological refinements to complete these initial results.

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Impact of Firm Level Factors on Capital Structure: Evidence from Ethiopian Insurance Companies

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Abstract - The purpose of this study is to investigate important firm-level determinants of capital structure on Ethiopian insurance companies. The study employs panel regression model. The results show that growth, profitability and age of the firm were found to have significant influence on Ethiopian insurance companies' capital structure. Liquidity and business risk were also significant for long term debt and total debt ratio respectively. However, among the hypothesized capital structure determinants asset tangibility and size of the firm were found to have statistically insignificant contribution on capital structure of Ethiopian insurance companies.

Keywords : capital structure, ethiopia, firm level factors, insurance companies.

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I. INTRODUCTION

n one way or another, business activity must be financed. Without finance to support their fixed assets and working capital requirements, business could not exist. There are three primary sources of finance for companies: Cash surplus from operating activities, new equity funding, borrowing from bank and non- bank sources. By taking into account a company's particular circumstances, management should decide what the most appropriate mix of internal and external funding i.e. how the company should structure the necessary capital to finance its activities. This leads to capital structure decision, which affects the financial performance of the firm and it is one of the tough challenges that firms face (Abor, 2005).

The roots of the modern capital structure theory can be assumed to be grown up on the seminal paper of Modigliani and Miller (1958) commonly known as the MM theory, dating back to 1958 as one of the most influential papers in the economics literature. It states that based on the assumption of no brokerage, tax and bankruptcy costs, investors can borrow at the same rate as corporations and they would tend to have the same information as management about the firm's future investment opportunities. The MM theory proves that under some restrictions a firm's value would be unaffected by its capital structure and thus assumes that earnings before income tax (EBIT) would not have been related to the use of debt, that leads to the inference that capital structure may be considered irrelevant, and the fundamental assumptions of the theory can be assumed unrealistic in the eyes of investors and other economic agents (Modigliani & Miller, 1963). In line with these theoretical fundamentals, the preceding arguments lead to the development of trade off theory which suggests that a firm's target leverage is determined by taxes and costs of financial distress.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Brounen & Eichholtz (2001) explain that in the trade off theory the interest payments tend to be tax deductible, this makes debt less expensive than the use of equity financing; which leads us to assume that there would be a positive relationship between the corporate tax shield and the value of the firm. Brounen & Eichholtz (2001) further states, in practice, the firms rarely use 100% debt financing. Because, when a firm raises excessive debt to finance its operations, it may default on this debt and thus can be exposed to bankruptcy costs. For these reasons, trade off theory claims that tax shield benefits of debt financing need to be adjusted for financial distress costs that rise with increasing debt levels, creating an optimal capital structure that balances both forces.

However, according to the pecking order theory of Myers (1984), companies prioritize their sources of financing - from internal financing to equity issuesaccording to the law of least effort, or preferring to raise equity as a financing means of last resort. Hence, internal funds are likely to be used first, and only when they are depleted, the firms apply to the new debt issues. Similarly, Mary *et al.* (2011) put in plain words that in case of using external financing, the firms issue the cheapest security first so they start with debt, and then possibly apply to hybrid securities such as convertible bonds, and they issue equity only as a last resort. Thus, in contrast to the trade-off theory, there is no well-defined target leverage ratio in the pecking order theory.

Mary *et al.* (2011) further elucidate that if a company has too much debt; it may overextend its ability to service the debt and can be vulnerable to business downturns and changes in interest rates, and thus would be viewed to be financially risky. On the other hand, too much equity dilutes ownership interest

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and exposes the company to outside control. This may be discouraging to investors, because it means less profits being distributed to them. All these lead to nonstopping debates that make the topic to be researched in various countries.

So far most studies have been conducted on an effort to preview capital structure decision and its impact on firm value on developed countries perspective. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to present empirical evidence on the determinants of capital structure of insurance companies in the context of a developing country since a design feature that works well in one country may not in another. As Bird 2005 (cited in Yesegat, 2009) noted this may be referred to as The No-One-Size-Fits-All (the NOSFA) principle. Specifically in Ethiopia, though few studies have been conducted on the determinants of capital structure, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, insurance industry has received little attention. Therefore, the current study investigates empirically the firm-specific determinants of capital structure of insurance companies in Ethiopia over the period 2004-2010.

III. **OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

The main objective of the study is to empirically examine the link between a number of potential firmspecific capital structure determinants and debt level, and to identify relevant theories as well, for the insurance industry in Ethiopia.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section discusses the literature concerning the capital structure determinants. First it considers the general theory of capital structure. This is followed by a review of the empirical studies on the determinants of capital structure choice.

a) Theoretical Framework

The theoretical principles underlying the capital structure, financing and lending choices of firms can be described either in terms of a static trade-off choice or pecking order framework. Trade-off hypothesis, developed by Myers (1984), proposes that firm should have optimal capital structure based on balancing between the benefits of debt and costs of debt. It also postulates that a firm will borrow up to the point where the marginal value of tax shields on additional debt is balanced by increasing the present value of possible bankruptcy costs (Myers, 2001).

According to the trade-off theory, higher profitability lowers the expected costs of distress; however, firms increase their leverage to take advantage from tax benefits. Moreover, agency theory supports this positive relation because of the free cash flow theory of Jensen (1986). Therefore, leverage and profitability are positively related. On the other hand, according to pecking order theory, Myers (2003) discusses that firms

prefer to finance with internal funds rather than debt if internal equity is sufficient due to the asymmetric information. Hence, profitability is expected to have negative relation with leverage.

The pecking order theory was developed by Myers and Majluf (1984) and it focuses on asymmetric information costs. It states that external investors do not have access to required information on the topic of the value of the firm's assets and growth opportunities. The information asymmetry may also explain why existing investors do not support new equity financing. The reason is that the new investors may require higher returns to reimburse the risk of their investment and this request dilutes the returns of existing investors, and thus the firm should follow specific hierarchy for financing its assets. At the outset, the firm utilizes internally produced fund i.e. retained earnings followed by debt and if more funds are required, as a final option, assets are financed by equity capital. Therefore, according to the pecking order hypothesis, firms that are profitable generate high earnings are expected to use less debt capital than that do not generate high earnings.

b) Review of Empirical Studies

Following from above theoretical standpoints, a number of empirical studies have identified firm-level characteristics that affect the capital structure of firms. Among these characteristics are: liquidity, firm risk, growth, tangibility of assets, size of the firm, profitability and firm age.

i. *Liquidity*

Various researchers investigated the link between liquidity and capital structure, and some find positive relation and some others provided negative relation evidences.

Morellec (2001) gives a comprehensive analysis of the implications of liquidity that build up the asset transformation theme by applying dynamic model of a levered firm; and they showed that partial asset sale increases the value of equity and reduces the value of debt. Thus, asset liquidity reduces the value of the firm and the debt capacity of the firm. Consequently, asset liquidity can result in underinvestment relative to the illiquid asset benchmark case, and leads to an inverse relationship with the level of debt. Similarly, Lipson and Mortal (2010) discover that firms with more liquid equity carry less debt, as predicted by the trade-off model. Further, when considering external financing, firms with more liquidity are more inclined to raise equity than debt. Likewise, the finding of Naveed et al. (2010) empirical investigation on Pakistan Life Insurance Sector shows a negative relation between liquidity and leverage.

ii. Business Risk

Despite the broad consensus that firm risk is an important inverse determinant of corporate debt policy, empirical investigation has led to contradictory results.

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For instance, unusually, Rafiq et al. (2008) found positive relationship between leverage and risk. Likewise, an empirical study by Mary *et al.* (2011) on the determinants of capital structure in listed Egyptian Corporations also indicates a positive relation between business risk and leverage, which contradicts the theoretical background and the findings observed in most developed and developing countries. However; most theories and empirical findings (Titman & Wessels 1988) indicate an inverse relationship between risk and debt ratio.

iii. Growth

Most researchers evidenced that higher growth firms use less debt. For instance, Rajan and Zingales (1995) performed upon a firm-level sample from each of the countries, and although the results of their regression analysis differ slightly across countries, they appear to uncover some fairly strong conclusion; and find a negative relationship between growth and the level of leverage on data from the developed countries. This is consistent with trade-off theory. On the other hand, some others found positive relationships between growth and leverage; for example, Booth *et al.* (2001).

The empirical investigation of Naveed *et al.* (2010) on Pakistan life insurance companies indicates a positive relationship between growth and debt ratio. However, this positive relationship is found statistically insignificant. Though positive sign confirms that growing firms are expected to have high debt ratio (Pecking order theory) but insignificant result indicates that growth is not considered as a proper explanatory variable of leverage in life insurance sector.

iv. Asset Tangibility

Tangible assets are likely to have an impact on the borrowing decisions of a firm because they are less subject to informational asymmetries and usually have a greater value than intangible assets in case of bankruptcy. Static trade-off and pecking order theories maintain that there is a positive correlation between debt ratio and tangibility. The majority of empirical studies in developed countries also found a positive relationship between tangibility and leverages (Rajan & Zingales, 1995). However, empirical studies for developing countries found mixed relationship between these variables. On the other hand, some studies reported a negative relation between tangibility of assets and debt level; for example, Booth et *al.* (2001).

v. Firm Size

The effect of size on debt ratios is ambiguous from the theoretical point of view; some authors encountered a positive relation between size and leverage; some others reported negative relation and others also found statistically insignificant relationship between them.

Mary *et al.* (2011) recent work on the actively listed Egyptian corporations, the findings of the estimated model and the various other tests confirm the

existence of a significant positive relation between the firm size and the debt-equity ratio. This finding conforms to those of the other empirical studies conducted in countries all over the world. These results also confirm the notion that large firms are employed more debt because these are less risky and diversified in nature (static trade- off theory). In addition, larger firms are preferred to issue more debt because it reduces direct bankruptcy costs due to market confidence. Moreover, smaller firms prefer to acquire lower debt because these firms might face the risk of liquidation at the time of financial distress.

Contrary to the above, Faris (2010) found a negative relationship between leverage and firm size. A quite different result was also obtained by Dilek *et al.* (2009) using panel data analysis within the time period 2000-2007 on Turkish firms; and they report as the coefficient of the size of the firm is statistically insignificant and also its coefficient takes a value about zero.

vi. Profitability

Chittenden *et al.* (1996) state that empirical evidence from previous studies examining on capital structure is consistent with pecking order arguments with leverage being found to be negatively related to profitability. Akhtar (2005) also found significant and negative coefficients of profitability variable which conform to the pecking order theory. Similarly, Naveed *et al.* (2010) analysis on Pakistan Life Insurance Sector indicates the negative relationship between leverage and profitability and predicts that, in Pakistan, profitable life insurance companies are preferred to utilize small portion of debt. This result confirms the notion that Pakistani life insurance companies follow pecking order pattern i.e. preferred to employ internal financing than debt.

However, Mohammad (2007) made empirical analysis on Bangladeshi companies and found that the coefficient of profitability is positive which is contrary to the researcher's previous argument; but statistically insignificant. Finally, the researcher gave the conclusion that the positive signs could be explained by the argument that profitable firms will be able to attract more debts from banks and the capital market and these firms will prefer debt in order to reduce their higher tax rate on profit. However, the fact that the coefficients are not significant implies that profitability does not have any material impact on capital structure decision for Bangladeshi companies. Likewise, Dilek *et al.* (2009) also found profitability to be the most significant variable with a positive sign.

vii. Firm Age

Age of the firm is a standard measure of reputation in capital structure models. As a firm continues longer in business, it establishes itself as an ongoing business and, therefore, increases its capacity to take on more debt; hence age is positively related to debt (Myers, 2001).

Contrary to the theory, negative coefficient of variable age by Naveed et al. (2010) on Pakistan insurance companies specifies the negative relationship between age of the insurance companies and debt ratio. This inverse relationship predicts that in Pakistan older or mature insurance companies are preferred to utilize small portion of debt in formation of capital. According to Naveed et al. (2010) one key reason to employ less debt ratio is that when firm survives in business for a long time then it can accumulates more funds for running the operations of the business and subsequently keeps away the firm to go for debt financing.

V. Research Methodology

The study examines firm level factors that determine the capital structure of insurance companies in Ethiopia. Currently, twelve insurance companies are working in Ethiopia; and the researcher believe that, for meaningful analysis, there is no need to sample from the twelve insurance companies as they are already few in number to collect information over the period of 2004-2010. However, three insurance companies (Lion, Oromia and Ethio-Life) did not have information for the required period; their year of service was below five, and thus they were excluded in the sampling frame to make the panel data model structured. The data was collected from each insurance company's annual report over the proposed period. Following (Chkir & Cosset, 2001; Dilek et al., 2009) the two dependent variables were total debt and long term debt ratios.

The debt (DEBT) ratio is total debt to total asset while the long-term debt (LTD) ratio is the total long-term debt divided by total asset. The explanatory variables include liquidity (LQ), business risk (BR), growth (GR), tangibility (TA), size of the firm (SZ), profitability (PR) and age of the firm (AG). The entire variable for this study is based on book value in line with the argument by Myers (1984) that book values are good proxies for the value of assets in place.

The nature of data used in this study enables the researcher to use panel data model which is deemed to have advantages over cross section and time series data methodology. As Brook (2008) states the advantages of using the panel data set; first it can address a broader range of issues and tackle more complex problems with panel data than would be possible with pure time-series or pure cross-sectional data alone. Second, it is often examine how the relationships between variables change dynamically. Besides, by combining cross-sectional and time series data, one can increase the number of degrees of freedom, and thus the power of the test. It can also help mitigate problems of multicollinearity among to explanatory variables that may arise if time series are modeled individually. Third, by structuring the model in an appropriate way (fixed or random effect), we can remove the impact of certain forms of omitted variables bias in regression results and it can allow controlling for individual unobserved heterogeneity among the cross sections. Thus, the general model for this study, as is mostly found in the extant literature is represented by:

$$Y_{it} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{o} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\tau} X_{tit} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2} X_{2it} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{3} X_{3it} + \dots + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{k} X_{kit} + \mathbf{e}_{it}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\beta}_{o} + \boldsymbol{\beta} X_{it} + \mathbf{e}_{it}$$
(1)

With the subscript *i* denoting the cross-sectional dimension and *t* representing the time series dimension. The left-hand variable, Y_{ih} represents the dependent variable in the model. X_{it} contains the set of explanatory variables in the estimation model, β_0 is the constant, β represents the coefficients and \mathbf{e}_{it} is the error term.

In this study, the empirical methodology is adopted mainly from Naveed *et al.* (2010) with some modifications. Therefore, the models for the empirical investigation, built in line with the findings of previous studies, are given as follows:

$$LTD_{it} = \beta_0 - \beta_1(LQ_{it}) - \beta_2(BR_{it}) + \beta_3(GR_{it}) + \beta_4(TA_{it}) + \beta_5(SZ_{it}) - \beta_6(PR_{it}) + \beta_7(AG_{it}) + \epsilon$$
(2)

$$DEBT_{it} = \beta_0 - \beta_1 (LQ_{it}) - \beta_2 (BR_{it}) + \beta_3 (GR_{it}) + \beta_4 (TA_{it}) + \beta_5 (SZ_{it}) - \beta_6 (PR_{it}) + \beta_7 (AG_{it}) + \epsilon$$
(3)

Where LTD_{it} , ratio of long-term debt to total asset for firm *i* in period t; $DEBT_{it}$, ratio of total debt to total asset for firm *i* in period *t*, LQ_{it} , current asset to current liability for firm *i* in period *t*, BR_{it} , standard deviation of operating income for firm *i* in period *t*, GR_{it} , annual changes in total assets for firm *i* in period *t*, TA_{it} , ratio of fixed assets to total assets for firm *i* in period *t*, PR_{it} , operating income to total asset for firm *i* in period *t*, and e[°] the error term.

VI. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

a) Regression Analysis

To test the capital structure theories, the relationship between the leverage and explanatory variables representing liquidity, business risk, growth, tangibility, size, profitability and age of the firm were analyzed over the period 2004-2010. This relationship belonging to leverage can be explained as follows:

Book leverage = f (liquidity, business risk, growth, tangibility, size, profitability and age)

The relationship was analyzed by the panel data analysis. An appropriate model for this analysis, testing random versus fixed effects models, was selected in this study. To perform this comparison, the character of the individual effects is tested through the Hausman's specification test. According to the Hausman's test, as indicated in Appendix 1 the fixed effects estimate was found to be more appropriate with the significance level of 1% for DEBT model whereas the significant level for LTD model was 5%. Thus, the relationship between leverage and the explanatory variables were examined by the fixed effects model in this study and the results obtained by the fixed effect models are reported in Appendix 2.

The results of fixed effect model indicate that liquidity has a positive impact on long term debt and total debt. This result implies that considering external financing, firms with more liquidity are more inclined to raise debt than equity. According to trade-off models of capital structure there is a positive relationship between the liquidation value of the firm and its leverage. Thus, expected liquidation values are higher for firms with more liquid assets, which imply that firm's debt is positively associated with asset liquidity (Harris and Raviv, 1990). In addition, companies with higher liquidity ratios might support a relatively higher debt ratio due to greater ability to meet short-term obligations. Thus, a high asset liquidity ratio could be considered by institutional investors to be a positive signal because it indicates that the firm can easily pay its obligations and hence face a lower risk of default. The positive and statistically significant influence of liquidity in this study is consistent with the theoretical analysis of firms with high liquidity ratios may have relatively higher debt ratios due to their greater ability to meet short-term obligations and the trade-off theory. It is also in line with the empirical investigation of Faris (2010) and Basil and Peter (2008).

The results also show a positive relationship between risk and leverage and its relationship was statistically significant at 1% level with total debt ratio. This may suggest that higher risk may leave the indebted firms to demand more debt; it is in line with the agency theory and supported by Naveed *et al.* (2010) and Mary *et al.* (2011) empirical study. This indicates that in order to fulfill the claims of the insurance policyholder and depositors, risky companies acquire external funds. A probable justification of such result could be that investors in Ethiopian insurance companies might be highly risk averse and low-trusting relative to their counterparts in other foreign countries.

According to the theoretical discussions above, the researcher expect a positive relationship between growth and leverage due to higher costs of financial distress (trade-off and agency theory). Contrary to the theory, growth has significant negative impact on long term debt and total debt ratio, significant at 5% level, in this study. The negative association between growth with long term debt and total debt ratio is in line with Akhtar (2005), agency theory and trade-off (financial distress) theory. This suggests that firms with more investment opportunities have less leverage ratio because they have stronger incentives to avoid underinvestment and asset substitution that can arise from stockholder-bondholder agency conflict.

A positive relationship is expected between tangibility and leverage from the theoretical point of view. In this study, tangibility was found to be positive but insignificant impact on long-term debt. The positive correlation is in line with the pecking order theory. On the other hand, the relationship was found negative with total debt ratio. This implies that since it has a positive relation with long term debt, tangibility has significant negative relation with short term debt. Consistent with the findings of previous studies (Ebru, 2011); the relationship between tangibility and short term debt was negative and significant. It is generally expected with respect to the short term debt that firms tend to match their duration of assets and debts. This means that firms with more fixed assets rely more on long term while those with more contemporary assets depend more on short term debt for financing their assets (Abor, 2005). A negative relationship between tangibility and total debt ratio, in this study, is also in line with information asymmetries theory. According to this theory, companies with smaller share of tangible assets tend to be more subject to information asymmetries. It is because intangible assets are more difficult to price. Therefore, intangible firms will face underinvestment problem more often. Hence, ceteris paribus, these firms will tend to accumulate more debt over time. However, insignificant result indicates that tangibility is not considered as a proper explanatory variable of leverage in Ethiopian insurance companies since this sector holds less fixed assets.

As firms size increases, they become more diversified and have more stable cash flows. They are less often bankrupt compared to small firms so that they can afford higher levels of leverage. Similarly in this study, size positively affects leverage ratios, and it is in line with trade-off theory and agency theory. This result is also supported by Rajan and Zingales (1995) and Akhtar (2005) findings. However, it was statistically insignificant; the reason might be that the inability of log of assets to serve as a good proxy for firm size; other more significant results might be obtained by using another measures (proxy) for size, for instance, log of sales, commonly used proxy for size of insurance companies. Otherwise, almost nil regression coefficients of size can also taken to show absence on the part of lending institution of considering size of the firm as a component of their credit analysis.

The coefficient estimate for profitability was negative for long term debt ratio, suggesting that as profitability increases, leverage decreases. Firms follow pecking order theory (Myers & Majluf, 1984); they use retained earnings first and then move to debt and equity. In this study, supporting the hypothesis, profitability negatively affects long term debt ratio. The negative association between profitability and long term debt is in line with pecking order theory and agency theory. It is also in line with the findings of Rajan and Zingales (1995), Cassar and Holmes (2003), and Akhtar (2005). However, the coefficient was positive and significant (p-value=0.0448) for total debt ratio, which is in line with the tax trade-off model, predicts that profitable firms will employ more short term debt since they are more likely to have a high tax burden and low bankruptcy risk. Also, profitable firms are more capable of tolerating more debt since they may be in a position to service their debt easily and on time. Besides, profitable firms are more attractive to insurance companies as lending prospects; therefore, they can always take on more debt capital.

The regression result also indicates that positive and significant coefficient of variable age for total debt and long term debt ratio. Consistent with the information asymmetry theory and the empirical study by Onaolapo and Kajola (2010), this positive relationship predicts that in Ethiopia older or mature insurance companies prefer to utilize large portion of debt in formation of capital. One key reason to employ more leverage is that when firm survives in business for a long time then it can accumulate more funds for running the operations of the business and uses its reputation in accessing more debt, as firms grow older more information regarding their future viability becomes available and reduces information asymmetries. Lower information asymmetries imply higher leverage. Bondholders would be more likely to lend to firms they know more about than lending to firms they know less about. Besides, Myers (2001) states that as a firm continues longer in business, it establishes itself as an ongoing business and therefore increases its capacity to take on more debt.

To sum up, the difference in long-term versus short-term debt is much pronounced in Ethiopian insurance companies; this might limit the explanatory power of the capital structure models derived from developed economy settings. However, the results of this empirical study suggest that some of the insights from modern finance theory are portable to Ethiopia because certain firm-specific factors that are relevant for explaining capital structures in developed countries are also relevant in Ethiopian insurance companies. Besides, the findings of the fixed effect model on liquidity, business risk, growth, tangibility, size, profitability and age of the firm for this study are in line with the findings of Faris (2010), Naveed *et al.* (2010), Akhtar (2005), Abor (2005), Rajan and Zingales (1995), Cassar and Holmes (2003), Onaolapo and Kajola (2010) respectively. But the magnitude in contribution of these determinants is quite different. These differences may be partly explained by the following factors: sample size, proxy used in the measurement of variables, methodology of data analysis, the difference in the sectors in which the studies were conducted and the different the economic background beyond the industry that differs across countries.

VII. CONCLUSION

The results of this study provide some useful information about the capital structure of Ethiopian insurance industry. Results obtained from the empirical investigation indicate that growth, profitability, age of the firm and liquidity have significant effect on Ethiopian insurance companies. Moreover, it can also be stated that the findings show evidence that static trade-off theory; pecking order theory and agency theory are partially accepted in insurance sector of Ethiopia though the trade-off theory appears to dominate the Ethiopian insurance sector capital structure.

VIII. Recommendation

- In the study periods, the analysis indicates that the proportion of long term debt is low, and thus it might be advisable for insurance companies to place greater emphasis on the facilitation of equity capital since it provides a base for further borrowing and reduces businesses' uncertainty.
- Having less proportion of long term debt means being more risk averse and this may also slow down the growth of insurance industry. Thus, the firm should increase its leverage without suffering from financial distress. Therefore, it is always recommended to think the capital structure in the way that minimizes the firm's cost of capital and thus maximizes firm value.

IX. Further Research Directions

This study addressed only firm level determinants of capital structure specifically on Ethiopian insurance industry. Therefore, further study can also incorporate macro variables, and it might also extend its scope on Sub-Saharan Africa.

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/	LTD Model	DEBT Model			
Results of Hausman Test (Ho: an appropriate model is random effect model)					
Chi-sq	15.383	30.708			
	(0.0437) **	(0.0000) ***			
Results of Redundant Fixed Effect Test (Ho: There is no fixed effect)					
Cross-section/peri	1	46.466			
	(0.0000) ***	(0.0000) ***			

Appendix 1: Hausman and Redundant fixed effect tests

, * significant at 5% and 1% level, respectively.

(Source: Eviews output)

Variable	LTD model	DEBT model		
Constant	-0.509321	-0.100380		
	(0.5456)	(0.8967)		
LQ	0.026680	0.020468		
	(0.0159) **	(0.3459)		
BR	0.036130	0.081820		
	(0.1941)	(0.0017) ***		
GR	-0.040257	-0.066524		
	(0.0126) **	(0.0393) **		
TA	0.028891	-0.038400		
	(0.8614)	(0.8050)		
SZ	0.048901	0.022682		
	(0.5632)	(0.8953)		
PR	-0.086345	0.192904		
	(0.0336) **	(0.0367) **		
AG	0.205432	0.612086		
	(0.0245) **	(0.0066) ***		
Adj R ²	0.683645	0.751532		
F-Statistics	8.5869	11.8372		
Prob(F-statistics)	(0.00000)***	(0.00000)***		

*, **, *** indicate significance at the level 10%, 5% and 1%, respectirespectively; Figures in brackets are p-values.

(Source: Eviews output)

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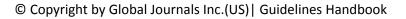
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