



Vol. 10 No. 1

ISSN 2220-3796

Published by

International Foundation for Research and Development  
(IFRD)

## Editorial

Information Management and Business Review (IMBR) provides a unique platform to scholars around the world to share their knowledge and publish research work in the fields of information management, business, management and related disciplines. The work submitted for publication consideration in IMBR should address empirical and theoretical developments in the subjects related to scope of the journal in particular and allied theories and practices in general. Scope of IMBR includes: subjects of finance, accounting, auditing, cost & management accounting, financial psychology, financial literacy, marketing, information management, human resource management, knowledge management, innovation, change management, enterprise management, e-commerce and information system. Author(s) should declare that work submitted to the journal is original, not under consideration for publication by another journal, and that all listed authors approve its submission to IMBR. It is IMBR policy to welcome submissions for consideration, which are original, and not under consideration for publication by another journal at the same time. Author (s) can submit: Research Paper, Conceptual Paper, Case Studies and Book Review. The current issue of IMBR comprises of papers of scholars from Iraq, Pakistan, Iran, India and China. The relationship between watching television & academic achievement, moderating role of self-congruence: impact of brand personality on brand attachment, comparative advantage in Indian economy, EFL Teaching Approach in Kurdistan are some of the major practices and concepts examined in these studies. Journal received research submission related to all aspects of major themes and tracks. All the submitted papers were first assessed by the editorial team for relevance and originality of the work and blindly peer reviewed by the external reviewers depending on the subject matter of the paper. After the rigorous peer-review process, the submitted papers were selected based on originality, significance, and clarity of the purpose. Current issue will therefore be a unique offer, where scholars will be able to appreciate the latest results in their field of expertise, and to acquire additional knowledge in other relevant fields.

Prof. Dileep Kumar, M., Ph. D.  
Editor In Chief

## Editorial Board

### Editor In Chief

Dileep Kumar, M., Ph. D., University Institute for International and European Studies (Malaysia Center) University Gorgasali, Georgia

### Members

Ari Warokka, Ph. D., University Utara Malaysia, Malaysia

Susantha Herath, Ph. D, St. Cloud State University, USA

Dong Hwa Kim, Ph. D., Hanbat National University, Daejeon, Republic of Korea

Eric Bentzen, Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

Ijaz Ur Rehman PhD, Al Falah University, Dubai, United Arab Emirates

Gurmeet Singh Bhabra, Ph. D, University of Otago, New Zealand

KOH Noi Keng PhD, National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

Nazli Akman, Ph. D., Bilkent University, Turkey

Hoonandara R Goonatilake, Ph D, Texas A&M University, USA

Ketna Mehta, Ph. D, Welingkar Education, India

Khorshed Chowdhury, Ph. D, University of Wollongong, Australia

Elena Garcia Ruiz, Ph. D, Universidad de Cantabria, Spain

Samsudin Wahab, Ph. D., MARA University of Technology, Malaysia

Ayhan Kapusuzoglu, Ph. D, Yildirim Beyazit University, Turkey

Johan de Jager, Ph. D., Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa

Lew Tek Yew, Ph. D, Curtin University Sarawak, Malaysia

Rishidaw Balkaran, Ph. D., Durban University of Technology, South Africa

Rohitha Goonatilake, Ph. D, Texas A&M Int. University, USA

Hai-Chin YU, Ph. D, Chung Yuan University, Chungli, Taiwan

Boubker Sbihi PhD, I-shcool ESI, Rabat, Morocco

Chandana Prasad Withana, Ph. D., Charles Sturt University, Sydney, Australia

**Table of Contents**

<b>Description</b>	<b>Pages</b>
Title	1
Editorial	2
Editorial Board	3
Table of Contents	4
Papers	5
The Relationship between Watching Television and Academic Achievement in 9 <sup>th</sup> Graders Students <a href="#">Karwan Kakabra Kakamad, Abdulfatah Hasan Fatah</a>	6
Moderating role of self-congruence: Impact of brand personality on Brand attachment through the Mediating role of Trust <a href="#">Asma Amjad, Fiza Amjad, Khalid Jamil, Sharjeel Yousaf</a>	13
Comparative Advantage in Indian Economy: 1990-2014 <a href="#">Gholamreza Fathipour, Pratibha S. Gaikwad</a>	23
Ownership Structure, Corporate Governance and Capital Structure of Non-Financial Firms of Pakistan <a href="#">Hassan Ahmad, Nasreen Akhter, Tariq Siddiq, Zahid Iqbal</a>	31
A Case for A Dogme "Lite" EFL Teaching Approach in Kurdistan <a href="#">Nicholas Rion, Karwan Kakabra Kakamad, Abdulfatah Hasan Fatah</a>	47

## **PAPERS**

## The Relationship between Watching Television and Academic Achievement in 9<sup>th</sup> Graders Students

Karwan Kakabra Kakamad, Abdulfatah Hasan Fatah  
Psychology Department, Soran University, Iraq  
Karwan.kakamad@soran.edu.iq, abdufatah.fatah@soran.edu.iq

**Abstract:** This study examines the relationship between watching television and academic achievement of school going 9<sup>th</sup>-grade students in Kurdistan region of Iraq. After a brief review of some related research and programs the ground realities and problems prevails in Kurdistan region of Iraq society regarding students spending time watching television, their life will be shaped by television, and this affects their academic achievements. The researcher used a quantitative Causal-Comparative research methodology, and 240 9<sup>th</sup> graders students selected in three different schools. Non-random purposive sampling was used to collect the data. In general, this study finds that television viewing has a moderately negative effect on the academic achievement. This means the more students spent time watching Television the less grade they will achieve in their school. Finally, there are some recommendations provided that should be taken by families and educators including, watching certain programs, co-viewing, having only one television at home.

**Keywords:** *Academic achievement, watching television, Students, Education*

### 1. Introduction

Since the invention of the medium of television in the mid-1920's and its later proliferation around the world, television has become the most influential means of mass communication. As a consequence, its use has been studied, critiqued, and debated by literally thousands of scholars, including sociologists and psychologists. Few would argue that television has not radically changed the lifestyles of people and their cultures. It has changed the lifestyle of people and become a major influence on the culture. Some students use Television and an educational tool, on the other hand, some uses it as a leisure tool. In particular, televisions impact on young people has garnered the most attention by academia and has been one area of intense study and debate. In fact, there are thousands of studies about television and its impact on young children and adolescence teenagers. For example, scholars know how many hours of television children and young students' alike watch each day and how many television sets are in the average household. Moreover, they know where in the household these devices are located and much about children's access to them. They know the types of programming they view and what kinds of programming different groups prefer. According to recent studies, almost every single student in the world watches television each and every day. Nearly all students live in a home with a television set. Half of the homes have additional two or three television devices. One study claims that nearly one-third of students have a television in their own bedrooms (Rideout, Vandewater & Wartella, 2003).

Many studies like one conducted by Reeks and Walsh (n.d) maintain that watching television will increase "aggressive manners", particularly in children. For some psychologists like (Chonchaiya, & Pruksananonda, 2008) television is responsible for delayed language development in infants and lower academic achievement. Countless other studies attest to television's negative impact on children and adolescents. On the other hand, many studies like one conducted by Paavonen, Roine, Pennonen, & Lahikainest, (2009) maintain that through the proper use of educational shows offered by producers like Disney and Discovery, as well as countless others, that television can be a source of important information and improve student's academic performance. How to weigh the positive benefits of television viewing against the negative consequences of too much television "watching" is often at the center of the debate about how to use television. There are many students around the world that spend many hours watching television. There are many researchers who have shown that students waste time watching television. Moreover, they have a television in their bedrooms, and they can watch anything they want without their families' knowledge. For instance, they can watch comedy movies, sexy movies, cartoons, violent movies and educational programs or movies. Almost every single student in today's world watches television each and every day. Nearly all students live in a home with a television set. Half of the homes have an additional two or three or televisions. One-third of students have a television in their own bedrooms (Rideout, Vandewater & Wartella, 2003). According to the Reeks and Walsh's article (n.d.) watching television will increase aggressive manners,

particularly on kids. On the other hand, television provides information about the world, which will be helpful for our students to be successful in the school. In Kurdistan today almost every young child and adolescent has access to a television set. There are many programs on television that offer Kurdish students and young children educational programming like the Disney and Discovery channels and also in the Kurdistan region of Iraq channels such as Parwarda, Niga kids, palistank, Kurdmax and papula have some educational programs for our students. However, until recently there have been few if any, major studies about the effects of televisions programming on Kurdish children and adolescents. In fact, we are not sure about the how the medium of television is affecting our young people and its impact on our society at large. Although, we are aware of the major growth in television viewing and now, access to the internet, we have yet to thoroughly investigate these topics from both a psychological or sociological perspective (Vedadi et al., 2013).

Moreover, television has been proven to affect teenagers both negatively and positively. Some of the negative effects of television that research has identified can be seen throughout a wide spectrum of the younger population. For example, many psychologists believe that television is responsible for delayed language development in infants and academic achievement (Chonchaiya, & Pruksananonda, 2008). On the other hand, Paavonen, Roine, Pennonen, & Lahikainen, (2009), suggest that proper television viewing can dramatically alter children academically and socially. Therefore, this study will seek to answer the following questions.

- Is there any significant difference between the academic achievement and school ongoing children who view more than 3 hours a day and those who view less than 3 hours a day?
- Is there any significant difference between b academic achievements of school ongoing children male and female who view TV more than 3 hours a day?
- Is there any significant difference between b academic achievement of school ongoing children male and female who view less than 3 hours a day?
- . Is there any significant difference between the academic achievement of school ongoing children of lower and upper social economic level who view TV more than 3 hours a day?
- Is there any significant difference between the academic achievement of school ongoing children of lower and upper social economic those who view less than 3 hours a day?

**Objectives of this study:** The purpose of this study is to find the relationship between Viewing Television and academic achievement. And, identify the effects, if any, of some variables like gender, television viewing length and Socio-economic status on that relationship.

#### **Operational definitions:**

**Academic achievement:** According to Annie et al. (1996), "Academic achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important — procedural knowledge such as skills or declarative knowledge such as fact"(p.2-5). The academic achievement of the students involved in this study refers to the "skills attained and developed in the school subjects." The term "academic achievements" means the achievement of the students by the use of testing their academic subjects in relation to their achievements, which were measured based on testing from all the classes in the first semester. To achieve this comparison, we were allowed access to students' grades from the Directorate of Education in Soran and Principals in selected schools. Length of viewing Television in this study is defined as follows: The amount of time a 9<sup>th</sup>-grade student spends each day viewing television compared with their academic achievement or test grades. This information blank form was developed by the investigators to ascertain the viewing duration of the subjects towards television. Subjects whose viewing duration was (3 hours and above) on television viewing information blank were considered as heavy viewers, and subjects whose viewing duration was on (less than 3 hours) were considered as low viewers.

**Socioeconomic:** for this study, the researcher categorizes students in two socioeconomic statuses which are high and low classes who view television in relation to academic achievement

**Gender:** the state of being male or female who views Television in relation to academic achievement.

## 2. Literature Review

Although the internet is quickly challenging the “traditional” hegemony of television, there is no doubt that television remains the most powerful means of mass communication in the world today. Moreover, in the vast literature on television, it can be clearly seen that the majority of theorists and researchers acknowledge that the rapid spread of television in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, continuing into the 21<sup>st</sup> century, has dramatically affected not only human societies, but also individual’s personal moods, habits, and culture. This is, especially true for children. Hofferth’s (2010) in his article entitled “*Home media and children’s achievement and behavior. Child Development*” he asserts that television can be a positive force in student’s lives and that with the proper parental supervision television can improve student’s academic achievements and reinforce positive personal behaviors. According to Hofferth’s article in 1950, only 9% of American families owned a TV set. However, by the 1980s 98% of American families owned a television. This massive expansion of television viewing had a dramatic effect on American society and culture according to (Hofferth, 2010). Because of this, more and more families and students had access to information. Consequently, students became increasingly connected to the world and were exposed to new knowledge about different cultures, religions, politics, and histories. According to the article, the media is the fifth pathway to social or observational learning. This means that not only older children but younger children can learn to read, write, talk and interact with other children through the medium of television. For example, shows, such as “Sesame Street,” “Yo Gaba,” and “Curious George” teach young children - the alphabet, the importance of being responsible, and the nutrition in their foods. These are all positive effects that television can have on children’s minds. The major finding of this study claims that children with home computers and televisions have higher grades in school than those children without television and computers (Hofferth, 2010). In another study by William and Heart at el (1982) as cited in Khan (2012) there is only a minor relationship between television viewing and educational achievement. Although the study acknowledges a slight relationship between television viewing and academic achievement it is not a major factor in students overall academic performance. However, he maintains that females involved in the study showed higher academic achievements as a result of access to television in contrast to their male counterparts. Moreover, Greenstein (1954), cited in Caldas and Bankston (1999), found that those children who view television in their homes achieved higher grades in school than those without viewing television.

Shin (2004), recognized that watching television programs has the most dramatic effect on children of any other activity they are involved in. Shin also shows that television is one of the most powerful factors which effects child development both environmentally and academically. According to Hornik (1978), viewing television is a demonstrative method to observe class subjects more accurately and effectively. The National Institute on Media reported that preschoolers who watch educational programs will have higher grades, be involved in more reading activities and have a higher academic achievement level those students who do watch educational television. Communication is another positive factor of television. In the article, communication is defined as computers, email, and surfing the internet. The study found that with an increase in the communication levels in these technologies children’s activity levels also increase. For example, children that use communication technologies at home experience a marked increase in activity at school from 8.7% to 12.8%. Once the communication level was increased, the studying and reading levels increased automatically. According to the article, the reading levels of children ages 6-12 increased by 24% from 1997 to 2003. During the same time, studying levels increased by 14%. It is clear that the more children communicate with these technologies, the higher performance scores they might achieve in school. Therefore, Hofferth (2010) suggests that these increased performance levels might enable young children to one day enter better colleges and experience greater opportunities in life (Hofferth, 2010).

One of the controversial findings of the study indicates that even families who watch television excessively are not putting their children’s education or development at risk. The study found that over 35% of children under six could read because of their exposure to television. (Rideout, Vandewater, & Wartella, 2003). According to the research, 72% of parents believe that using a computer or watching television helps their students learn. On the other hand, only 5% of parents thought otherwise. This shows that more and more parents support the idea of watching television because they believe it helps their children advance academically. However, Caldas and Bankston (1999), state that there is a negative relationship between time spent watching television and educational achievement. They further indicate that those individuals with



*higher* incomes spend less time watching television as compared to those individuals with lower incomes. Kureishi and Yoshida (2012), view that “the more television children view, the more likely it is that mothers report that a negative performance of their children in school. Finally, most of the studies focused on different groups, sex, cultures and other different areas, the present study feels that the relationship between watching television and academic achievement should be academically considered.

### 3. Methodology

The current study is quantitative Causal-Comparative Research. In this Strategy, the cause and the effect relationship is determined after the cause has already occurred rather than operated by the researcher. In our study, the cause of the academic performance of students i.e. television viewing has already occurred. Hence, this strategy is being used.

**Population:** The present study was conducted on a sample of 240 9<sup>th</sup> grade students in three schools in Soran City-Kurdistan region of Iraq in May 2015. See the table (1).

**Table 1: secondary school names**

N	Schools' name	Sample size
1	Kani	91
2	Kelashin	72
3	First Xalifan-	77
T		240

**Sample:** The researcher chose non-random purposive sampling because the students needed special qualifications as they were required to be 9<sup>th</sup>-grade students study in general schools in Soran city and have to have taken the first-semester test.

**Instruments:** The researcher developed a scale to get some general information about gender, economic status and time spent on watching Television.

**Method of Analysis:** The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistical techniques by computing Mean, standard deviation, t-test of significance and Eta Squared.

### 4. Results

**Table 2: Academic Achievement 3 hours & more vs less than 3 hours**

	Watch	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Test
Academic achievement	3 hours & more	123	78.01	10.36	12.28
	Less than 3 hours	117	64.03	6.79	

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the statistical differences between the academic achievement and school ongoing children who view more than 3 hours a day and those who view less than 3 hours. There was a significant difference in scores of three hours TV viewing (M= 78.01, SD= 10.36) and less than 3 hours TV viewing (M= 64.03, SD= 6.79;  $t(238) = 12.28, p = 0.27$ , two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean differences=13.97, 95% CI: 11.73 to16.21). The eta squared statistic was (0.38) indicated a large effect size.

**Table 3: Academic Achievement more than 3 hours Gender differences**

	<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>T-test</b>
Academic achievement More than 3 hours	Male	51	65.27	7.85	1.77
	Female	66	63.05	5.73	

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the statistical differences between b academic achievements of school ongoing children male and female who view TV more than 3 hours a day. There were no significant differences in scores of males ( $M= 65.27, SD= 7.85$ ) and females ( $M=63.05, SD= 5.73; t (238) = 1.77, p= 0.079$ , two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean differences= 1.25, 95% *CI*: -0.26 to 4.71). (Eta squared= 0.012) indicated a small effect size.

**Table 4: Academic Achievement less than 3 hours Gender differences**

	<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>T-Test</b>
Academic achievement gender less than 3 hours	Male	79	77.88	10.25	-0.28
	Female	44	78.45	10.61	

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the statistical differences between b academic achievement of school ongoing children male and female who view less than 3 hours. There were no significant differences in scores of males ( $M=77.88, SD=10.25$ ) and females ( $M= 78.45, SD= 10.61; t (238) = -0.28, p= 0.77$ , two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean differences=-0.56, 95% *CI*: -4.43 to 3.3). There was a very small effect size of eta squared= 0.0003)

**Table 5: Academic Achievement more than 3 hours socio-economic differences**

	<b>Socio-economic</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>T</b>
Academic achievement More than 3 hours	lower	37	62.2	7.97	-1.65
	upper	80	64.64	7.11	

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the statistical differences between the academic achievement of school ongoing children of lower and upper socio-economic level who view TV more than 3 hours a day. There were no significant differences in scores of lower socioeconomic level ( $M=62.2, SD=7.97$ ) and upper socioeconomic level ( $M= 64.64, SD= 7.11; t (238) = -1.65, p= 0.101$ , two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean differences= -2.43, 95% *CI*: -5.34 to 0.47). The eta squared statistic (0.011) indicated a small effect size.

**Table 6: Academic Achievement less than 3 hours socio-economic differences**

	<b>Socio-economic</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>T test</b>
Academic achievement less than 3 hours	lower	80	79.17	12.28	2.16
	upper	43	74.43	10.08	

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the statistical differences between the academic achievement of school ongoing children of lower and upper social economic those who view less than 3 hours. There was a significant difference in scores of the lower socioeconomic level ( $M= 79.17, SD=12.28$ ) and upper socioeconomic level ( $M=74.4, SD=10.08; t (238) = 2.16, p=0.032$ , two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean differences= 4.73, 95% *CI*: 0.4 to 9.06). The eta squared statistics (0.019) indicated a small effect size.

## 5. Conclusion

The first aim of this study was to find the relationship between watching Television and academic achievement. The results of this study show that there is a strong relation between watching TV and academic achievement. According to the results of this study, the mean of students who watch less than 3 hours a day is ( $M= 78.01$ ). This is higher than the mean of those students who spend more than three hours watching Television a day. This number is scored as ( $M=64.03$ ). It is clear from the results that those students who spend fewer hours watching Television score higher grades in schools. Furthermore, ( $t=12.28$ ) which is higher than  $t$  table, indicates that there is a significant statistical difference between students who watch more or less than three hours of Television a day,  $p=0.27$ . Moreover, the results of this study show that watching Television (.38) can have an impact on academic achievement in that the more time students spend watching Television every day, the more likely they are to get lower grades in school. Also, the findings of this study are supported by other researchers like Caldas and Bankston (1999), Khan (2012), and Kureishi and Yoshida (2012). One could argue, as mentioned before, that in Kurdistan there are few educational programs for 9<sup>th</sup>-grade students. As a consequence, many students spend time watching Television translated from Turkish, Arabic and Chinese series. Some students, especially boys, spend many hours watching games or playing video games. Sometimes students are addicted to these movies or video games and they spend hours discussing these movies and games rather than school-related topics.

On the other hand, other researchers like Hoffreth (2010) found the opposite result. He found that television can be a positive force in student's lives and that with the proper parental supervision television can improve student's academic achievements. Moreover, Shin (2004) shows that television is one of the most powerful factors which effects child development both environmentally and academically. Finally, according to the research 72% of parents believe that using a computer or watching television helps their students learn (Rideout, Vandewater, & Wartella, 2003). The second aim of this research was to discover whether there is any statistical difference between academic achievements in school between male and female students who view TV more than 3 hours a day. The results show that there is no statistical difference between these two categories. However, Khan (2012) maintains that females involved in the study showed higher academic achievements as a result of access to television in contrast to their male counterparts. The Third aim of this research was to find if there is any statistical difference between academic achievement between male and female students who view less than 3 hours a day. The results of the current study show that there is no statistical difference between these two categories.

The fourth aim of this research was to find if there is any statistical difference between the academic achievement of lower and upper social economic level students who view TV more than 3 hours a day. We found that there is no statistical difference between these students. The last aim of this research was to find if there is any statistical difference between the academic achievement of lower and upper social economic students who view less than 3 hours a day. The results show that there is a minor statistical difference between these groups. The results show that lower socioeconomic class students who watch less than three hours of TV a day achieve higher scores in their schools than the upper economic class students who watch less than three hours a day. One explanation for this finding might be because many upper economically situated students have access to our own such devices as Play Station, Wii, or X box. These students might be "addicted" to these games and instead of talking about their classes, they talk about games and movies.

**Recommendations:** The results of this study suggest that some work should be undertaken by different investors to continue investigating the effects of Television viewing on students in Kurdistan and work to answer the question whether or not Television viewing is beneficial to our country and society and our students. There are also some recommendations for families and educators. These recommendations include; parental supervision or "co-viewing" strategies should be adopted by parents and they need to be careful to watch and understand the programming that is available to their children as they grow older. Parents can help their children transition through this very difficult age by talking with them and being familiar with the life pressures they are experiencing. Together, families can work to make television both an educational resource and a family bonding experience. Parents must monitor their children's television viewing routines. They should keep a watchful eye on their children, while they sit before the TV and watch all kinds of programs. Parents should not let their children watch all kind of TV shows and programs without supervision

because many of them are not appropriate for their age. There are certain types of programming, such as news, culture, and documentaries about such diverse topics as nature, biology, and music that can have a wonderful impact on children. However, parents should not allow their children to watch more than 2 hours of this type of programming per day without strict parental co-viewing. This will help them keep a balance between their leisure time and study time. Teachers in school should introduce some types of programs and TV channels to families which are appropriate for students. Although there are 4 children's channels which primarily focus on singing there really are no special educational programs or TV channels for our students in Kurdistan. This study suggests that TV channels should develop educational programs for early adolescence. The government and broadcast companies must also think about teenagers and improving educational programming for this group.

## References

- Annie, W., Stoker, H. W. & Ward, M. M. (1996). Achievement and Ability Tests - Definition of the Domain, Educational Measurement 2, University Press of America, pp. 2-5, ISBN 978-0-7618-0385-0
- Brown, J. & Walsh-Childers, K. (n.d.). Sex on Television: Do all kids see the same show? Retrieved from <http://www.medialit.org/reading-room/sex-Television-do-all-kids-see-same-show>
- Caldas, S. J. & Bankston, C. (1999). Black and white TV: Race, television viewing, and academic achievement. *Sociological Spectrum*, 19(1), 39-62
- Chonchaiya, W. & Pruksananonda, C. (2008). Television viewing associates with delayed language development. *Acta Paediatrica*, 97(7), 977-982.
- Hofferth, S. L. (2010). Home media and children's achievement and behavior. *Child development*, 81(5), 1598-1619.
- Hornik, R. (1978). Television access and the slowing of cognitive growth. *American Educational Research Journal*, 15(1), 1-15.
- Khan, G. M. (2012). The Impact of Television Viewing On the Academic Achievements of Students between Upper and Lower Socio-Economic Level in Karachi.
- Kureishi, W. & Yoshida, K. (2012). Does Viewing Television Affect the Academic Performance of Children? *Social Science Japan Journal*, 20(1).
- Paavonen, E. J., Roine, M., Pennonen, M. & Lahikainen, A. R. (2009). Do parental co-viewing and discussions mitigate tv-induced fears in young children? *Child: Care, Health & Development*, 35(6), 773-780. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2214.2009.01009.x
- Rideout, V. J., Vandewater, E. A. & Wartella, E. A. (2003). Zero to six: Electronic media in the lives of infants, toddlers, and preschoolers. Kaiser Family Foundation, Retrieved from [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/stephens/History of Television page.htm](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/stephens/History%20of%20Television%20page.htm)
- Shin, N. (2004). Exploring pathways from television viewing to academic achievement in school-age children. *J. Genetic Psychology*, 165, 367- 382.
- Vedadi, S., Aris, B. B., Iqbal, S. M. J. & Muneer, S. (2013). Street Children and its Impact on Educational Attainment in North-Western State (Punjab) of Pakistan. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*, 4(12), 366-372

**Moderating role of self-congruence: Impact of brand personality on Brand attachment through the Mediating role of Trust**

<sup>1</sup>Asma Amjad, <sup>1</sup>Fiza Amjad, <sup>2</sup>Khalid Jamil\* <sup>1</sup>Sharjeel Yousaf

<sup>1</sup>Department of Management Sciences, National Textile University Faisalabad, Pakistan

<sup>2</sup>GC University, Faisalabad, Pakistan

Asma\_amjad1@hotmail.com, Fiza.amjad1@hotmail.com,

khalidjamil29@yahoo.com, sharjeel.wahala@gmail.com

**Abstract:** Increasingly companies are focused on searching for ways to create strong brand connections with consumers. It is illustrated that such connections lead to higher levels of consumer loyalty, which increases companies' financial performance. The main purpose of this study is to explore the impact of brand personality on brand attachment through the mediating role of trust. Also investigate the moderating role of self-congruence on the relationship between brand personality and brand trust. SPSS 23 is used to analyze the data. Data was collected through survey questionnaire technique and snow-ball sampling technique was used for data collection. Analysis reveal Brand personality have significant and positive relationship with brand trust. On the other side trust significantly enhance the brand attachment. While the results prove that self-congruence have significant moderating effect on the relationship between brand personality and brand trust.

**Keywords:** *Brand Personality, Brand attachment, Brand trust, Self-congruence*

## 1. Introduction

Increasingly companies are focused on searching for ways to create strong brand connections with consumers. It is illustrated that such connections lead to higher levels of consumer loyalty, which increases companies' financial performance (Park & John, 2010). For example, apparel industry has communicated for years to consumers that using their products will make them more attractive and beautiful, marketing the personality traits of their brand. The congruency between brand's personality traits and customer's personality traits leads to the formation of strong attachment with the brand. Thus, the consumer's self-concept seems to be growing in importance in marketing messages (Gilmore & Pine, 2007). Companies create emotional connections with campaigns that focus on consumer's personality (Sirgy, 1982). It has been explored that self-congruence can enhance emotional, attitudinal and behavioral consumer responses to the brand (Grohmann, 2009). The purpose of this research study is to explore the importance of consumer self-congruence with the brand's personality to form the relations of trust with the brand which ultimately leads to strong attachment with the particular brand. Previous research study on consumer-brand relationship has revealed that understanding the emotional component of such relationships is relevant to both marketers and academics (Fournier, 1998). The feelings that a particular brand generates have the potential to differentiate it from other brands, as consumers usually attach to a limited number of brands (Thomson, MacInnis, & Whan Park, 2005).

Branded clothing firms are competing to increase their market share and has shifted the conventional clothing interests of people. Pakistan has an advanced textile sector and its economy is successfully growing. In recent years, the increasing use of fashion clothing and emerging market has intrigued foreign as well as local brands to provide services to its customers. Pakistan's apparel sales are expected to reach an estimated \$20 billion dollar this year, having grown in excess of 10% over the past 5 years (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2013). The first objective of this research study is to investigate the impact of brand personality on brand trust and consequently its impact on brand attachment. The second objective is to study the moderating role of consumer's self-congruence on brand personality-brand trust relationship, in apparel industry in Faisalabad. The second objective is of great importance for marketing managers.

## 2. Literature Review

**Brand personality:** Brand personality is defined as a set of human attributes linked to a brand (Aaker, 1997). The brands chosen by the consumers are generally in accordance with their own personalities, that's why

personality is a useful variable to study the consumer's choice of brands (Keller, 1993). Consumers can think of brands as they are famous historical personalities. Consumers often relate personality of brands with their own self (Fournier, 1998). Demographic factors such as gender, age, social class, etc. also affect the personality ascribed to a brand (Aaker, 1997). For instance the brand personality of Apple is stylish, classy, innovative and intuitive so its user's personality also seems to match with these personality traits. Discernments about brand personality features can be formed by consumer's direct or indirect link with the brand (Plummer, 1985). It is not the brand that shows personality characters but the way the brand is communicated to public through advertisement. Brand personality is an important paradigm for a brand's image and can differentiate a brand in market (Park & John, 2010). Sometimes consumers select brands whose personality matches with to their ideal self. Correlating human personalities with brands tends consumers to form strong relationships with brands (Swaminathan, Stilley, & Ahluwalia, 2008). The important element in forming a brand personality is the way it is conveyed to consumers. There are two perceptions in which one can view brand personality, the characterization of brand traits and the emotional association that people have with the brand (Sung & Yang, 2008). A brand with a strong personality lets consumers to express their own personality traits (Park & John, 2010).

**Trust:** Trust is defined as the firm belief in the reliability, truth or ability of someone or something. Trust is constructed on the bases of past experiences. Trust is based on final results. A positive final result enriches trust while negative results will cause the trust to fall. Trust plays an important role in developing and maintaining loyalty towards a brand and in maintaining profitable market share and price elasticity (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Consumer's trust in brand is a variable that creates customers' assurance, mostly high association situation, in which its effect is strong in valuation as a whole satisfaction (Delgado-Ballester & Luis Munuera-Alemán, 2001). Trust is stressed either as a part of association quality or as a factor of affiliation quality. To attain customer trust and for emulating triumph of business, marketers started to embrace the thought of making associations with customers to get their trust (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). Customer Trust generally develops through the following five stages: (1) responsiveness, (2) investigation, (3) enlargement, (4) commitment, and (5) suspension. Customer trust on a certain brand is the determinant of the future purchase intentions of a customer and it is an important factor to maintain a profitable relationship with customer (Lynch & De Chernatony, 2007).

**Self-Congruence:** Self-congruence is defined as the analogy between the brand personality and consumer's self-concept. Self-congruence refers to the degree of similarity or gap between an individual's insight of a brand or product and the insight they have of themselves. Consumers prefer the products which are congruent with their self-concept. It is proposed that self-congruence can boost emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral consumer reactions to the brand (Grohmann, 2009). It is proposed that brand personality can be influential in helping consumers express their self-concept and provide a sense of ease to consumers who have found a brand that matches with their self-concept. The consumer will tend to purchase the product whose image is closest to his own. The self-image consumers have, is mostly associated to their purchase behavior (Heath & Scott, 1998). Congruent Self-image is known by its impact on the inclinations and purchase behavior of individuals, who are in search of synchronization between their self-image and their used product (Pedersen, Nysveen, & Thorbjørnsen, 2003). Person's personality traits are in coordination with the favored and chosen product, in terms of purposeful features, such as price and quality; therefore, look (physical features) is not only the actual element.

**Brand Attachment:** Consumers develop and maintain strong relationships with certain brands and these relationships can be of various types. The love for a brand is defined as the degree of fervent attachment that a person has with a particular brand. Consumers love for a brand may include following attributes: 1. Eagerness for a brand 2. Brand attachment 3. Positive appraisal of the brand 4. Positive emotions for the brand and 5. Assertions of love towards the brand. Consumer-Brand relationships are important for the success of a brand. The associations that bonds the brand with the consumer's self are emotional (Swaminathan et al., 2008). The spirits that a brand creates have the prospective to strongly differentiate one brand from another, specifically as consumers habitually fervently attach to only a few brands. The bond that connects consumer with a specific brand includes feelings towards the brand. These feelings includes: passion, love and affiliation (Thomson, 2006). Consumers who experience a strong attachment towards a brand will be more faithful and less price sensitive. While most of the researchers have verified that



attachment develops and fortifies with the passage of time as consumers have various experiences with the brand. Consumers are expected to form strong emotional links with both product and service brands and say that they love a product or a brand (Lastovicka & Sirianni, 2011).

**Brand Personality associated with Trust:** The first hypothesis refers to the relationship between brand personality and consumer's trust on brand. It is argued that the personality traits of a certain brand attract the consumers towards the brand and brand personality is the key to develop consumer's trust on the certain brand. Louis and Lombart (2010) studied the significant influence of brand personality traits on generating consumer's trust on the brand. Khayer, Naeemi, and Ahmadi (2014) in her thesis studied that personality attributes of a brand leads to consumer's satisfaction and trust on the brand which in result leads to consumer's attachment with the brand and ultimately results in consumer's loyalty with the brand.

**H1: There is a relationship between brand personality and consumer's trust on the brand.**

**Trust associated with Brand Attachment:** It is assumed that if a customer develops trust on a brand, it ultimately leads to customer's strong emotional attachment with the brand. Consumer's trust on a specific brand leads to consumer's attachment with that brand which is the determinant of future purchase intentions. Fullerton (2005) explored that trust on a brand is the determinant of consumer's attachment with the brand. Garbarino and Jahson studied that trust and satisfaction plays an important role in developing consumer's attachment with the brand. Trust provides the feelings of security to the customer that leads to the development of attachment with the brand. On the basis of detailed review of literature following hypothesis are developed.

**H2: There is a relationship between customer's trust on brand and brand attachment.**

**Brand Personality associated with Brand Attachment:** The third hypothesis refers to the relationship between brand personality and brand attachment. It is stated that brand personality provides the basis for consumer's affiliation towards the brand by characterizing the specific brand. Some researchers argued that personality of a certain brand is the prime determinant of the consumer's attachment with that brand. Mengxia (2007) explored the impact of brand personality on consumers' brand preference and brand attachment. The results show that there is a positive relationship between brand personality and consumers' brand preference and brand attachment. In another research it was investigated that there is a significant relationship between brand personality and consumer's brand attachment.

**H3: There is a relationship between brand personality and brand attachment.**

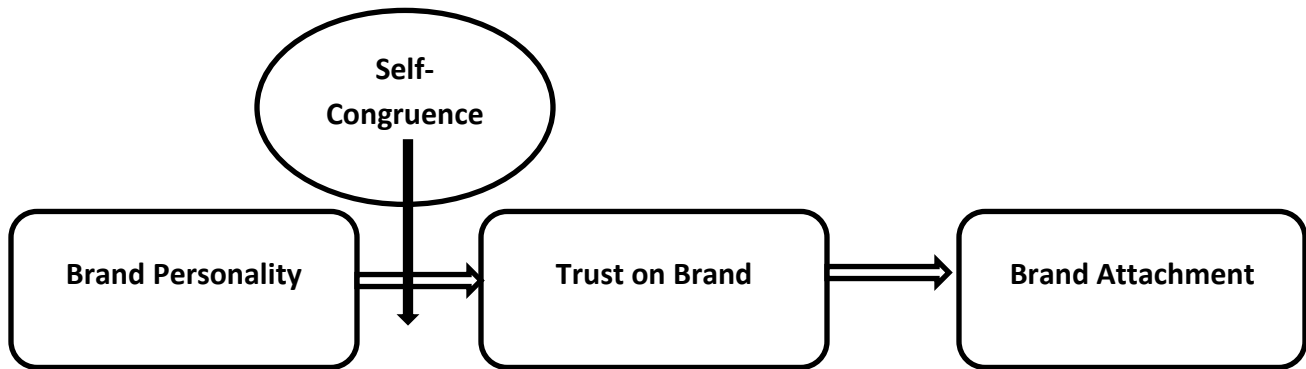
**Mediating role of Trust:** The fourth hypothesis refers to the mediating effect of trust on the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment. Many researchers explore that brand personality leads to trust on brand which ultimately leads to consumer's attachment with the brand so, trust acts a mediator and mediates the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment. Louis and Lombart (2010) explored the influence of personality of a brand on consumer's trust on the brand which leads to the development of consumer's attachment with the brand so, they studied the mediating effect of trust on brand personality-brand attachment relationship. Personality traits of a brand have strong influence on consumer's mind and these personality traits are the basis to generate trust on the brand and this trust and satisfaction develops a consumer's attachment with the brand.

**H4: Trust mediates the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment.**

**Moderating role of Self Congruence:** The fifth hypothesis refers to the moderating effect of self-congruence on the relationship of brand personality and trust. It is assumed that congruence between brand personality and consumer's-self enhances the trust on the brand. Correspondence between individual's personality and brand personality traits play a prominent role in developing trust on the brand which leads to brand attachment (Chaplin & Roedder John, 2005). If there is no correspondence between the brand personality traits and consumer's personality traits, then trust on the brand will not be developed. Brand personality is the crucial for consumers to express their self-concept, if consumers self matches the brand personality traits then consumer would prefer that brand over other brands.

**H5: Self congruence moderates the relationship of brand personality and consumer's trust on the brand.**

### Theoretical Framework



### 3. Methodology

**Measures and Sampling Procedure:** A self-administered questionnaire was chosen as a research instrument to gather the primary data of brand personality dimensions, self-congruence, and brand trust and brand attachment. The questionnaire was divided into five sections:

- The first section constitutes the demographics of the respondents including users of nine apparel brands and others.
- **Brand Personality:** In the second section, respondents were asked to show the extent to which personality traits, as proposed by Aaker (1997) describe the apparel brand's personality. The question covers the five dimensions with 42-items of the brand personality traits. A five-point likert scale (1=extremely not descriptive to 5=extremely descriptive) was used.
- **Self-congruence:** In the third section, two items were used to determine consumer's self-congruence with brand personality traits as proposed by Kressmann et al. (2006). A five point likert scale was used (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree).
- **Brand Attachment:** In the fourth section, six items were used to determine consumer's attachment with the brand as proposed by Whan Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, and Iacobucci (2010). A five point likert scale was used (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree).
- **Brand Trust:** In the fifth section, four items were used to determine consumer's trust on brand as proposed by Chaudhuri (2002). A seven point likert scale was used (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree).
- A total of 150 questionnaires were distributed to apparel brands users in Faisalabad. The stratified random sampling technique was adopted to increase the accuracy of data. In this research study, the questionnaires were distributed directly to the respondents and the research collected completed questionnaires. It took 2 weeks to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

### 4. Results

**Respondent's Profile:** The sample of respondents selected for this research study was individual users of apparel brands in Faisalabad. The demographic characteristics of respondents which were included in the questionnaire are: 1. Gender, 2. Income, 3. Age, 4. Qualification, 5. Occupation, 6. Brands. The statistical values such as frequency and percentages of different demographic characteristics of respondents are displayed in the table.



**Table 1: Demographic characteristics of respondents**

Demographic variables	Frequency	Percentage %	Demographic variables	Frequency	Percentage %
<b>1. Gender</b>			Bachelor	54	36
Male	87	58	Masters	69	46
Female	63	42	Other	18	12
<b>2. Income</b>			<b>5.Occupation</b>		
Less than 10,000	24	16	Business	35	23.3
10,000-30,000	74	49.3	Job	85	56.7
31,000-50,000	33	22	Other	30	20
Above 50,000	18	12	<b>6.Brands</b>		
<b>3. Age</b>			Nishat	17	11.3
Less than 20	5	3.3	Maria. B	15	10
21-25	71	47.3	Gul Ahmed	20	13.3
26-30	46	30.7	Sana Safinaz	15	10
31-35	19	12.7	Khaadi	15	10
36-40	5	3.3	Stone age	23	15.3
Above 40	4	2.7	Outfitters	21	14
<b>4. Qualification</b>			Breakout	13	8.7
Intermediate	8	5.3	Other	11	7.3

According to the statistical values 58% are male and 42% are female in this sample. On the basis of income 16% respondents are of less than 10,000 incomes, 49.3% respondents have 10,000-30,000 income, 22% have 31,000-50,000 income and 12% have above 50,000 incomes. On the basis of age 3.3% respondents are from less than 20 years age group, 47.3% respondents are from 21-25 years age group, 30.7% respondents are from 26-30 years age group, 12.7% respondents are from 31-35 years age group, 3.3% respondents are from 36-40 years age group and 2.7% respondents are from above 40 years age group. On the basis of qualification, 5.3% respondents were intermediate, 36% were bachelors, 46% were masters and 12% were others. On the basis of occupation, 23.3% respondents were businessmen, 56.7% were jobholders and 20% were others. 11.3% respondents use Nishat, 10% use Maria. B, 13.3% use Gul Ahmed, 10% use Sana Safinaz, 10% use Khaadi, 15.3% use stone age, 14 use outfitters, 8.7% used breakout and 7.3% use other brands.

**Reliability Analysis:** Cronbach alpha coefficient was conducted for checking reliability and internal consistency of measure. Cronbach alpha is a measure of reliability that ranges from 0 to 1 with values .60 to .70 considered the lower limit of acceptability (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & William, 1998).

**Table 2: Reliability Statistics:**

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Brand Personality	.923	42
Self-congruence	.809	2
Brand Trust	.898	4
Brand Attachment	.883	6

The results of cronbach alpha included four variables calculated using different point likert scale. Reliability values of variables show the reliability of data and number of items in each variable scale. The reliability analysis shows that reliability of brand personality scale is .923, reliability of self-congruence scale is .809, reliability of brand trust scale is .898 and reliability of brand attachment scale is .883. In this research study, all variables scales show reliability greater than .70 which is very good and acceptable. All the variables are consistent highly reliable in their values.

**Correlation Analysis:** Descriptive statistics includes arithmetic mean and standard deviation of all variables in which both demographic and study variables are included. Brand personality was measured on 5-point likert scale (1=extremely not descriptive to 5=extremely descriptive), Self-congruence and brand attachment were measured on a 5-point likert scale (1=strongly disagree to strongly agree) and brand trust was

measured on 7-point likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree). Descriptive statistics and correlation are shown in the following table:

**Table 3: (Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation)**

	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<b>1.Gender</b>	1.42	.495	1									
<b>2.Occupation</b>	1.97	.660	.310**	1								
<b>3.Age</b>	2.73	1.021	-.175*	-.362**	1							
<b>4.Income</b>	2.32	.907	-.376**	-.419**	.469**	1						
<b>5.Education</b>	3.67	.783	.069	-.100	.182*	.208*	1					
<b>6.Brands</b>	4.87	2.457	-.544**	-.231**	.109	.323**	.105	1				
<b>7.Brand Personality</b>	4.11	.417	-.023	-.154	.305**	.167*	-.040	.144	1			
<b>8.Self-congruence</b>	4.55	.692	.036	-.070	.275**	.145	-.019	.067	.715**	1		
<b>9.Brand Attachment</b>	4.31	.632	.018	-.142	.308**	.126	-.045	.048	.761**	.668**	1	
<b>10.Brand Trust</b>	6.22	.942	.074	-.088	.201*	.143	-.086	.40	.722**	.719**	.710**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation analysis is used to measure the strength of linear relationship among two variables. Correlation value range from -1 to +1, closer to -1 correlation is negative and strong and closer to +1 correlation is positive and strong (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). In the above table, Pearson correlation coefficients are calculated to measure the relationship among all variables. The relationship may be negative or positive and significant or insignificant. Correlation results of all variables support all research hypotheses. It is explored that there is positive and linear relationship among all variables. The level of significance ( $p$ -value) is significant at ( $p < 0.01$ ) \*\* Level (2 tailed). Results shows brand personality have positive and significant relationship with brand trust ( $r = .722$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) that explored brand personality and brand trust are positively linked with each other. Correlation results explore that brand personality and brand trust have significant relationship with each other which also support study hypothesis that (H1: There is relationship between brand personality and customer trust). Results also reveal that brand personality has positive and significant relationship with brand attachment ( $r = .668$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Results indicate there is positive relationship between brand personality and brand attachment that also support research hypothesis that (H2: There is relationship between brand trust and brand attachment). Brand personality has positive and significant relationship with brand attachment ( $r = .761$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). These two variables are significantly interlinked with each other. That also support research hypothesis that (H3: There is relationship between brand personality and brand attachment).

Regression results of brand attachment as dependent variable and brand personality as independent variable shows positive and significant relation between these two variables at ( $p < .001$ ) significance. Regression results of brand trust as dependent variable and brand personality as independent variable shows significant relation between these two variables at ( $p < .001$ ) significance. Regression results of brand trust as independent variable and brand attachment as dependent variable shows significant relation between these two variables at ( $p < .001$ ) significance.

**Table 4: Regression Analysis**

<b>Brand Attachment</b>			
<b>Brand</b>	<b>R square</b>	<b>Significance</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Personality</b>	.580	.000	.761
<b>Brand Trust</b>			
<b>Brand</b>	<b>R square</b>	<b>Significance</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Personality</b>	.522	.000	.722
<b>Brand Attachment</b>			
<b>Brand</b>	<b>R square</b>	<b>Sigma</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Trust</b>	.504	.000	.710

**Mediation Analysis:** This study is a first attempt to examine the mediating effect of brand trust between brand personality and brand attachment for apparel brands. In this part of study hypothesis four stated that H4: Brand trust mediates the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment. Regression technique was used to test this hypothesis which was recommended by (Baron & Kenny, 1986). According to (Baron & Kenny, 1986), following condition should be fulfilled. (1) The relationship between independent variable and mediating variable should be significant; (2) the relationship between mediating variable and dependent variable should also be significant. (3) The relationship between independent and dependent variables should also be significant. When these three conditions are fulfilled then researcher goes for further analysis. Perfect mediation is when the independent variable has direct effect on dependent variable i.e. ( $\Delta R^2 = .00$ ) and independent variable should also have ( $\beta \neq \text{sig}$ ).

**Table 5: Mediation effect**

	<b>Brand Attachment</b>		
	<b>R square</b>	<b>R square change</b>	<b>Beta</b>
<b>Brand Personality</b>	.580	.580	.520
<b>Brand Trust</b>	.633	.054	.335

Regression results shows that brand trust partially mediates the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment as change in R square is not perfectly equal to zero (R square change=.357) (R square change $\neq$ .00).

**Table 6: Moderator Analysis**

	<b>Brand Attachment</b>		
	<b>R square</b>	<b>R square change</b>	<b>Significance</b>
<b>Brand Personality</b>	.611	.611	.000
<b>Self-congruence</b>	.613	.001	.000

Moderation analysis results show that self-congruence strongly moderates the relationship of brand personality and brand attachment as ( $p < .05$ ) and (R square change $<$ .01). These two conditions fulfill the moderation analysis.

**Discussion:** Brand personality has a relationship with brand trust. The Louis and Lombart (2010) discussed that the significant influence of brand personality traits on generating consumer's trust on the brand. Khayer et al. (2014) in her thesis studied that personality attributes of a brand leads to consumer's satisfaction and trust on the brand which in result leads to consumer's attachment with the brand and ultimately results in consumer's loyalty with the brand. These studies support H1. Second hypothesis discuss that brand trust have relationship with brand attachment. Fullerton (2005) explored that trust on a brand is the determinant of consumer's attachment with the brand. Garbarino and Jahson studied that trust and satisfaction plays an important role in developing consumer's attachment with the brand. Trust provides the feelings of security to

the customer that leads to the development of attachment with the brand. These studies supported H2. Brand personality has a relationship with brand attachment. Studies of Mengxia (2007) explored the impact of brand personality on consumers' brand preference and brand attachment. The results show that there is a positive relationship between brand personality and consumers' brand preference and brand attachment. In another research it was investigated that there is a significant relationship between brand personality and consumer's brand attachment. H3 is supported by the above studies. The mediating role of brand trust between brand personality and brand attachment is positive. Louis and Lombart (2010) explored the influence of personality of a brand on consumer's trust on the brand which leads to the development of consumer's attachment with the brand so, they studied the mediating effect of trust on brand personality-brand attachment relationship. Personality traits of a brand have strong influence on consumer's mind and these personality traits are the basis to generate trust on the brand and this trust and satisfaction develops a consumer's attachment with the brand. H4 is supported by previous studies. Moderating role of self-congruence is also supported by some studies. It is assumed that congruence between brand personality and consumer's-self enhances the trust on the brand Grohmann (2009). Correspondence between individual's personality and brand personality traits play a prominent role in developing trust on the brand which leads to brand attachment (Chaplin & Roedder John, 2005).

## 5. Conclusion

This research study examined the impact of dimensions of brand personality traits on brand attachment: the mediating role of brand trust. This is a study of brands of apparel industry in Faisalabad. The main objectives of this study are to discover the mediating role of brand trust between brand personality and brand attachment. And to find out the moderating effect of self-congruence on the relationship of brand personality and customer trust. For this study, researcher was considered only about apparel industry brands. Following categories of brands were selected: 1) Nishat, 2) Maria. B 3) Gul Ahmed, 4) Sana Safinaz, 5) Khaadi, 6) Stone age, 7) Outfitters, 8) Breakout and others. The apparel industry in Pakistan is contributing a lot in economy, it is a highly important segment that plays a pivotal role in financial sector of Pakistan. Due to high level of competition in apparel sector, brands have to be more innovative and more aggressive in developing their product in order to meet the demand of target customer, and to develop trust and customer's attachment with brand. The primary data collection method was used in this study; a self-administered questionnaire was used for collecting data from 150customers of different brands. Sample size is based on convenient sampling technique. Brand personality was an independent variable, Brand attachment is a dependent variable, and brand trust is mediating variable according to theoretical framework of this study. All these variables were measured by using different point likert scale which was adopted from previous literature. The Statistical techniques descriptive analysis, Cronbach alpha, correlation analysis, and regression analysis had been used to explore the relationship between variables. Results showed that there is significant and positive linear relationship among all study variables, the level of significant ( $p < \text{value}$ ) for all study variables is significant at ( $p=0.01$ ) \*\* level 2 tailed. Results explore that brand personality have positive and significant impact on brand trust and brand attachment.

**Practical Implications of this Research Study:** The findings of this research have several practical implications. The apparel brands like other business having main purpose to make profit improve performance and remain successful, which is not possible without the trust attachment of customers with a particular brand. The brand personality positively and significantly impacts on customer trust and customer's attachment with brand. The findings of this research study will be helpful for apparel sector in order to improve and develop their brand's personality with aim to develop customer's trust on brand which ultimately leads to brand attachment. Furthermore, consumer's self-congruence plays a moderating role and impacts the relationship of brand personality and brand trust. The important and theoretical implication of this study is the mediating effect of brand trust that increases the customer's attachment with the brand and also contributed in literature. There is not any study previously (according to researcher knowledge) about the moderating effect of consumer's self-congruence on the relation of brand personality and brand trust. The research findings will significantly contribute in both practical and theories in future.

### Limitations and Future Implications

- In this research study data is collected from a small sample size of 150 respondents' base on convenient sampling and respondent were selected randomly. Future study could be conducted by using large sample size and more effective sampling techniques that lead to generalization. This research was only conducted on one sector (apparel sector) same model could also be implemented on other sectors like restaurants industry, footwear industry, etc.
- This research is only conducted for a specific region, for a specific city i.e. Faisalabad. The future direction for this research study is that it could be applied in other cities of Pakistan or all over Pakistan.
- This study also examines the brand personality as one variable rather than working on all dimensions of brand personality individually. Future studies could be conducted by working on separate dimensions of brand personality.
- In this research study data was collected through questionnaire manually. Next research studies could be improved if web based survey will be conducted.
- This research only predicts that brand trust mediates the relationship between brand personality and brand attachment. The researcher also believed that there could be other number of variables that can also mediate this relationship.

### References

- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 3, 347-356.
- Baron, R. M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bennett, R. & Rundle-Thiele, S. (2002). A comparison of attitudinal loyalty measurement approaches. *Journal of brand management*, 9(3), 193-209.
- Chaplin, L. N. & Roedder John, D. (2005). The development of self-brand connections in children and adolescents. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(1), 119-129.
- Chaudhuri, A. (2002). How brand reputation affects the advertising-brand equity link. *Journal of advertising research*, 42(3), 33-43.
- Chaudhuri, A. & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: the role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, 65(2), 81-93.
- Delgado-Ballester, E. & Luis Munuera-Alemán, J. (2001). Brand trust in the context of consumer loyalty. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35(11/12), 1238-1258.
- Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 343-373.
- Fullerton, G. (2005). The impact of brand commitment on loyalty to retail service brands. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 22(2), 97-110.
- Gilmore, J. H. & Pine, B. J. (2007). *Authenticity: What consumers really want*: Harvard Business Press.
- Grohmann, B. (2009). Gender dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46(1), 105-119.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. & Tatham, R. L. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (Vol. 7): Prentice Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Heath, A. P. & Scott, D. (1998). The self-concept and image congruence hypothesis: an empirical evaluation in the motor vehicle market. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(11/12), 1110-1123.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *The Journal of Marketing*, 2, 1-22.
- Khayer, A., Naeemi, E. A. & Ahmadi, K. (2014). The Effect of Ethical Aspects of Brand on Increase of Corporates Reputation among Consumers in Shiraz. *Kuwait Chapter of the Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(6A), 17.
- Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S. & Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business research*, 59(9), 955-964.
- Lastovicka, J. L. & Sirianni, N. J. (2011). Truly, madly, deeply: Consumers in the throes of material possession love. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(2), 323-342.

- Louis, D. & Lombart, C. (2010). Impact of brand personality on three major relational consequences (trust, attachment, and commitment to the brand). *Journal of product & brand management*, 19(2), 114-130.
- Lynch, J. & De Chernatony, L. (2007). Winning hearts and minds: business-to-business branding and the role of the salesperson. *Journal of marketing management*, 23(1-2), 123-135.
- Mengxia, Z. (2007). Impact of brand personality on PALI: a comparative research between two different brands. *International Management Review*, 3(3), 36.
- Park, J. K. & John, D. R. (2010). Got to get you into my life: Do brand personalities rub off on consumers? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(4), 655-669.
- Pedersen, P. E., Nysveen, H. & Thorbjørnsen, H. (2003). Identity expression in the adoption of mobile services: The case of multimedia messaging services.
- Plummer, J. T. (1985). Brand personality: A strategic concept for multinational advertising. Paper presented at the Marketing educators' conference.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in consumer behavior: A critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 287-300.
- Sung, M. & Yang, S. U. (2008). Toward the model of university image: The influence of brand personality, external prestige, and reputation. *Journal of public relations research*, 20(4), 357-376.
- Swaminathan, V., Stille, K. M. & Ahluwalia, R. (2008). When brand personality matters: The moderating role of attachment styles. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(6), 985-1002.
- Thomson, M. (2006). Human brands: Investigating antecedents to consumers' strong attachments to celebrities. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(3), 104-119.
- Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J. & Whan Park, C. (2005). The ties that bind: Measuring the strength of consumers' emotional attachments to brands. *Journal of consumer psychology*, 15(1), 77-91.
- Whan Park, C., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B. & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand attachment and brand attitude strength: Conceptual and empirical differentiation of two critical brand equity drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1-17.



Comparative Advantage in Indian Economy: 1990-2014

Gholamreza Fathipour\*<sup>1</sup>, Pratibha S. Gaikwad<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Budget and planning organization of Hamedan, Iran

<sup>2</sup>D.G. College Satara, Shivaji University Kolhapur, India

\*sasansara50@gmail.com, pratibhasg11@gmail.com

**Abstract:** The most countries try to improve their advantage towards goods with high range of demand and sustainable trade such as industrial goods and merchandise. India embarked on the path of globalization in the early 1990s with the objective to attain a higher growth profile. This question can be brought up in which goods India has comparative advantage. The aim of this study is to analyze comparative advantages of Indian's exports commodities during of post liberalisation in 1990-2014. The well-known index for determining trade advantage is revealed comparative advantage (RCA) by Balasa. The findings by India's RCA in exports showed India has gained comparative advantage in a number of agriculture sector such as Food items, Textiles, Leather and other Manufactures.

**Keywords:** *Comparative advantage index, Trade relation, agricultural and industrial goods*

## 1. Introduction

The concept of Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) has been developed by Balasa (1965) for improving Ricardo theory who had laid down the basic tenets of comparative advantage. The term can note that countries specialize and export items, which they can produce at lower cost in comparison to the world. In Balasa's (1985) view, the comparative advantage that a country enjoys primarily depends on its physical and human capital endowments (Burange, 2008). India embarked on the path of globalization in the early 1990s with the objective of improving overall productivity, competitiveness and efficiency of the economy in order to attain a higher growth profile. India is a newly industrialized country; it has a long history of collaboration with several countries and is considered one of the leaders of the developing world along with China, Brazil, Russia and South Africa. India was one of the founding members of several international organizations, most notably the United Nations, the Asian Development Bank, G20 industrial nations and the founder of the Non-aligned movement. India has also played an important and influential role in other international organizations like East Asia Summit, World Trade Organization, International Monetary Fund (IMF), G8+5 and IBSA Dialogue Forum. Regionally, India is a part of South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). India has taken part in several UN peacekeeping missions and in 2007; it was the second-largest troop contributor to the United Nations. India has made an extensive effort to liberalize its international trade since 1991 and the consequent increase in competitive pressures and technology transfers, is expected to have led to a restructuring of the economy such that the composition of exports reflects India's comparative advantage in the global economy. Therefore, it is important to explore the structure of comparative advantage of India and the extent to which the economic sectors can compete with others in the global market for manufacturing sector commodities. With Considering of economic data and information this question can be brought up that India in which commodities has comparative advantage. In the next section, for answering to this question, the Indian export comparative advantage will be computed. Therefore, the rest of the paper is organized as follows. Sections two will review composition of India's foreign trade and direction of India's foreign trade. Competitive advantage concept and determination methods are provided in section three and followed by the summary and conclusion in the last section.

## 2. Composition of India's foreign trade

Generally, a clear trend over the years exposes a decline in the importance of agriculture and allied products and a substantial increase in the importance of manufactured products. For instance, the share of Agriculture and Allied products in total exports fell considerably from 44.2% in 1960-61 to 21.1% in 1996-97 while the share of manufactured products increased from 45.3% to 74.5% over the same period (Misra and Puri, 1998). However, recently the share of Agriculture and Allied products reduced from 14.19% accounting for US\$ 6256 mn in 2000-2001 to 9.7% accounting for US\$ 24448 mn in 2010-11 and finally increased from 9.7% to 12.34% accounting for US\$ 37618 mn in 2011-12 while that of manufactured products reduced considerably

and continuously from 79.81% accounting for US\$ 35181 mn to 69% accounting for US\$ 173263 mn and thus culminating to 66% accounting for US\$ 201237 mn respectively, over the same periods. Likewise, the other two items of India's exports have undergone so much of changes. For example, the share of Ores and Minerals (excluding Coal) in total exports increased slightly from 2.05% in 2000-01 to 3.4% in 2010-11 and then it reduced from 3.4% to 2.8% in 2011-12 while the share of Mineral fuels and lubricants (including Coal) increased significantly from 4.38% in 2000-01 to 16.8% in 2010-11 and therefore to 18.71% in 2011-12. The top exports of India are Refined Petroleum (\$29.2 B), Diamonds (\$23.2 B), Packaged Medicaments (\$13.4 B), Jewellery (\$9.2 B) and Rice (\$6.55 B), using the 1992 revision of the HS (Harmonized System) classification. Its top imports are Crude Petroleum (\$64.6 B), Gold (\$35.4 B), Diamonds (\$17.2 B), Coal Briquettes (\$13.9 B) and Petroleum Gas (\$11.7 B). The top export destinations of India are the United States (\$44.1 B), the United Arab Emirates (\$30 B), China (\$12 B), Hong Kong (\$11.4 B) and the United Kingdom (\$9.2 B). The top import origins are China (\$59 B), Switzerland (\$21.5 B), the United States (\$20 B), Saudi Arabia (\$19.9 B) and the United Arab Emirates (\$19.4B) (Workman, 2017). In 2015 India exported \$276B, making it the 16th largest exporter in the world. During the last five years the exports of India have increased at an annualized rate of 2.9%, from \$205B in 2010 to \$276B in 2015. The most recent exports are led by Refined Petroleum which represent 10.6% of the total exports of India, followed by Diamonds, which account for 8.4%.

**Table 1: Value and percentage share of Major items of Indian's exports 1990-2014**

Commodity Group	1990-91		2000-01		2010-11		2014-2015	
	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %
Agricultural and allied products	3521	19.41	6256	14.19	24448	9.73	39357	12.69
Ores and minerals (excl. coal)	834	4.60	906	2.06	8581	3.42	4680	1.51
Manufactured goods	13229	72.92	35181	79.82	173263	68.99	207087	66.77
Mineral fuels and lubricants (incl. coal)	528	2.91	1931	4.38	42280	16.84	57405	18.51
Total export	18143	100.00	44076	100.00	251136	100.00	310147	101.00

Source: Economic Survey (Statistical Appendix) and researchers' calculation

**Table 2: Value and percentage share of principal items of Indian's imports 1990-2014**

Commodity Group	1990-91		2000-01		2010-11		2014-15	
	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %	\$ million	share %
II.4 Petroleum, oil and lubricants	6028	25.04	15650	30.44	105964	28.66	138326	30.87
II.5.1 Edible oils	182	0.76	1334	2.59	6551	1.77	10621	2.37
II.6.1 Fertilizers and fertilizer mfg	984	4.09	664	1.29	6885	1.86	7399	1.65
II.6.2 Chemical elements and compounds	1276	5.30	338	0.66	2914	0.79	23899	5.33
II.6.5 Plastic material, regenerated cellulose and artificial resins	610	2.53	558	1.09	6874	1.86	10943	2.44
II.9.1 Pearls, precious and semiprecious stones, unworked or worked	2083	8.65	4838	9.41	34620	9.36	22598	5.04
II.10 Iron and steel	1178	4.89	781	1.52	10376	2.81	16301	3.64
II.11 Non-ferrous metals	614	2.55	539	1.05	4667	1.26	49676	11.09
III. Capital goodsa	5833	24.23	5534	10.76	50907	13.77	53298	11.90
III.2 Non-electrical machineryb apparatus and appliances including machine tools	2363	9.82	3703	7.20	26111	7.06	....	....
III.3 Electrical machineries, apparatus and appliancesb	949	3.94	487	0.95	3845	1.04	....	....
III.4 Transport equipmen Total Import	931	3.87	953	1.85	11467	3.10	....	....
		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0
Total import	24075	0	51413	0	369769	0	448033	0

Source: Economic Survey (Statistical Appendix) and researchers' calculation

With the initiation of the planning process in India in 1951-52, and more specifically with the beginning of Second Five Year plan in 1956-57, composition of India's import underwent a considerable change. It imposed a heavy emphasis on the development of capital goods and basic industries. As a result, it became necessary to import capital equipment in large quantities. The importable items of India have divided into



four broad groups: A) Food and live animals chiefly for food B) Raw materials and intermediate manufactures C) Capital goods D) Other goods. From the second group, Raw materials and intermediate manufactures, the item Petroleum oil and lubricants and Iron and steel have been playing a vital role in the total imports in comparison to Fertilizers and Chemical elements and compounds. In this way, the total share of import of Petroleum oil and lubricants declined from 31.31% accounting for US\$ 15650 mn in 2000-01 to 28.65% accounting for US\$ 105964 mn in 2010-11 and finally, it increased from 28.65% to 31.66% accounting for US\$ 154906 mn in 2011-12 while that of Iron and steel increased from 1.56% accounting for US\$ 781 mn in 2000-01 to 2.8% accounting for US\$ 10376 mn in 2010-11 and suddenly the share of 2.8% fell down to 2.4% accounting for US\$ 11959 mn in 2011-12.

However, the total share of two other items increased continuously due to a constant rise in the share of Fertilizers in such way that their total share augmented from 1.99 % in 2000-01 to 2.58 % in 2010-11 and at last to 2.94% in 2011-12. The following product groups represent the highest dollar value in India's import purchases during 2016 also is shown the percentage share each product category represents in terms of overall imports into India. Mineral fuels including oil: US\$89.3 billion (25% of total imports) ; Gems, precious metals: \$48.1 billion (13.5%) ; Electrical machinery, equipment: \$37 billion (10.4%); Machinery including computers: \$32.5 billion (9.1%) ; Organic chemicals: \$14.8 billion (4.1%) ; Plastics, plastic articles: \$11.4 billion (3.2%) ; Animal/vegetable fats, oils, waxes: \$10.5 billion (2.9%) ; Iron, steel: \$8.7 billion (2.4%) ; Optical, technical, medical apparatus: \$7.2 billion (2%) ; Ships, boats: \$5.5 billion (1.5%) and Imported plastics and plastic articles had the fastest-growing increase in value among the top 10 import categories, up 121.9% for the 7-year period starting in 2009. In 2015 India imported \$368B, making it the 14th largest importer in the world. During the last five years the imports of India have increased at an annualized rate of 1.1%, from \$324B in 2010 to \$368B in 2015. The most recent imports are led by Crude Petroleum which represent 17.5% of the total imports of India, followed by Gold, which account for 9.6%. (Workman ,2017)

### 3. Competitive advantage

Comparative advantage which is raised in relation to international trade means if a country manufacture and export a good cheaper than other goods, that country has comparative advantage in production of such goods, therefore upon entering into world experiences scene, we may benefit from export of goods providing comparative advantage. Since emerging the concept or principle of comparative advantage, its concept has been varied intensively. Ricardo defined the comparative advantage based on the actual value of work consumed for good production. According to the theory of Ricardo, comparative advantage means a country manufactures a good with lower actual work than the other goods. Even if production of a country's goods is running with higher work than the other countries, comparative advantage or superiority of this country for production and trade is allocated to goods with the minimum absolute non-advantage. Gradually, the concept of Ricardo's comparative advantage based on actual value of work was replaced by theory of "comparative advantage of missed opportunities cost". Nevertheless, the above theories follow a goal means expression of countries' exchange cause. With respect to basis, the concept of regional advantage is mostly similar to the presented international definitions, with this difference that in the regions, production factor is focused. According to comparative advantage principle, each region intends to be allocated for production and export of goods with lower costs; in other word, each region comparing to other regions or manufacturing goods have tendency to manufacture the goods that obtain more advantage or lower non-advantage for their production. This concept has been known as comparative advantage principle. In general, comparative advantage may be defined as capability of a country in production and export of goods with cheaper cost and higher quality (Stiglitz, 2002).

The commodity pattern of comparative advantage is a central concept in international trade theory. However, the empirical measurement of comparative advantage is difficult because the concept is defined in terms of relative autarkic prices, which are not observable in post-trade equilibrium. To compute the competitive advantage, various methods and indices have been used. Some of them are completely formed based on theoretical and unreal factors such as competitive performance of markets, and their results are lowly reliable, hence economists focus on the statistics and data after foreign trade exchanges and determine the competitive advantage based on these data. One of indices used inspiring of a country's export statistics for computation of competitive advantage and known as functional method (Lee, 1995). Datt and Sundharam

(2010) analyzed different properties of RCA indices to estimate the actual competitive advantage. Vollrath (1991) is one of economists that applied studies on measurement of competitive advantage and ultimately introduced the completed index of Balasa as follows:

$$RCA_a^i = \left[ \frac{X_a^i}{X_t^i} \right] / \left[ \frac{X_a^w}{X_t^w} \right]$$

$X_a^i$  : Export value of manufacturing or nonmanufacturing good a of country i

$X_t^i$  : Export value of export goods of country i

$X_a^w$  : Total exporting value of goods a in the world

$X_t^w$  : Export value of all exporting goods in the world

The numerator represents the percentage share of a given sector (or product) in national exports  $X_{ij}$  is exports of sector (or product) i from country j. The denominator represents the percentage share of a given sector (or product) in total world exports. The RCA index, thus, contains a comparison of national export structure (the numerator) with the world export structure (the denominator). When RCA equals 1 for a given sector (or product) in a given country, the percentage share of that sector (or product) is identical with the world average. Where RCA is above 1 the country is said to have a comparative advantage (and specialized) in that sector (or product) and vice versa where RCA is below 1. Batra & Zeba (2005), in the study titled "Revealed comparative advantage and analysis for India and China" The paper identified the pattern of revealed comparative advantage using the Balasa (1965) index for export data. The index has been calculated at the sector and commodity level of the Harmonized System of classification. The paper also analyses comparative advantage according to factor intensity. The analysis has showed broad similarities in the structure of comparative advantage for India and China. Both, India and China enjoy comparative advantage for labour and resource intensive sectors in the global market.

Shinoj & Mathur (2008) in their study entitled "Comparative Advantage of India in Agricultural Exports vis-à-vis Asia: A Post-Reforms Analysis" has examined the changes in comparative advantage status of India's major agricultural exports with other Asian countries during in the period 1991-2004. They found India has been found losing out its comparative advantage in export of some of the agricultural commodities to other Asian competitors during the period after economic reforms. Therefore, in exports of certain commodities like cashew and oil meals, India has been able to maintain its comparative advantage, but several others like tea, coffee, spices, marine products, etc. have been negatively affected. Burange (2008) in their paper entitled "India's Revealed Comparative Advantage in Merchandise Trade", has assessed India's revealed comparative advantage (RCA) in merchandise trade. The study evaluated the structure of comparative advantage in India and the change in the scene over a 10-year period from 1996 to 2005. The paper has also evaluated India's RCA in exports and imports in different type of goods categorized on the basis of their production. As per the HS classification, India has enjoyed comparative advantage in the exports of labour-intensive items like textiles and scale-intensive items such as chemicals and iron and steel. Results suggest that India enjoys a comparative advantage in the exports of Ricardo and HO goods. PC goods in contrast have not displayed any improvement in the RCA universe. On the import front, it is essentially Ricardo goods where India enjoys comparative advantage. All production of goods requiring standard technology is shifting to developing economies like India as reflected in the absence of RCA in imports of HO goods (Sinate et al., 2012).

Fathipour & Ghahremanlou (2014), in the study titled "Economic-Regional Integration – An Overview on Iran-India Trade Relation" has stated that India and Iran trade relations were based on the comparative advantages of different economic capabilities and due to this principle an escalating prosperity and an increasing trade volume by trading with each other can be achieved. The trade relations between Iran and India have been assessed from 2001 to 2010. Their findings showed that mineral fuels form larger part of Indian imports from Iran and also India's exports to Iran include inorganic chemicals, articles of iron or steel, drugs and pharmaceuticals. The export's share in Indian has remarkably increased in the span of 1990-2014. India's share of world exports had increased from 0.5 % in 1990s and crossed 1.7% by 2014. The Rice, Spices,

(Pearls, precious and semi-precious stones) goods were outstanding exports goods. The first ranking of India's share of world exports is pertained to Rice good by 30,4 % in 2014 that it has dominated the top of the rank of Indian's export although its share has been 6,4 % in 1990. As the Appendix table 3 shows, in 2014 the Spices by 16.3 % share has placed in second position. Its share of export has been confronted with increase and was 7.7 % in 2011. The Third statue of Indian export relates to Pearls, precious and semi-precious stones goods. Its share of export has increased from 9,8 % in 1990 to 14,7 % in 2014. The Cereals and cereal preparations goods have had the 8 .1 % share of total export of Indian goods in 2014 as well. The most decrease of India's share of world exports is pertained to Tea and mate goods by 7.7 % in 2014 that it had domination the top of the rank of Indian's export in 1990 by 22.1 %.

In sum of 45 items of the Indian's prominent exports commodities, about 27 item by 60% have had RCA index more than one in 2014. This numeric criterion states the comparative advantage of export goods. This index has decreased from of 68 % in 2000 for Indian's exports commodities. According to calculation on the table4 during 1990-2014, among of India's exports commodity to world, items such as (Tea and mate), (Spices) , (Rice) , (Pearls, precious and semi-precious stones),(Textile yarn, fabrics, made-up articles), (Cereals and cereal preparations), (Leather, Leather manufactures and dressed fur skins), have had the most amount of RCA index. Some of commodity as (Medicinal and pharmaceutical products) and (Vegetables and fruits) (Iron ore and concentrates) has lost the comparative advantage along the years 1990-2014. In contrast, some of commodity as (Iron and steel), (Other transport equipment), (Meat and meat preparations), (Sugar, sugar preparations and honey) have gained the comparative advantage in the Indian's exports basket. Other commodity as (Chemical materials and products n.e.s.), (Machinery specialized for particular industries), (Road vehicles (including air cushion vehicles), (General industrial machinery & equipment & machine parts thereof), (Office machinery and ADP equipment), (Telecommunication and sound recording and reproducing apparatus and equipment) and etc., have not had the comparative advantage in comparison to other exports commodity in Indian's exports commodity. To sum up, as the Appendix table 4 reveal, since the 1990s, India has been gaining comparative advantage in a number of products within the groups of Food items, Textiles, Leather and other Manufactures that they are mainly related to agriculture sector. As Shinoj & Mathur (2008) have shown India had enjoyed a comparative advantage in agriculture exports. By definition, each country has a comparative advantage in some products, depending upon the opportunity cost of producing various products in different sectors. Thus, it seems there is a comparative advantage in a larger number of unskilled labor and low or medium technology-intensive products.

#### 4. Summery and Conclusion

This study has analyzed comparative advantages of Indian's exports commodities. The analysis of results show India has strengthened its position in exports of agricultural products. Some goods ,for instance (Tea and mate), (Spices) , (Rice ) were able to rank in the top postion of share export in the world but, as far as the exports of industrial manufacturing and capital goods are concerned, India could not improve to have a comparative advantage in the world in comparision with other countries espescially Asian countries such as China in manufacturing products. Our study in respect with other studies found out that India has well-known advantage in lots of commodities and goods such as food, agricultural items. albeit, it seems the plan and program must be considered toward export specialization such as high value-added knowledge and technology intensive industries instead of labor and natural resource intensive products.

#### Reference

- Batra, A. & Zeba, K. (2005). Revealed comparative advantage and analysis for India and China. Indian Council for Research On International Economic Relations.
- Balasa, B. (1965). Trade Liberalization and revealed comparative Advantage. *The Manchester school of Economic and school social studies*, 33, 99-123.
- Burange, L. G. (2008). India's Revealed Comparative Advantage in Merchandise Trade. *Artha vijñāna: journal of the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona (India)*, 4, 332-363
- Datt, R. & Sundharam, K. P. M. (2010). Indian Economy, revised sixty first editions, published by S. Chand & company Ltd.
- Economic Survey – census annual (Statistical Appendix)

- Fathipour, G. & Ghahremanlou, A. (2014). Economical-Regional Integration – An Overview on Iran-India Trade Relation. *Elsevier, Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 157(2).
- Lee, G. (1995). Comparative Advantage in Manufacturing as a Determinant of industrialization: The Korean case. *World Development*, 23(7).
- Ministry of Commerce & Industry, Government of India
- Misra, S. K. & Puri, V. K. (1998). Indian Economy, *Sixteen Revised and Enlarged Edition*, Himalaya Publishing House
- RBI, database on Indian economy, Reserve bank of India, www.rbi.org.in (2012)
- Shinoj, P. & Mathur, V. C. (2008). Comparative Advantage of India in Agricultural Exports vis-à-vis Asia: A Post-Reforms Analysis.
- Sinate, D., Fanai, V. & Chakrabarti, D. (2012). Potential for enhancing Indian's trade with Iran: a brief analysis, Export-Import Bank of India. Working paper no.18
- Stiglitz, J. (2002). Globalization and its discontent, W.W. Norton & Company, USA
- Vollrath, T. (1991). A theoretical Evaluation of Alternative Trade Intensity measures of Revealed Comparative Advantage. *Weltwirts Chaftliches archive*, 127(2), 265-280
- Workman, D. (2017). www.Worldtopexports.com

**Table 3: India's share in world export by commodity division and groups 1990-2014**

<b>Commodity</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2010</b>	<b>2014</b>
Meat and meat preparations	0.2	0.7	1.6	3.4
Fish, crustaceans and molluscs & preparations	1.6	2.7	2.4	4.0
Cereals and cereal preparations	0.6	1.5	3.3	8.1
Rice	6.4	10.2	11.2	30.4
Vegetables and fruits	0.8	1.3	1.3	1.4
Sugar, sugar preparations and honey	0.1	0.9	2.4	2.8
Coffee, tea, cocoa, spices and manufactures	4	3.4	2.8	3.0
Coffee and coffee substitutes	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.1
Tea and mate	22.1	14	10	7.7
Spices	7.7	10.3	15.4	16.3
Feeding stuff for animals	2.2	2.3	3.6	2.4
Tobacco and tobacco manufactures	0.8	0.7	2.5	2.2
Unmanufactured tobacco and refuse	2.1	2.7	6.6	5.7
Manufactured tobacco	0.3	...	0.7	0.9
Oilseeds and oleaginous fruit	0.8	1.7	1.6	2.2
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap	2.1	1	2.8	0.7
Iron ore and concentrates	7.6	3.9	5.9	0.7
Organic chemicals	0.3	1.1	2.3	2.8
Inorganic chemicals	0.2	0.3	1.1	0.9
Dyeing, tanning and colouring materials	1.2	1.4	2.4	3.8
Medicinal and pharmaceutical products	1.2	1.2	1	1.2
Essential oils and perfume materials soap, cleansing etc.	1.1	0.5	0.9	1.2
Artificial resins, plastic materials, cellulose esters & ethers	...	0.1	0.8	0.9
Chemical materials and products n.e.s.	0.2	0.7	1.2	1.5
Leather, leather manufactures & dressed fur skins	6.3	3.3	3.3	4.7
Leather	4.8	2.3	3.4	5.0
Manufactures of leather or of composition leather	13.4	6.2	4.2	5.4
Fur skins, tanned or dressed etc.	...	...	0	0.0
Textile yarn, fabrics, made-up articles	2.1	3.6	5	5.7
Woven cotton fabrics	3.7	4.9	3.7	5.8
Woven fabrics of manmade fibres	0.7	1.6	5.5	4.5
Woven fabrics other than of cotton or man-made fibres	2.3	3.9	5.2	3.0
Pearls, precious and semi-precious stones	9.8	12	17.4	14.7
Iron and steel	0.3	1	2.5	2.5
Manufactures of metals n.e.s.	0.5	0.9	1.4	2.0
Power-generating machinery & equipment	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.0

Machinery specialized for particular industries	0.2	0.2	0.6	1.0
Metal-working machinery	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6
General industrial machinery & equipment & machine parts thereof	0.1	...	0.7	0.9
Office machinery and ADP equipment	0.1	...	0.1	0.1
Telecommunication and sound recording and reproducing apparatus and equipment	...	...	0.4	0.3
Electrical machinery, apparatus and appliances	0.1	...	0.4	0.4
Road vehicles (including air cushion vehicles)	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.0
Other transport equipment	...	...	1.7	3.0
Articles of apparel and clothing accessories	2.3	3.5	3	3.5
Total Exports	0.5	0.7	1.5	1.7

source: Economic survey census years (Statistical Appendix)

**Table 4: Comparative advantage index for each of Indian's exports commodity 1990-2014**

<b>Commodity</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2010</b>	<b>2014</b>
Meat and meat preparations	0.41	1.09	1.10	1.96
Fish, crustaceans and molluscs & preparations	2.89	4.12	1.60	2.32
Cereals and cereal preparations	1.15	2.20	2.25	4.75
Rice	11.58	15.36	7.58	17.77
Vegetables and fruits	1.45	1.89	0.88	0.83
Sugar, sugar preparations and honey	0.27	1.28	1.60	1.62
Coffee, tea, cocoa, spices and manufactures	7.26	5.15	1.88	1.77
Coffee and coffee substitutes	3.11	3.44	1.29	1.25
Tea and mate	40.20	21.02	6.77	4.51
Spices	14.03	15.46	10.46	9.51
Feeding stuff for animals	3.92	3.48	2.43	1.41
Tobacco and tobacco manufactures	1.48	1.02	1.66	1.30
Unmanufactured tobacco and refuse	3.76	4.01	4.47	3.35
Manufactured tobacco	0.56	0.00	0.45	0.51
Oilseeds and oleaginous fruit	1.44	2.55	1.10	1.27
Metalliferous ores and metal scrap	3.84	1.55	1.92	0.40
Iron ore and concentrates	13.75	5.92	4.02	0.44
Organic chemicals	0.60	1.67	1.56	1.64
Inorganic chemicals	0.41	0.45	0.71	0.53
Dyeing, tanning and colouring materials	2.13	2.12	1.63	2.20
Medicinal and pharmaceutical products	2.18	1.76	0.68	0.69
Essential oils and perfume materials soap, cleansing etc.	2.08	0.73	0.64	0.70
Artificial resins, plastic materials, cellulose esters & ethers	0.08	0.21	0.57	0.55
Chemical materials and products n.e.s.	0.41	1.04	0.83	0.88
Leather, leather manufactures & dressed fur skins	11.45	4.98	2.20	2.73
Leather	8.76	3.53	2.27	2.90
Manufactures of leather or of composition leather	24.44	9.28	2.84	3.13
Fur skins, tanned or dressed etc.	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Textile yarn, fabrics, made-up articles	3.78	5.39	3.35	3.34
Woven cotton fabrics	6.68	7.42	2.50	3.38
Woven fabrics of man made fibres	1.29	2.37	3.72	2.65
Woven fabrics other than of cotton or man-made fibres	4.19	5.91	3.54	1.75
Pearls, precious and semi-precious stones	17.89	18.02	11.79	8.59
Iron and steel	0.48	1.53	1.72	1.44

Manufactures of metals n.e.s.	0.94	1.40	0.94	1.16
Power-generating machinery & equipment	0.28	0.21	0.48	0.57
Machinery specialized for particular industries	0.36	0.31	0.41	0.58
Metal-working machinery	0.34	0.43	0.37	0.33
General industrial machinery & equipment & machine parts thereof	0.18	0.05	0.50	0.52
Office machinery and ADP equipment	0.16	0.00	0.07	0.05
Telecommunication and sound recording and reproducing apparatus and equipment	0.06	0.00	0.26	0.16
Electrical machinery, apparatus and appliances	0.24	0.02	0.30	0.24
Road vehicles (including air cushion vehicles)	0.20	0.10	0.56	0.58
Other transport equipment	0.03	0.05	1.18	1.78
Articles of apparel and clothing accessories	4.26	5.30	2.06	2.07

Source: The researchers' calculation



## Ownership Structure, Corporate Governance and Capital Structure of Non-Financial Firms of Pakistan

Hassan Ahmad<sup>1\*</sup>, Nasreen Akhter<sup>1,2</sup>, Tariq Siddiq<sup>1</sup>, Zahid Iqbal<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Dongbei University of Finance & Economics, Dalian, China

<sup>2</sup>Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan

<sup>3</sup>The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Bahawalnagar Campus, Pakistan

hassaan1214@hotmail.com\*, n\_zahra786@hotmail.com, tariqsiddiq13@gmail.com,

zahid\_luck2111@yahoo.com

**Abstract:** This study is undertaken with the purpose of investigating the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on the capital structure of Pakistani listed firms from 2011-2014, feasible general least square is used to investigate the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on capital structure of KSE 100 index firms. Explanatory variables include ownership concentration, managerial ownership, foreign ownership, institutional ownership, board size, board independence and CEO duality along with the three control variables namely firm size, firm profitability and liquidity. There is insignificant positive relationship between ownership concentration and capital structure, managerial ownership has a significant negative impact on debt ratio. Foreign ownership has also a significant negative impact on firm capital structure and institutional ownership has significant positive impact on capital structure. Board size is positively related to capital structure, board independence also positively related to firm's debt ratio but CEO duality negatively related to the dependent variable, all these variables have significant impact on capital structure of Pakistani firms.

**Keywords:** *Ownership Structure, Corporate Governance, Capital Structure, Agency Theory, FGLS*

### 1. Introduction

Capital structure based on two factor including debt and equity and same is given in the balance sheet of companies. Right or claim on companies' assets by the outsider is referred as debt portion of capital structure whereas right or claim on companies' assets by the owner of companies is referred as capital portion of capital structure. Current debt and long term debts are two important factor of capital structure. Financial soundness of company associated with the higher portion of owner equity in given capital structure. Issuance of long term debts and short term debts in a capital structure depends upon the company financial strategy. Common stock, preferred stock, undistributed profit and retain earning are the important element of owner equity. Common stock holder considered the real owner of company due to voting right as they are not received fixed rate of dividend, whereas preferred stock holder are not the real owner as they required fixed rate of dividend as compare to common stockholder. Capital theory was first familiarizing by the Modigliani and Miller in 1958. Lot of work has been done on capital theory by the many researchers but only few researchers focused to find out relationship between capital structure and corporate governance. Researcher also presents non-tax based theories including signaling theory, transaction cost and pecking order theories. The basic purpose of constructing capital structure is the maximization of shareholder wealth by reducing the cost of capital. Individual shareholders rights and collective interest of shareholders can be protected through corporate governance and by solving the all outstanding matters. Trustworthy relationship between shareholders, investor and lender can be created through good corporate governance. Continuous growth at organization level and country level associated with corporate governance.

In corporate governance role of manager is very important as he hire, fire and take key decision regarding business operations. The important contents and elements of corporate governance including sharing information with shareholders, board of director, senior management and reducing the conflict of interest between management and shareholders who played key role to make the structure of firm. Corporate governance can be ensured by maximizing the shareholder wealth and reducing the agency cost. According to Shleifer and Vishny (1997) assurance to the shareholder that they will get return on their investment is referred as corporate governance. The problems and epidemic of agency cost can be reduce through good corporate governance practice. The key stakeholder of corporate governance including managers, shareholders and board of directors. Financial opportunity can be gained and ensured through corporate

governance as the corporate governance is the base for getting finance from outsider. Absence of corporate governance leads to agency cost in which management protect their own interest and rights instead of shareholders interest and right. Corporate governance has much more importance and important research are for financial school of thoughts. According to the Cadbury Report (1992) through corporate governance rights and interest of shareholders can be protected, directed and controlled. Corporate governance contains the right and responsibilities of shareholder, management and board of directors. Rights and interest of minority shareholder can be protected through better practices of corporate governance so that large shareholders may not expropriate the wealth of minority shareholders. Therefore, it is much important for companies who are working in Pakistan to comply with the corporate governance practices. Trustworthy relationship between all the stakeholder including managers, shareholders, employees and creditors can be built through corporate governance. Corporate governance first introduced by the Berl and Means.

In 1998 finally UK issued a Combined Code of Corporate Governance which was enforced on all the listed companies in the country. In reaction to these Massive bankruptcies and corporate debacles corporate governance laws and codes were developed is a series like Cadbury Report (1992), Greenbury Report (1995), Hampel Report (1998), The combined Code (1998), Turnbull Report (1999) of UK, Blue Ribbon Committee of NYSE (1999) of USA, Principles of Corporate Governance(OECD, 1999), Basle Committee Guidelines (1999), Muners Report (2001,UK), According to Revised Combined Code UK (2003) internal corporate governance structure and external corporate governance structure is weak as compared to other developed and underdeveloped countries. Different international bodies including the WB, the Global Corporate Governance Forum, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and International Corporate Governance Network also provide some instructions and guidelines regarding better practice corporate governance. Breakable internal and external corporate governance practices exist in Pakistan as compared to developed countries and developing countries. But now in Pakistan corporations and companies swiftly adopting the rules and practices of corporate governance. Govt. of Pakistan adopting and showing keen interest in corporate governance as revenue of Government depends upon the better practice of corporate governance. Different international organization including Finance Corporation and World Bank fixed strong check and balance and published different reports regularly on corporate governance. Security & Exchange Commission of Pakistan (SECP) take first step to ensure the practice governance practices by issuing the corporate governance codes in March 28<sup>th</sup>, 2002. Corporate governance code issued by the Security & Exchange Commission of Pakistan (SECP) is based on international accepted principles including transparency, openness and accountability in the affairs of companies.

According to the principles of corporate governance all companies who are listed on Pakistan Stock Exchange (PSE) are required to publish their financial reports as per rules and regulations of corporate governance. Different national organization includes Institute of Chartered Accountant of Pakistan (ICAP) and Pakistan Institute of Corporate Governance (PICG) also working to protect the rights of all stakeholders by highlighting the importance of corporate governance. Besides these organization Security & Exchange Commission of Pakistan (SECP) and State Bank of Pakistan (SBP) also working to implement the rules and practices of corporate governance. For different financial school of thoughts corporate governance and ownership structure is embryonic concept. Different variable including corporate governance, dividend policy, capital structure and firm value used by different researchers in their research study. According to the latest research most of research work done to investigate the impact of corporate governance on financial performance of companies and to find out the relationship between capital structure and corporate governance. Now the relationship between capital structure and corporate governance has not been fully reconnoitered. Arslan & Zaman (2014), Masood & Shah (2014) and Ahmed & Wang (2012) conducted different study to observe the relationship between capital structure and corporate governance, whereas no research was conducted in Pakistan to check the impact of both ownership structure and corporate governance of capital structure in Pakistan.

## **2. Literature Review**

As steered by Modigliani & Miller (1958) different theories including pecking order theory, trade off theory and agency theory were introduced and used on different research study regarding capital structure in both



developed and developing countries. According to these theories different companies have different choices of capital structure (Lingling, 2013). The details regarding different capital theories are given as under.

**Theoretical Background:** Common Stock Shareholders are the real owner of companies and management recruited to ensure and protect the rights of shareholder by increasing the shareholder wealth not the maximization the wealth of management. Shareholder also faced some cost to resolve the problems regarding agency problems are referred as agency cost. Management used more debts to increase the profit but return against these debts must be used to pay the interest on debts and principal amount. Debt also used by the different companies to mitigate the agency cost as well. Shareholders also take risk by making investment in risky project to earn high return but the decision of shareholder to make investment in risky project damaging the interest of debt holders or lender. But firm can only pay the principal amount and interest on debt by making investment in more risk project as return on risky project is high as compared to less risky project. Large shareholders also maximize their wealth by expropriating the minority shareholders rights (Shleifer and Vishny, 1997). Normally debt financing is considered better and favorable by the shareholders. If a firm used debt financing it indicates that firm has strong financial position but the management does not intend to share the major portion of profits between the shareholders (Ryen et al, 1997: Koch and Shenoy, 1999). If a firm issues debt it also indicates and give message to the market that this time shareholder of that specific companies will receive dividend.

Debt ratios of each firm vary from other firm as every firm capital structure different from each other. Firm used optimal capital structure by tradeoff the benefits of tax saving and interest on debts (Myers, 2001). Whereas high debt ratio also leads to bankruptcy but high tax benefits and low debt ration less chances of bankruptcy at the cost of high tax. Manager of the firms are well informed about the financial affairs and financial position of companies as compare to the investors and other stakeholders. It is not possible for external investor to access the actual performance and future value of firm. Making investment by using the retain earning this problem can be solved. If external financing become unavoidable then the firm fulfills its capital requirement though debt financing first by issuing debt securities and then move to the equity financing by issuing of shares. It means external financing is not required by the firm in case of high profit but in case of low profit firm must go for external financing by issuing debt securities because no retain earning available in case of low profit (Ahmad Ahmadpour et al, 2012). This theory suggests that firm move from internal financing to external financing or in other words in case of high profits internal financing should be used and in case of low profit external financing should be preferred.

**Ownership structure:** Amendments in company, director election and modifications in company status, appointment of auditors and approval of extraordinary transactions are the important matters on which shareholder has full command and influence. As mentioned by Abel and Okafor (2010) ownership structure is the ratio of shares held by Manager (Managerial ownership), institutions (Institutional ownership), government (State ownership), foreign investors (Foreign ownership) etc. As steered by Jensen & Mackling (1976) ownership structure the combination of shares held by manager, debt and equity holder. Al-Najjar and Taylor (2008) investigated the relationship between capital structure and ownership structure. According to them firm size and risk in business depends upon the capital structure and ownership structure.

**Capital Structure:** Maximization of shareholder wealth and reduction in cost of capital depends upon the optimal capital structure. Agency cost incurred or increase as we include more debts in our capital structure. As steered by Myers (2001) firm can gain maximum tax benefits by using more debts in capital structure and getting more profit that ultimately leads to maximization of shareholder wealth. According to O, Connel and Cramer (2010) positive and significant relationship was observed between firm leverage and firm value in their study. They also added that firm debts positively contribute to the firm performance by increasing the shareholder wealth. According to them market performance can be increased by using the more debts. As mentioned by Saeedi and Mahmoodi (2011) optimal capital structure has positive impact on firm performance and increase the firm vale as well by maximizing the shareholder wealth. According to the study of Salim and Yadav (2012) positive and significant association was found between capital structure and Tobin Q. As per study of Bender (2013) life of firm and firm value depends upon the capital structure. According to him financial risk depends upon the financing needs of firm. He mentioned that as financial risk enhance it leads to moderate risk during the firm life.

**Relationship between Ownership structure and Capital structure:** Voting rights in firm depends upon the number of shares held by a specific person or ownership structure. Since last few years much importance has been gotten by the ownership structure and capital structure. Owner equity and outsider equity are the two important factor or elements of ownership structure (Jensen and Meckling, 1976). Zheka (2005) conducted a study by taking the multiple variable including % of managerial ownership, large institutional ownership and government ownership to observe the association between ownership structure and capital structure. A Bajaj et al (1998) remark that there is a positive and significant relationship was found between debt to equity ratio and ownership structure. Friend and Lang (1988) conducted a study and suggested negative correlation among managerial ownership and debt to equity ratio. Mishra and McConaughy (1999) steered that in case of family firm there is less need of financing as compare to the non-family controlled and managed firms. As mentioned by Anderson and Reeb (2003) in case of family firm less financing cost was observed. Berger et al (1997) mentioned that less debt financing is required if no major stakeholder exist in firm ownership structure. According to Cheng et al (2005) there is positive association was found among ownership concentration and leverage. In his study Driffield et al (2005) both in family owner firm and non-family owned firm a significant and positive association was found among leverage and ownership concentration in various studies especially regarding developing countries extensive relationship was observed between capital structure and ownership structure. According them capital structure and ownership structure positively correlated and interrelated with each-others. Masood & Shah (2014) suggested and discussed the importance of capital structure and its impact on ownership structure. According to survival, growth and stability of firm depends on ownership structure and capital structure and these both factor positively contribute to the firm performance.

**Relationship between Ownership Concentration and Capital Structure:** Block holder's shareholder is those shareholders that have more than 5% shares of the firms. In their study Friend & Lang (1988) stress that company will used more debts if a firm have more major shareholder and used less debts if a firm have less major shareholders. They also suggested positive and significant relationship between concentration and leverage. Driffield et al (2005) suggested that as ownership concentration increase as leverage increases and vice versa. Zeituni and Tain (2007) argued that ownership concentration has positive impact on the firm value and firm performance. In his study he found positive relationship between ownership structure and firm performance, whereas negative relationship between capital structure and firm performance in 5 GCC countries including Qatar, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Oman. Masood & Shah (2014) conducted a research in developing countries like Pakistan by taking the manufacturing firms as sample study to observe the relationship between ownership structure and capital structure. In this study Harfindhal index was taken as research methodology to observe the relationship between ownership concentration and capital structure. According to the finding of the study negative and significant relationship was observed between ownership concentration and capital structure. s

**H1: All else being equal, ownership concentration is positively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between Managerial ownership and capital structure:** Hostile takeover can be eliminated by using more debt financing than the equity financing by the managers of various firms Pindado & La. Torre, 2011). As steered by Mohid et al (1998) most of the firms who intend to increase the performance of their managers used debt financing as the debt financing reduce the agency cost. Most of manager successfully reduces the risk of business through the effective ownership (Huang & Song, 2006). Mostly managers used debt financing to minimize the agency cost and to increase the voting rights of managers and to enhance the control over the firms. According to the research conducted by Brailsfor (2002) there is nonlinear association and link was observed between capital structure and ownership structure. In this study negative relationship by keeping in view the agency cost and taxes institutional owner make a mix of capital structure is called optimal capital structure. To increase the public and supplier interest in company agency cost can be reduced. Institutional investor has greater control over the firm due to great interest in company and due to this they have vital roles in capital structure adjustment. Debt tendency will be lower if a firm have more institutional investors. According to Grier and Zychowicz (1994) they found no relationship between institutional ownership and capital structure as the sample of their study consists of family representatives companies. Bodaghi and Ahmadpour (2010) suggested that according to the corporate governance theory and principles there is a positive and significant relationship was observed between institutional ownership and capital structure. Arshad and Safdar (2009) mentioned that debt to equity ratio have significant impact

on capital structure in Pakistan, also found between managerial ownership and capital structure. According to the results of this study agency problems can be eliminated and reducing through managerial ownership. Most of manager eliminating or minimize the bankruptcy cost by using more debts in their capital structure.

**H<sub>2</sub>: All else being equal Managerial ownership is Negatively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between Institutional ownership and Capital Structure:** short et al. (2002) examine the influence of ownership structure on the financial structure of UK firms. Their results revealed that there exists positive relationship between management ownership and leverage ratio whereas negative relationship was observed between large external equity holder's ownership and financial leverage. The study of Masood & Shah (2014) in Pakistan checked the association among institutional shareholding and capital structure of the firms listed at KSE. Short et al. (2002) observed that ownership structure has significant relationship with financial structure in UK. The results of the study indicate that significant and positive relationship was observed among management ownership and leverage ratio whereas inverse relationship was accessed between external equity holder ownership and financial leverage. Masood & Shah (2014) stress that there is a significant association was observed between institutional shareholder and capital structure among the firms that are listed at Pakistan Stock Exchange (PSE). According to the study conducted by taking the 121 firms as sample study an inverse relationship was observed between institutional investors and capital structure. So the hypothesis that there is a significant association between institutional ownership and capital structure is rejected. According to Akbari & Rahmani (2013) external debts was arranged by the institutional shareholder under favorable terms.

**H<sub>3</sub>: All else being equal, Institutional ownership is positively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between Foreign ownership and capital structure:** When a person of foreign country invests in specific company that ownership of investment is referred as foreign ownership. Holding company is that takes the more than 50% of shares whereas a company that surrounded more than 50% of its shares is called target company. Bokpin et al. (2009) added that capital structure and foreign ownership has significant and positive relation with each other. Performance of firms can be enhanced through foreign ownership and corporate governance increase as foreign ownership increase. In this study foreign ownership is referred as percentage of ownership by the foreign individual, investor or companies. In some other studies like Svejnar & Kocenda (2002), Li et al. (2009) and Lee and Kwok (1988) observed negative relationship between foreign ownership and capital structure. According to Mieno (2009) and Gurunlu & Gursoy (2010) low gearing level was observed with high foreign investment because most companies whose capital mainly depends upon foreign investment have high level of retained earnings to finance their projects. Gedajlovic et al. (2005) like the earlier studies results found significant and negative association between foreign ownership and capital structure. Tamimi (2011) in his study also noted inverse relationship between capital structure and foreign ownership.

**H<sub>4</sub>: All else being equal, foreign ownership is positively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between Corporate Governance and Capital Structure:** Corporate governance can play an important and vital role to enhance the investor interest in specific companies by enhancing the performance of companies. Capital structure of the firms can be determined accessed through the positive contribution and important role of corporate governance. According to her corporate governance plays an important role between the firm's level of leverage and firm value. She further added that corporate governance and capital structure and firm value have significant and positive relationship. According to the findings of this study significant and positive relationship among the capital structure and value of the firms was observed. In this study they added that corporate governance practices can be increased through independence ownership concentration as the positive and significant relationship between ownership concentration and firm value was observed in this study. Ukaegbu (2014) conducted a study to observe the relationship between corporate governance and capital structure and also observed its impact on firm value. For this study panned data of non-financial Nigerian firms was used. In this study with respect to short term leverage negative and inverse relationship was observed between capital structure and firms performance. In this study positive and significant relationship was observed between firm's performance, leverage, board meeting and board size.

**Relationship between Board Size Capital Structure:** According to the Pfeffer and Salancick (1978) mentioned that size of the board and capital structure have significant and positive relationship. In Pakistan

the maximum board size was observed 19 members whereas the minimum board size was observed on 7 members. Berger et al. (1997) added that large board size and gearing level negative correlated with each other. According to this study large board size leads to low debt level resulting positive performance of the firms. According to the Wen et al. (2002) positive relationship was observed between board size and capital structure. According to him firm's performance can be increase by enhancing the board size that resulting high gearing level also. In case of large board size debt cost will be lower due to strict check and balance due to more member of board. Mak & Kusnadi (2005) observed significant and negative relationship between size of the board and value of the firms. Cheng (2008) added that discussion regarding board size and firm's performance is less important as in his study he did not found any relationship between size of board and firm performance. Adams & Mehran (2012) conducted a study to make banks as sample to observe the firm's performance relationship with board size. In this study he observed that board size and firm performance has positive and significant relationship. Kumar and Singh (2013) conducted a same nature study on Indian firms he also observed positive and significant relationship between firm size and firm performance. Rajangan et al. (2014) concluded that significant and positive relationship was observed in Malaysian companies with reference to board size, ownership structure, firm performance and gearing level.

Independent director and executive director have positive influence on the financial performance of the firms and gearing level whereas negative relationship between firm's performance and leverage was observed in case of non-independent director and non-executive director. Coles et al. (2008) conducted a study on American firms and reported that there is significant and positive relationship observed between board size and capital structure in its impact on firm's financial performance. He further added that more legal advices are required in case of high gearing ratio and low legal services required in case of less gearing ratio. Anderson et al. (2004) observed significant and positive association between board size and debt ratio. He also added that in case of large board size firms can easily get finance at reasonable term and conditions as compare to the less member board size. According to Wen et al. (2002) better monitoring and check and balance can be ensured in case of large board size that resulting high gearing ratio that leads to superior performance of firms.

**H<sub>5</sub>: All else being equal, Board Size is positively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between CEO Duality and Capital Structure:** Lam and Lee (2008) conducted a study to observe the relationship between CEO duality and firm performance. According to the findings of the study CEO duality have less importance in context of firm's performance in case of family control business whereas CEO duality have positive impact on financial performance in case of non-family firms. Fosberg (2004) observed significant and positive relationship between corporate governance, capital structure, CEO duality and gearing level. Abor (2007) also observed significant and positive association between dual leadership and capital structure.

**H<sub>6</sub>: All else being equal, CEO duality is positively related to capital structure**

**Relationship between Board independence and Capital structure:** An outsider director is not allowed to participate in executive management of the company. Performance of the firms and interest of its stakeholders can be protected through the involvement of external directors because the external director take immediate measure and strong stand against each and every wrong decision. According to Jensen (1986) and Berger et al. (1997) mentioned firm's performance can be enhanced by increasing the number of external director. They also added that firm's debt level found minimized with the low number of external director. Abor & Biekpe (2007) capital structure and chair duality in composition board are positively correlated with each other. They also added that with the involvement of outside director financial performance of firms can be enhanced by minimizing the debt level and debt cost. Erickson et al. (2005) in their study reported negative relationship between board independence and firm's financial performance. Motavassel et al. (2013) conducted a study to observe the relationship between outside director and firm value and reported negative relationship between observed variables. Ahmed and Wang (2012) conducted a study on non-financial firms that are listed in KSE by taking the data from 2004-2008. In this study they observed significant and positive relationship between observed variables including board size, outside director and capital structure.

**H<sub>7</sub>: All else being equal, Board Independence is positively related to capital structure**



**Table 1: Literature Review**

Variable	Relationship With Leverage	Empirical Evidence
Ownership Concentration	Positive	Brailsford, et al.(2002),Margantis &Psillaki(2010),Pindado& La Torre (2011), Céspedes, et al.(2010)
	Negative	Short, et al. (2002), Liu, et al.(2011)
	Non-Linear	La Bruslerie&Latrous (2012), Shi (2010)
	No Impact	Huang &Song(2006)
Managerial Ownership	Positive	Mehran(1992), Berger, et al.(1997) and Short, et al. (2002)
	Negative	Jensen, et al. (1992), Bathala, et al. (1994),Firth(1995), Mohid, et al.(1998), Chen & Steiner(1999)
	Non-Linear	Brailsford, et al.(2002)
Foreign Ownership	Positive	Godfred A, et al. (2009)
	Negative	Svejnar, (2002) Li et al. ( 2009) Lee andkwok(1988) Mieno(2009), Gurunlu and gurssoy(2010), Gedajlovic et al.(2005) and Tamimi(2011)
Institutional ownership	Positive	Pushner (1995), Firth(1995)Deesomsak, et al.(2004), Driffield, et al.(2007),González, et al.(2012), Akbari &Rahmani (2013)
	Negative	Schmid (2013)
Board Size	Positive	Wen (2002)
	Negative	Berger (1997), Abor and Biekpe (2007)
Board Independence	Positive	Pfeffer and Salancick (1978), Jensen (1986) and Berger et al (1997), Abor and Biekpe (2007)
	Negative	Erickson et al. (2005), , Wen (2002)
CEO Duality	Positive	Fosberg(2004), Faleye (2004), Abor (2007), Abor and Biekpe (2007), Nazir et al (2012)
	Negative	(Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Fama & Jensen, 1983)

### 3. Methodology

The core objective for writing this piece of research article is to observe the relationship between corporate governance and capital structure by taking 56 companies that are listed at KSE 100 index. In this study an effort has been made to observe the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance factor on capital structure. In this study secondary data was used that is collected from the annual reports of companies. For construction of strong building block to support the study both domestic and international studies used as basis. In this study local firm that are listed at Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE) 100 index was taken as sample size. Data from 2011 to 2014 was collected as the during this observed massive development in stock market was observed and concept of corporate governance also flourished and get importance in this period. For the purpose of data collection financial reports of observed companies were gotten from the website of respected companies. In these firms non-financial firms were taken as sample size because there is difference between financial firms and non-financial firms on the basis of their capital structure. The basis reason regarding taking the KSE-100 index companies is that because the performance of these companies is remarkable as compare to other companies and phenomena of corporate governance was adopted by these companies with letter and spirit as compare to the others companies. In this study observed companies was randomly selected by keeping in view the various factors including availability of data from 2011-2014 and availability of observed variables in the annual reports of the firms.

**The above mentioned details helped to reach the desired sample of this study which is shown below as:**

- KSE 100 index consist of 100 companies
- Out of 100 companies 24 are related to financial sector, 76 companies are related to none-financial sector

- This study includes the four-year data of 56 firms out of 76 none financial firms, 20 firms are excluded due to the unavailability of data.
- So out of 304 observations of 76 firms this study includes 224 observations of 56 firms

**Model Specification:**

$$CapitalStructure = \alpha + \beta_1 CONC + \beta_2 MGOS + \beta_3 FOS + \beta_4 INSOS + \beta_5 BSIZE + \beta_6 BIND + \beta_7 CEOD + \beta_8 PROFIT + \beta_9 FSZIE + \beta_{10} LIQD + \mu$$

$\alpha$ = Represented Constant  
 $\beta$ = Beta Coefficients  
 CONC= Ownership Concentration  
 MGOS= Managerial Ownership  
 FOS=Foreign Ownership  
 INSOS= Institutional Ownership  
 BSIZE= Board Size  
 BIND=Board Independence  
 CEOD=CEO Duality  
 PROFIT=Profitability  
 FSZIE=Firm size  
 LIQD= Liquidity  
 $\mu$ = Error Term

**Table 2: definition of study variables**

Variables	Definition	Sources
Leverage	Total debt to total assets	(Wellalage and Locke, 2014) (Masood & Shah, 2014).
Ownership Concentration	The shareholders having 5% or more voting interest in the company	(Ahmad Ahmadpour et al, 2012).
Managerial Ownership	The percentage of shares held by directors, executives, spouses and children	(Bear et al, 2010).
Foreign Ownership	The percentage ownership of foreign investors, individuals or companies	Tamimi (2011)
Institutional Ownership	The percentage of shares held by the institutions disclosed in the annual report	(Hasan and Butt, 2009).
Board Size	Log of the total number of members of the board as disclosed in annual report	(Ahmad Ahmadpour et al, 2012).
CEO Duality	1 is taken if CEO also chairs the board otherwise it is taken as 0	Hasan and Butt, 2009).
Board Independence	The number of non-executive/independent directors	Hasan and Butt, 2009).
Profitability	EBIT to Total Assets	Hasan and Butt, 2009).
Size of firm	Log of book assets	Hasan and Butt, 2009).
Liquidity	Current Ratio	Lingling (2013)

**Econometric Methodology:** In this study panel data used to observe the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on capital structure of Karachi Stock Exchange (KSE) listed companies. This segment of study reveals the methodology used to estimate the regression equation. In this panel data used as the data of different companies regarding different period involved in this study. The problems autocorrelation and Heteroscedasticity arises if we used simple OLS model to find out the relationship between observed variables. Variable biasness can be reduced by taking the panel data as the panel data overlooked the



heteroscedasticity and expose the data dynamics due to high degree of freedom and low multicollinearity. Error of measurement can be reduced and issue of bigger amount can be solved by transforming the data. We have balanced panel and also have equal observation in all time periods. We can also remove the unobserved effect by summing it to disturbance term. If errors are correlated with  $u$  than we must use the fixed effect model. But if the data has the issue of autocorrelation the generalized least square and feasible generalized least square can be used to overcome this problem in random effect model. We have to use that procedure of estimation that can better solve the above mention problems in different models. Ordinary least square can also be used in the case we have continuous coefficients with uniform residuals. OLS can also be used to estimate the Fixed-Effect model if the model does not bump into the Heteroscedasticity whether group wise or other effect on dependent variables. EGLS and FGLS work effectively where there exist Heteroscedasticity (Yafee). Therefore, we have the FGLS approach to estimate the model. FGLS permits estimation in the existence of AR(1) autocorrelation within panels and cross-sectional correlation and Heteroscedasticity across panels. GLS method gives us BLUE and asymptotically efficient estimates (it is based on variance component). Maddala & Mount, (1973) compared OLS, FE, RE and MLE methods using Monte Carlo experiments. Their results did not prove any of them better than the other. If the observed variance is unequal or they have serial correlation, then the method of GLS is used to estimate unknown parameters (because OLS will give inefficient estimates). The GLS estimator is an OLS estimator of a transformed 'isomorphic' model (the generalized linear model). It provides the BLUE under Heteroscedasticity/ serial correlation. Generalized least squares (GLS) method is used for estimation of random effects when variance structure is known and if the variance structure is unknown then feasible generalized least squares is applied for estimation (FGLS).

#### 4. Results and Discussion

**Findings/Empirical Results:** The aim of this study is to find the “The impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on capital structure of the KSE 100 index companies. Below mention table present the summary statistics for dependent and independent variable. Descriptive statistics like mean median mode mainly provide the location of data and the standard deviation provide the deviation of data from its mean.

**Table 3: Descriptive Statistics**

Variable	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ownership Concentration	224	63.1656	22.0977
Managerial Ownership	224	16.6100	22.4545
Foreign Ownership	224	15.6002	26.1409
Institutional Ownership	224	63.5165	29.5035
Board Size	224	0.9593	0.18242
CEO Duality	224	0.125	0.33146
Board Independence	224	6.04464	2.53191
Firm Size	224	7.81165	1.16134
Profitability	224	14.9643	10.3924
Liquidity	224	1.69725	1.17906
Debt Ratio	224	48.6821	22.2249

**Descriptive Statistics:** The above mention table presents the mean and standard deviations of dependent and independent variables. Mean value of ownership concentration is 63.1656 and SD is 22.097 this means that in the sample companies an average 63.1656% of shareholdings are concentrated or hold by the largest block holders and 22.097% deviation from the mean. Mean value of managerial ownership 16.61, this means sample firms have an average about 16.61% holdings by the management of the company. 15.6002 is the mean value of foreign ownership this value depicts that average of 15.6% share are held by the foreign investors. Mean value of the institutional ownership is 63.5165 means that in the sample firms an average of 63.51 % shares is held by the institutions both financial and none financial. This mean value 0.9593 shows

the mean of the log of board size this value means that sample firms having average 9 directors on their board. This mean value shows the out of 100 CEO's 12.5% are also holding the chairmanship of the board. Board independence mean value is 6.044 this value shows that an average of 6 independent directors are present in the board. Mean value for firm size 7.81 this is the mean of log of firm's book assets. Mean of profitability shows a mean value of 14.96 this means that sample firms have a 14.96% return on assets. 1.69725 is the average of the current ratio means how much current assets are there to fulfill the short term obligations this value shows that firms are having 1.69 times current assets then their current liabilities. At the end the mean value of Debt Ratio is 48.6821 means that sample firms having an average about 48.68% of debt in their capital structure.

**Generalized Least Square Results:** This study uses GLS regression to estimate the model from a panel data because panel data contains the issues of autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity so GLS control these kinds of issues. We also use number of control variables to get robust results of pure independent variables.

**GLS after Controlling GroupWise Heteroskedasticity and Auto Correlation**

	CONS	MGOS	FOS	INST	BSIZE	CEO Duality	BIND	FSIZE	PROFIT	LIQD	Debt Ratio
Coefficient	0.028	-0.074	-0.110	0.068	8.310	-5.606	0.415	5.121	-0.099	-11.301	17.061
Standard Error	0.0302	0.0343	0.0157	0.0223	3.2552	1.2031	0.20016	0.5226	0.0488	0.6353	5.7928
Z Value	0.95	-2.16	-7.02	3.06	2.55	-4.66	2.08	9.8	-2.02	-17.79	2.95
P>z	0.344	0.031*	0.000**	0.002**	0.011**	0.000**	0.038*	0.000**	0.044*	0.000**	0.003**
Wald Test	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55	1369.55
Prob> chi2	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Auto correlation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note: \*\* and \* these signs P>z row denotes the significance levels. Note: \*this sign shows the significance level is 5% and \*\* this shows the level of significance is 1%.

The above table shows the STATA results of ownership structure corporate governance variables with respect to leverage. Ownership structure and corporate governance is independent variable and leverage is dependent variable. As shown is the above table;

- Ownership concentration is positively related to leverage as the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant as 0.344 > 0.05
- Managerial ownership is negatively related to leverage as the coefficient is negative but statistically significant as 0.031\* < 0.05
- Foreign ownership is negatively related to leverage as the coefficient is negative but statistically highly significant as 0.000\*\* < 0.05
- Institutional ownership is Positively related to leverage as the coefficient is positive and statistically significant as 0.002\*\* < 0.05
- Board size is positively related to the leverage as the coefficient is positive and also statistically significant as 0.011\*\* < 0.05
- CEO Duality is negatively related to the leverage because the coefficient is negative and statistically highly significant as 0.000\*\* < 0.05
- Board Independence is also positively related to the leverage as the coefficient is positive and statistically significant 0.038\* < 0.05

Note: \*this sign shows the significance level is 5% and \*\* this shows the level of significance is 1%.

**Theoretical Support from Previous Studies:** This study examines the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance variables on leverage of KSE 100 index companies of Pakistan. The results of Generalized Least square have been presented in above mentioned tables. Discussion of above mention results and possible reason why there exist such relationship between independent and dependent variables. In this study, Ownership concentration is positively related to debt ratio and statistically insignificant. This finding suggests that higher the ownership concentration higher will be the debt ratio or leverage of the firm. But in Pakistan most of the companies have concentration of ownership (Cheema et al 2003). In Pakistani companies most of the shares of the companies are held by family members and their relatives, so that they prefer debt financing over equity due to fear of the dilution of ownership and control (Hasan & Butt, 2009). Managerial ownership is negatively related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that it is similar to agency theory that managers put their goals ahead than the corporate goals. This leads to conflict of interest between management and the owners of the firm. The negative relation between managerial ownership and leverage means that management favors lower debt to be employed in the firm. Because higher the debt ratio higher the risk is imposed to the managers than the shareholders. If more debt is employed free cash flow is used to service these debts and less is available to the managers as bonuses and remuneration. Thus higher the managerial ownership lower will be the leverage of the firm. Brailsford et al. (2002) stated that there is nonlinear relationship exist in capital structure and managerial ownership. The author also found a negative relationship between managerial ownership and capital structure. He states that managerial ownership leads to reduced agency problems, managers tends to be highly concerned with the well-being of the company, therefore they use low level of debt to reduce the bankruptcy cost. The negative relationship between managerial ownership and capital structure is also found in Fosberg (2004), Friend and Lang (1988) and Sheikh and Wang (2012).

Foreign ownership is negatively related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that higher the foreign ownership in the firm lower will be the debt ratio of the firm. Thus foreign owners favor less debt and this is consistent with the pecking order theory in which the firm must finance its projects by internal sources. On the other hand, some studies also find a negative relationship between foreign ownership and capital structure like Svejnar & Kocenda, (2002) Li et al. (2009) Lee and Kwok (1988) Mieno (2009) and Gurunlu, M., & Gursoy (2010) finds that firms with high foreign investment in their equity have low gearing level because these companies mostly have high level of retained earnings to finance their projects internally. Previous studies like Gedajlovic et al. (2005) supported previous studies that there exist negative relationship between foreign ownership and capital structure. Tamimi (2011) conducted a study to find out the impact of foreign ownership on capital structure, the study finds a negative relationship between foreign ownership and capital structure. Institutional ownership is positively related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that higher the institutional ownership higher will be the debt ratio. This finding match with the previous studies like Bodaghi & Ahmadpour (2010) study revealed that institutional ownership has positive relationship with capital structure which is consistent with corporate governance philosophy. Akbari & Rahmani (2013) states that institutional shareholding helps the firm to raise external finance at favorable terms. Because these institution acts as the main source of external finance and in turn they enjoy the influence the company by entering in the board of that company. On the other hand, institutional investors also effectively monitor the strategic decision of the company and in turn reduce the agency problem and management opportunism. Institutional investor also boots up the confidence of other lenders and general public this leads to the reduction in cost of debt or raise debt on favorable terms.

Board size is positively related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that large board size favors higher debt ratio Large companies have large board size and such companies with giant assets take debt on favorable terms. Wen et al. (2002) concludes that size of board is positively related to capital structure. He says that high gearing level due to the large board size increases the firm's value. He also mentions that due to large board size, its member takes no early consensus on any decision which may affect the governance and ultimately results in high debt level. Large board size results in low debt cost because creditors think that the firm is under strict supervision of the diversified board. Coles et al. (2008) reports a positive relationship between board size and capital structure in American context. They provide a possible explanation for this is that firm with high gearing ratio may have larger advising requirements then firms with low gearing levels. Anderson et al. (2004) also found positive relationship between board size and debt ratio, he argues that firm with higher boards have easy access to debt at favorable terms. According to agency

theory Jensen (1986) and Wen et al. (2002) reports positive relationship between board size gearing ratio. They argue that larger boards are more entrenched due to effective monitoring pursue higher gearing level to boost up the firm value. CEO duality is negatively related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that CEO duality leads to firm's lower debt usage. If CEO is also the chairman of the board lower will be the debt ratio of the firm. CEO duality in fact reduces separation of ownership and information asymmetry in the firm. According to Abor and Biekpe (2007) chair duality and composition of board is positively related to capital structure. Fosberg (2004) conducted a study to investigate the impact of corporate governance and capital structure; he found that CEO duality is positively related to gearing level. The author provides the explanation for this positive relationship is leadership duality lessens the problem of separation of ownership and control and therefore has high accessibility to the debt on favorable terms. Like the Fosberg (2004), Faleye (2007) also reports the positive relationship between CEO duality and capital structure, he provides the explanation for this relationship that Duality in leadership may lessens the problem of information asymmetry in turn this leads to higher access to external finance. A positive relationship between dual leadership and capital structure also reported by the Abor (2007). A possible explanation for relation in the context of Pakistan is that mostly firms are owned by families there also exist duality in leadership so they choose more debt financing over equity financing because they want to dilute their ownership. Board independence is positive related to debt ratio and statistically significant. This finding suggests that if board of the firm consists more number of outside and non-executive directors then higher will be the debt ratio or leverage of the firm. Higher the board independence higher the leverage of the firm. The creditors consider it credit worthy thus it makes easy for the firm to take debt from outsiders. Outside directors are the key part of the corporate governance.

According to Pfeffer and Salancick (1978) the presence of external directors on the board is much appreciated by the outsiders who have made their investments in the company. This makes the firm's images better in the eye of investors. Their study shows results that higher board independence increase leverage. Jensen (1986) and Berger et al (1997) found that high leverage is found in the firms which have high representation of non-executive directors and firms with low number of external directors have low debt level. According to Abor and Biekpe (2007) chair duality and composition of board is positively related to capital structure. Firm size is positively related to the leverage of the firm and has a significant positive impact on leverage. This means that larger the firm size higher will be the debt. Titman & Wessels (1988) argued that big firms not consider the bankruptcy cost in deciding the level of leverage as these are just a small percentage of the total value of the firm so larger firms may prefer to use high level of leverage. Friend and Lang (1988), Marsh (1982) also find the positive relationship between firm size and gearing level. This study finds the profitability is negatively related to the gearing level of the firm. Myers & Majluf (1984) argued that profitable firms have low level of leverage because they prefer to finance their projects by internally generated fund over debt. These findings are in line with the pecking order theory of capital structure. This study finds that Liquidity is negatively related to the leverage level of the firm. According to Al-Najjar, Taylor (2008) firms with more liquid assets may use their liquid assets as source of finance to fund future products and projects so that why there exist negative relationship. According to Myers & Rajan (1998) there exist negative relationship between firm liquidity and gearing level. They explained this as the agency costs of liquidity increase outside creditors limit the amount of debt available to company. Firms with high liquidity use less level of external financing (Lingling, 2013).

## 5. Conclusion

The main objective of this study is to find out the impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on capital structure of the Pakistani listed firms. Capital structure pattern of the firm has been explained by several capital structure theories. Financial mix of the firm is the basic issue which is to be decided to increase the firm's value and performance by the managers. This decision is affected by different theories of capital structure. This study uses ownership structure and corporate governance variables to determine the financial mix of Pakistani firms. Ownership structure and corporate governance are used as independent variables and capital structure is used as dependent variable. A lot of work has done in the field of corporate governance but a small is found in the field of ownership structure. Thus present study focuses on both ownership structure and corporate governance practices. The capital structure of the firm is determined with ownership concentration, managerial ownership, foreign ownership, institutional ownership, board size, CEO

duality and board independence. Different companies are characterized by different financial mix thus indicating different ownership and corporate governance practices. Different companies have different borrowing powers and control over the companies. Present study indicates that ownership structure and corporate governance have significant impact on capital structure of the firms and both are important in determining the financial mix of the firms. Managerial ownership is significantly negatively related to leverage indicating that there will be managerial opportunism in the firm. Managerial ownership is used as alternative to agency cost. Foreign ownership is negatively related to leverage which is consistent with the pecking order theory. In situations, the firms move from less risky to riskiest source of finance. Board size significantly positively related to leverage indicating that large firms having giant assets with large board size tend to take debt on favorable terms. CEO duality and leverage are negatively related showing that CEO also serving as chairman on the board leads to lower leverage. Board independence and leverage are positively related; this finding suggests that if board of the firm consists more number of outside and non-executive directors then higher will be the debt ratio or leverage of the firm. Higher the board independence higher the leverage of the firm. The creditors consider it credit worthy thus it makes easy for the firm to take debt from outsiders. Outside directors are the key part of the corporate governance. This study shows insignificant positive relationship of ownership concentration with the leverage indicating that firms with high ownership concentration tend to high financial leverage of the firm. In Pakistani companies most of the shares of the companies are held by family members and their relatives, so that they prefer debt financing over equity due to fear of the dilution of ownership and control (Hasan & Butt, 2009).

## References

- A. S. Tamimi (2011) *influence of foreign ownership on capital structure of None-Financial firms: Evidence form Amman Stock Exchange*: faculty of graduate studies university of Jordan.
- Abel, E. E & Okafor, F. O. (2010). Local corporate ownership and capital structure decisions in Nigeria: A developing country perspective. *Corporate Governance*, 10(3), 249-260.
- Abor, J. and N. Biekpe, 2007. Corporate governance, ownership structure and performance of SMEs in Ghana: Implications for financing opportunities. *Corporate Governance*, 7(3): 288-300.
- Abor, J., 2007. Corporate governance and financing decisions of Ghanaian listed firms. *Corporate Governance*, 7(1): 83-92.
- Adams, R. B., & Mehran, H. (2012). Bank board structure and performance: Evidence for large bank holding companies. *Journal of financial Intermediation*, 21(2), 243-267.
- Ahmad Ahmadpour, Ahmad Jafari Samimi and Hamze Golmohammadi, (2012) "Corporate Governance and Capital Structure: Evidence from Tehran Stock Exchange", *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research* 11 (4): 531-535.
- Ahmed Sheikh, N., & Wang, Z. (2011). Determinants of capital structure: An empirical study of firms in manufacturing industry of Pakistan. *Managerial Finance*, 37(2), 117-133.
- Akbari M & Rahmani S (2013) Does corporate governance and ownership structure influence capital structure? Empirical evidence from Iran. *World of science journal*, 1(17), 72-85.
- Al-Najjar, B., & Taylor, P. (2008). The relationship between capital structure and ownership structure: New evidence from Jordanian panel data. *Managerial Finance*, 34(12), 919-933.
- Anderson R., Mansi, S. and Reeb, D. (2004). Board Characteristics, Accounting Report Integrity and the Cost of Debt, *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 37, 315-342.
- Anderson, R. C. and Reeb, D. M. (2003). Founding-family ownership, corporate versification, and firm leverage, *Journal of Law and Economics*, 46(2): 653-680.
- Arslan, M., Zaman, R., Malik, R. K. & Mehmood, A. (2014). Impact of CEO Duality and Audit Committee on Firm Performance: A Study of Oil & Gas Listed Firms of Pakistan. *Research Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 5, 151-156.
- Bajaj, M., Chan, Y. and Dasgupta, S. (1998), "The relationship between ownership, financing decisions and firm performance: a signaling model", *International Economic Review*, 39(3), 723-44.
- Bear, S., Rahman, N., & Post, C. (2010). The impact of board diversity and gender composition on corporate social responsibility and firm reputation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 97(2), 207-221.
- Bender, R. (2013). *Corporate financial strategy*. Routledge.
- Berger, P.G., Ofek, E. and Yermack, D.L. (1997), "Managerial entrenchment and capital structure decisions", *Journal of Finance*, 52(4), 1411-38.



- Bodaghi, A., & Ahmadpour, A. (2010). The effect of corporate governance and ownership structure on capital structure of Iranian listed companies. 7th International Conference on Enterprise Systems, Accounting and Logistics (7th ICESAL 2010) 28-29 June 2010, Rhodes Island, Greece, 89-96. [Online] Available: <http://www.icesal.org/2010%20PROCEEDINGS/docs/P8.pdf> (April 22, 2012).
- Bokpin, G. A., & Arko, A. C. (2009). Ownership structure, corporate governance and capital structure decisions of firms: Empirical evidence from Ghana. *Studies in Economics and Finance*, 26(4), 246-256.
- Brailsford, T. J., Oliver, B. R., & Pua, S. L. (2002). On the relation between ownership structure and capital structure. *Accounting & Finance*, 42(1), 1-26.
- Cadbury, A 1992, 'The financial aspects of corporate governance', *the final report of the Committee on the Financial Aspects of Corporate Governance*, viewed on 8 June 2013 [www.ecgi.org](http://www.ecgi.org)
- Cheema, A., F. Bari and O. Saddique, (2003). Corporate governance in Pakistan: Ownership, control and the law. Lahore: Lahore University of Management Sciences.
- Cheng, S. (2008). Board size and the variability of corporate performance. *Journal of financial economics*, 87(1), 157-176.
- Cheng, S., Nagar, V. and Rajan, M. (2005), "Identifying control motives in managerial ownership: evidence from antitakeover legislation", *Review of Financial Studies*, 18, 636-72.
- Coles, J. L., Daniel, N. D., & Naveen, L. (2008). Boards: Does one size fit all? *Journal of financial economics*, 87(2), 329-356.
- Driffield, N., Vidya, M. and Sarmistha, P. (2005), "How ownership structure affects capital structure and firm performance? Recent evidence from East Asia", Finance 0505010, Economics Working Paper Archive EconWPA.
- Erickson, J., Park, Y. W., Reising, J., & Shin, H. H. (2005). Board composition and firm value under concentrated ownership: The Canadian evidence. *Pacific-Basin Finance Journal*, 13(4), 387-410.
- Faleye, O. (2007). Classified boards, firm value, and managerial entrenchment. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 83(2), 501-529.
- Fosberg, R.H (2004, 'Agency problems and debt financing: Leadership structure effects', *Corporate Governance*, 4(1), 31-38.
- Friend, I., & Lang, L. H. P. (1988). An empirical test of the impact of managerial self-interest on corporate capital structure. *The Journal of Finance*, 43(2), 271 -281.
- Gedajlovic, Eric, Yoshikawa, Toru and Hashimoto, Motomi (2005) Ownership structure, investment behavior and firm performance in Japanese manufacturing industries. *Research Collection Lee Kong Chian School of Business*, Paper 2288.
- Grier, P., & Zychowicz, E. J. (1994). Institutional investors, corporate discipline, and the role of debt. *Journal of Economics and Business*, 46(1), 1-11.
- Gurunlu, M., & Gursoy, G. (2010). The influence of foreign ownership on capital structure of non-financial firms: evidence from Istanbul Stock Exchange. *IUP Journal of Corporate Governance*, 9(4), 21.
- Hasan, A., & Butt, S. A. (2009). Impact of ownership structure and corporate governance on capital structure of Pakistani listed companies. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(2), 50-57  
<http://www.adb.org/countries/pakistan/economy>
- Huang, G. and Song, F.M., (2006). The determinants of capital structure: Evidence from China. *China Economic Review*, 17, 14-36.
- Jabbarzadeh Kangarlouei, S., Kavasi, B., & Motavassel, M. (2013). The effects of outside board on firm value in Tehran Stock Exchange from the perspective of information transaction costs. *International Journal of Industrial Mathematics*, 5(4), 375-386.
- Jensen, M (1986), 'Agency cost of free cash flow, corporate finance and takeovers', *American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings*, 76, 323-329.
- Jensen, M. and Meckling, W.H. (1976) 'Theory of the firm: managerial behavior, agency costs and ownership structure', *Journal of Financial Economics*, 3: 305-360.
- Jensen, M. C. (1986). Agency Costs of Free Cash Flow, Corporate Finance and Takeovers. *American Economic Review*, 76, 323-329
- Johnson, S., La Porta, R., Lopez-De-Silanes, F., & Shleifer, A. (2000). Tunneling. *The American Economic Review*, 90(2), 22-27.
- Koch, P.D. and Shenoy, C. (1999), "The information content of dividend and capital structure policies", *Financial Management*, 28(4), 16-35.



- Kumar, N., & Singh, J. P. (2013). Effect of board size and promoter ownership on firm value: some empirical findings from India. *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, 13(1), 88-98.
- Lee, Kwang and Kwok, Chuck (1988) Multinational corporations vs. domestic corporations: international environmental factors and determinants of capital structure. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19 (2): 195-217.
- Li, K., Yue, H., & Zhao, L. (2009). Ownership, institution, and capital structure: evidence from China. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 37, 471 -490.
- Lingling Z. (2013) *the impact of ownership structure on capital structure; Evidence from listed firms in China*. School of management and governance financial management, University of Twente, Netherlands.
- Maddala, C.S. and Mount, T.D. (1973) "A Comparative Study of Alternative Estimators for Variance Components Models Used in Econometric Applications". *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 68: 324-328.
- Mak, Y. T., & Kusnadi, Y. (2005). Size really matters: Further evidence on the negative relationship between board size and firm value. *Pacific-Basin Finance Journal*, 13(3), 301-318.
- Masood, A., & Shah, A. (2014). Corporate governance and cash holdings in listed non-financial firms of Pakistan.
- Mieno, Fumiharu (2009) Foreign ownership, listed status, and the financial system in East Asia: Evidence from Thailand and Malaysia. *Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Discussion Paper Series* no.64, Columbia University, New York, United States.
- Mishra, C.S. and McConaughy, D.L. (1999), "Founding family control and capital structure: the risk of loss of control and the aversion to debt", *Entrepreneurial Theory and Practice*, 23(4), 53-64.
- Modigliani, F. and Miller, M. (1958), "the Cost of Capital, Corporation Finance and the Theory of Finance" *American Economic Review*, 48(1), 261-97.
- Mohid, M. A., Perry, L. G., & Rimbey, J. N. (1998). The impact of ownership structure on corporate debt policy: a time-series cross-sectional analysis. *The Financial Review*, 33, 85-98.
- Myers, S. C. (2001). Capital Structure, *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 15(2), 81-102
- Myers, S. C., & Rajan, R. G. (1998). The paradox of liquidity. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 113(3), 733-771.
- Myers, S., and N. Majluf. (1984). Corporate Financing and Investment Decisions When Firms Have Information Investors Do Not Have. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 13, 187-222.
- N. H. Wellalage and S. Locke, (2014), "Impact of ownership structure on capital structure of New Zealand unlisted firms. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 22(1), 127-142.
- O'Connell, V., & Cramer, N. (2010). The relationship between firm performance and board characteristics in Ireland. *European Management Journal*, 28(5), 387-399.
- Pakistan institute of corporate governance 2011, 'Survey on Board Practices in Pakistan', viewed on June 2013, [www.picg.org.pk](http://www.picg.org.pk)
- Pfeffer, J. and Salanick, G.R. (1978), *The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective*, Harper & Row, New York, NY.
- Pindado, J., & La Torre, D. C. (2011). Capital structure: new evidence from the ownership structure. *International Review of Finance*, 11(2), 213-226.
- Rajangam, N., Sundarasan, S. and Rajajopalan, U. (2014) Impact of Governance on Profitability and Gearing of Companies, *Asian Social Science*, 10(10), 13-23.
- Ryen, G.T., Vasconcellos, G.M. and Kish, R.J. (1997), "Capital structure decisions: what have we learned?", *Business Horizon*, 40(5) 41-50.
- Saeedi, A & Mahmoodi I, (2011), Capital Structure and Firm Performance: Evidence from Iranian Companies, *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, 70: 21-28.
- Salim, M., & Yadav, R. (2012). Capital Structure and Firm Performance: Evidence from Malaysian Listed Companies. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 65 (ICIBSoS), 156-166. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.11.105
- Securities and Exchange Commission of Pakistan (2012), 'The codes of corporate governance report', viewed on 19 June 2013, [www.secp.gov.pk](http://www.secp.gov.pk)
- Sheikh, N. A. and Wang, Z. (2012), "Effects of corporate governance on capital structure: empirical evidence from Pakistan", *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, 12(5), 629 - 641.

- Shleifer, A, & Vishny, R, W (1997). 'A survey of corporate governance', *The Journal of Finance*, 52(2), 737-783.
- Short, H., Keasey, K., & Duxbury, D. (2002). Capital structure, management ownership and large external shareholders: a UK analysis. *International Journal of the Economics of Business*, 9(3), 375-399.
- Svejnar, J., & Kocenda, E. (2002). The effects of ownership forms and concentration on firm performance after large-scale privatization.
- Titman, S., & Wessels, R. (1988). The determinants of capital structure choice. *The Journal of Finance*, 43(1), 1 - 19.
- Ukaegbu, B. (2014). The significance of working capital management in determining firm profitability: Evidence from developing economies in Africa. *Research in International Business and Finance*, 31, 1-16.
- Wen Y, Rwegasira, K, & Bilderbeek, J (2002) 'Corporate governance and capital structure decisions of the Chinese listed firms', *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, 10(2), 75-83.
- Yan Lam, T., & Kam Lee, S. (2008). CEO duality and firm performance: evidence from Hong Kong. *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, 8(3), 299-316.
- Zeitun, R., Tian, G. (2007). Capital structure and corporate performance: evidence from Jordan, *Australasian Accounting Business and Finance Journal*, 1: 40-53.
- Zheka, V. (2005), "Corporate governance, ownership structure and corporate efficiency: the case of Ukraine", *Managerial and Decision Economics*, 26(7), 451-60.

### Abbreviations

CG	Corporate Governance
GLS	Generalized Least Square
FGLS	Feasible Generalized Least Square
KSE	Karachi Stock Exchange
PSE	Pakistan Stock Exchange
ICAP	Institute of Chartered Accountant of Pakistan
PICG	Pakistan Institute of Corporate Governance
SECP	Security & Exchange Commission of Pakistan
SBP	State Bank of Pakistan

## A Case for A Dogme "Lite" EFL Teaching Approach in Kurdistan

<sup>1</sup>Nicholas Rion, <sup>2</sup>Karwan Kakabra Kakamad, <sup>3</sup>Abdulfatah Hasan Fatah  
Sorani University, Faculty of Arts, Psychology Department, Iraq  
zydeconick@gmail.com, Karwan.kakamad@soran.edu.iq, abdufatah.fatah@soran.edu.iq

**Abstract:** This critical review looks at the present state of ESL/EFL activities in the Kurdistan region of Iraq, with particular attention to the English speaking abilities of students enrolled in English Medium Instruction (EMI) courses in the region's 13 universities, and calls for the consideration of "Dogme" types of communicative language curricula. The critique, based in large part of a recent survey by the British Council, clearly shows that most college freshmen entering EMI classrooms are not adequately prepared to meet the challenges and rigor of studying in the English language. As a consequence, the paper offers a background about the theories and ideas of an alternative communicative language pedagogy known as Dogme. The critique reviews the ideas of Dogme founder Scott Thornbury and provides both a rationale and four-point plan about how a "Dogme Lite" type of curriculum may be introduced into the present English language curriculums used in public schools in the region.

**Keywords:** *Lite, EFL teaching approach, English medium instruction*

### 1. Introduction

**Dancing in the Dark:** In the February-March 2000 edition of the bi-monthly newsletter of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (Thornbury, 2000) the internationally recognized academic and trailblazing EFL teacher Scott Thornbury penned his now famous manifesto "A Dogme for EFL." Inspired in large part by the filmmaking movement Dogme 95 which sought to "cleanse" contemporary cinema of its obsession with technical trickery and superficiality Thornbury called for a similar movement in the EFL community. He wrote, "That it is high time Dogme-type principles were applied to the [EFL] classroom." Like the leaders of the Dogme 95 movement Danish film directors Lars von Trier and Thomas Vinterberg, Thornbury believed that in much the same way that modern filmmaking had been comprised, ESL teaching methodologies and pedagogy had also been bastardized and "hijacked" by a "materials over-load, or by Obsessive Grammar Syndrome (OSG) (Thornbury, 2000)." (Thornbury, Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005) At that time Thornbury wrote that contemporary EFL suffered from "an embarrassment of complementary riches in the form of videos, CD-ROMS, photocopiable resource packs, pull-out word lists, and even websites," not to mention a host of other supplementary materials, that needed to be cut back, if not purged in an effort to return to the fundamentals of teaching.

For the experienced and reforming Thornbury and his compatriot Neil Forrest, it was time to get back to the basics of teaching and the similarities between the Dogme 95 movement and the reforms the two envisioned for modern day EFL teaching could not be ignored. In the 2000 article, Thornbury chronicles their frustrations and the simple basic rules that the two proposed to get EFL back on track. First among these strictures (edicts) was that if the language lesson did not include real language usage then its "usefulness" should be questioned, if not interrogated. In fact, for Thornbury and Forrest real talking had to form the core of the lesson and in much the same way that the revolutionary educational thinker Paulo Freire imagined the ideal relationship between students and teachers as one sharing an equal footing and mutual respect, teachers had to talk not at their students, but with them. Thornbury wrote, "No posturing was allowed." Also central to the Dogme EFL vision was a stripping down, if not a complete rejection of photocopies and texts unless carefully prescribed, and relegating grammar presentations to a 5-minute slot at a time and place that had relevance and meaning for the students involved in the lesson. For the pair, this meant that "no recorded listening material should be introduced into class," unless that listening material was the actual recorded voices and conversations of the students engaged in pair dialogues or group conversations. And, like the stripped-down technology free filmmaking of Dogme 95 grounded in actual place and experiences relevant to the real world, another central Dogme EFL tenant was that real language learning takes place in the "here and now" and has to address the relevant concerns and issues of the people in the world. Not, issues contrived in textbooks with tales from far off lands and alien worldviews of little or no meaning to the students involved in

the process. Thornbury was specific. He wrote, "No methodological structures should interfere with, nor inhibit, the free flow of participant-driven input, output, and feedback."

In the immediate years after Thornbury published his "Manifesto" Dogme language teaching sparked both a considerable amount of interest within the EFL/ESL teaching community, as well as a considerable amount of criticism and derision. At one early point in 2005 Thornbury's then-popular online blog had over 300 regular contributors and hosted nearly 7,000 posts. According to Thornbury out of these initial conversations several generalized principles seemed to emerge which most of the budding "dogmatists" held in common. Thornbury summarized these in his 2005 article "Dogme: Dancing in the Dark" (Thornbury, Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005) as follows:

- Materials-mediated teaching is the "scenic" route to learning, but the direct route is located in the *interactivity* between teachers and learners and between the learners themselves.
- The content most likely to *engage* learners and to trigger learning processes is that which is already there, supplied by the "people in the room."
- Learning is a social and *dialogic* process, where knowledge is co-constructed rather than "transmitted" or imported from teacher/course book to learner.
- Learning can be mediated through *talk*, especially talk that is shaped and supported (i.e. *scaffolded*) by the teacher.
- Rather than being acquired, language (including grammar) *emerges*: it is an organic process that occurs given the right conditions.
- The teacher's primary function, apart from promoting the kind of classroom *dynamic* which is conducive to a dialogic and emergent pedagogy, is to optimize language learning *affordances*, by, for example, directing attention to features of the emergent language.
- Providing space for the learner's *voice* means accepting that the learner's beliefs, knowledge, experiences, concerns, and desire are valid content in the language classroom.
- Freeing the classroom for third-party, imported materials *empowers* both teachers and learners.
- Texts, when used, should have *relevance* for the learner, for both their learning and user contexts.
- Teacher and learners need to unpack the ideological baggage associated with EFL materials—to become *critical* users of such texts.

**Outside Looking in:** Now, nearly 20 years since Dogme's inception interest in the movement seems to have waxed and waned to some extent, no doubt, due in large part to the economic concerns and influence of textbook publishers and the private and public institutions aligned to their pedagogies and that ply their wares. Not to mention the many university programs that offer "professional" secondary degrees in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) that routinely omit any mention or discussion of the Dogme Phenomenon and the TESL textbooks designed for these programs that also make the same omissions. Moreover, the role and focus of testing giants like TOEFL, ILETS, and Pearson with all that that focus may entail, including their power over the general direction of "official EFLdom", cannot be overlooked for their collective role in diminishing the potential influence and change that "Unplugged/Dogme" could ultimately mean for this multi-billion dollars a year industry's bottom line. But, this is a topic for a later discussion.

Although Thornbury and another colleague Luke Meddings co-authored the book *Teaching Unplugged: Dogme in English Teaching* (Thornbury L. M., 2009) in 2009 in an effort to articulate both theory and practice and provide some insights into their revolutionary pedagogy, many of the blog sites and web-pages once devoted to the "Dogme ELT" movement have gone silent or ceased altogether. This is not to say, however, that there are still not some relatively current YouTube videos or online discussions in various forums like the *EFL Magazine* about Thornbury and Medding's "Unplugged" approach or important articles like the recent 2016 study by Abdullah Coskun "Dogme ELT: What do teachers and students think?" (Coskun, 2016) or an earlier 2015 work "A Critique on Dogme ELT" by D.R. Rahul (Rahul, 2015). If anything, the findings of these two recent studies should continue to fuel interest into the "Unplugged/Dogme" movement and consequently should be required reading for anyone interested in learning more about this important alternative to "traditional" text and grammar heavy teaching methods and the thousands of programs around the world tethered to these curriculums.

Unfortunately, one such area of the world that is generally "tethered" to various Western-centric texts and grammar heavy pedagogies is the largely autonomous Kurdistan region of Iraq where an estimated 5.5 million plus people live and where interest and investment in EFL are at an all-time high. Despite this region's long, troubled and often time's tragic history it has enjoyed a remarkable period of relative peace and prosperity when compared to its southern Iraqi neighbors even during the most recent wars with ISIS beginning in 2014 until the present writing. In particular, since 2005 the number of universities in the region has grown to 13 and according to a recent British Council survey (Borg, 2015) there were a total of 107,486 undergraduate students enrolled in a plethora of academic programs during the 2014-15 school years.

As noted in the British Council report an increasing number of these institutions have implemented and are presently expanding English-medium instruction (EMI) which is the system that uses English as the "primary medium of instruction" in classrooms where English is not the native language of the majority of students. According to the survey all 13 of Kurdistan's universities use EMI to some extent ranging from a low of 10% of the classes at Soran University to 75% of the courses at the Sulaimani Polytechnic University, with a high of 100% of the coursework at Hawler Medical University in Erbil. Moreover, for the purposes of this critique, it is important to point out that for nearly a generation all Kurdish school children receive regular weekly classroom instruction in English from their first year through grade 12. In effect, this would mean that most of today's graduating high school seniors, before entering the university, have completed 12 years of English classes and attended approximately 850 hours of EFL instruction. In addition, the study adds that the Kurdish Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHESR) further mandates that all incoming college freshmen receive an additional 2 hours of English instruction each week during their first year at the university.

With this said, one might expect that incoming Kurdish college students would be well on their way to successfully enter EMI classrooms and be able to meet the demands and challenges of studying and working in the English language. However, according to the university professors teaching these EMI classes surveyed by the British Council the vast majority of them believed that their students' levels of English (typically beginner or elementary) were inadequate for the purposes of academic study in English. This raises the fundamental question of; "Why is this the case?" And, for outside viewers like myself, with a little bit of knowledge and experience with the "tenants" of Dogme/Unplugged and the writings and videos of Scott Thornbury and others, as well as some practical experience teaching EFL in Kurdistan, to question the existing system's efficacy. Moreover, understanding the failures and challenges of current EMI practice in Kurdistan's many universities may help inform some of the changes that need to be made not only at the university level, but perhaps more importantly at the elementary and high school levels regarding English language instruction.

**Trying to Understand the Problem:** The British Council survey reports several reasons for the problems facing EMI teaching and its practitioners. Among the long laundry list of challenges for EMI in Kurdistan reported by many participants is that there is a substantial amount of resistance on the part of students to being taught in this target language. Simply put, according to one EMI teacher/respondent, "The students do not want me to speak English" (Borg, 2015, p. 22) and another teacher of Computer Technology said, "Sometimes my students asked me, why we should study our lecture in English?" This resistance in large part leads to a serious lack of student motivation which the survey chronicles in some detail. One Social Work lecturer noted, "Most students have no motivation to learn...most students in our department are there against their choices (choosing fields they wish to study) (Borg, 2015, p. 23)." Another respondent said, "Also students generally do not have the desire to learn and improve not only the language but also the knowledge." Another teacher of Media studies was much more blunt writing "The students are not willing to learn English."

Another challenge detailed in the report by a majority of the respondents was a large number of students in their classes. One lecturer noted, "The classes are very crowded, the average of a group number is between 50-60 student [s]." An Information and Library Technologies instructor observed, "Big class size: having 75 students in an English class is a disaster. How can I have all my students participate in 45-minute lecture?" The desperation over this overcrowding problem is clearly evidenced in the response of one Surveying instructor who writes, "Owing to the fact that there are so many students in one class, I cannot elucidate



everything I utter for the individuals and it feels bad knowing some students have not got the message (Borg, 2015, p. 23)." This overcrowding of classes is an international phenomenon which has many causes and unfortunately, in this age of globalizing and privatizing education has few easy solutions at the present time (Meador, 2016). However, to ignore its impact on the state of present EMI and EFL/ESL activities in Kurdistan is to invite further disaster and any consideration of educational reforms must place finding "innovative" solutions for overcrowded classrooms at the center of the discussion.

Besides the limited student proficiency in English of those enrolled in EMI classes acknowledged in the British Council report are the limitations many lecturers highlighted about their own English abilities—especially their spoken English expertise. Although a large majority of 91.7% of the native Kurdish speaking EMI instructors surveyed said they were confident in their abilities to teach in English, on another question almost the same numbers revealed that they would like to improve both their spoken and written English. Moreover, it is important to note that the respondents were split over whether or not it is their responsibility to help their students improve their lagging English abilities. While 50% agreed that they had a responsibility to help improve their students English, 29% disagreed illuminating that this is one issue where opinions are sharply divided. Interestingly, 70% "felt that academic ideas can be explained more easily in English(Borg, 2015, p. 18)." This last observation should be one tool in ESL/EFL teacher's tool belts for encouraging young budding Kurdish scholars to either learn or improve their English skills and should be a topic for further research and discussion.

Regardless of the complicated issues and myriad of ideological and economic forces driving the adoption and growth of the English language and consequently EMI activities in Kurdistan and around the world, the most significant challenge to the success of EMI, according to the report, is, "the significant gap that is seen to exist between the proficiency in English students require and their actual ability in English(Borg, 2015, p. 28)." As a consequence of this major finding the British Council report offers a number of recommendations including several which will be familiar to many readers and critics. Among these are the 'oft' heard cries for more teacher training, support for students, international exchanges, academic collaboration, and, of course, more money, research, and conferences. All of these seem sound and necessary and one would think that they could be rather easily adopted by policymakers or determined teachers and students in individual institutions or by department heads of English departments across Kurdistan. However, the much more complicated recommendations to entertain, where real institutional changes can occur at a systemic level if adopted, are how to effectuate more informed policy decisions at the State and Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHESR) level. Trying to implement these types of changes, at the so-called Macro level or the "seat of power", can be both problematic and occasionally damaging if not dangerous to one's career. This is as true in Kurdistan today, as it is in the United States or anywhere else.

## **2. Considering the Big Picture**

As with the army of critics alarmed about the current direction of the United States' and international educational systems, Kurdistan to has its fair share of concerned observers calling for major reforms and a more democratic approach to the educational needs of the Kurdish people. In a recent August 17, 2017(Mohamad, 2017) article academics Abdurrahman Wahab and Aras Ahmed Mohamad criticized the increasingly centralized decision making processes they perceive to be negatively impacting Kurdish educational institutions. They cite institutional rigidity, bureaucratization, malpractice in teaching and administration, deficit thinking in policymaking and too much political meddling in academic decision-making as huge impediments to improving the system. In their stinging analysis, they write, "The educational system in Iraqi Kurdistan has become a medium for graduating an increasing number of youth with diplomas that little value beyond the region's problematic system of public employment, which does not require clear standards of academic value, merit, or skills."

At the classroom level they report about a national curriculum devoid of critical content chained to such practices as rote memorization and "indoctrination" where there is little, if any, focus on artistic innovation and scientific ambitions--which is particularly sad when you consider that Kurdistan today is the home of so many burgeoning worlds recognized artists and has a long history of poetry, drama, and storytelling. Like many critics in the West, Muhammad and Wahab are critical of these curricula omissions and with too much



emphasis placed on final standardized examinations. As with other systems around the world like in England, Finland, and Korea, many Kurdish students futures are inexorably linked to these types of high stakes tests (Turner, 2014). In Kurdistan, as in other parts of the world, it is not uncommon to find once truly motivated students' lives destroyed over a point or two on one of these types of testing instruments.

For Mohamad and Wahab the centralized system of admissions for Kurdish universities based solely on student's final grades on the "baccalaureate degree" needs to be dumped into the ash bin of history. With all of the educational problems facing American institutions "underachieving" students in the United States still have several ways to improve their test scores, be reconsidered for university admission, enroll in Community Colleges, or seek alternative routes to achieve their life goals. Some of these types of avenues provide ample examples of educational alternatives for Kurdish policymakers. How one or many go about influencing the types of changes Mohamad and Wahab propose at the Macro or "seat of power" level in Kurdistan are topics for later critiques and analysis. But, these considerations and an understanding of these types of systemic institutional problems cannot be overlooked even when considering curriculum changes at the classroom or department level for those teachers and their students who are truly motivated to improve students English language proficiencies in their English classes or EMI classrooms. However, merely complaining about the problems or, as they say in America, "passing the buck" on to superiors or shirking any responsibility for becoming the change that teachers and students would like to see is simply not good enough. If we consider that the main finding of the British Council's survey is that the majority of students in EMI classes are not adequately prepared to study in English, coupled with the fact that these same students have had ESL/EFL types of classes for 12 years in Kurdish public schools then something, surely, is amiss. With the British Council's survey analysis in mind combined with the broader and sharper criticisms of people like Muhammad and Wahab then it becomes imperative to try and put into context what types of practical steps or actions individual instructors and their respective departments, schools, or institutions might take upon themselves in an effort to improve their overall ESL practice.

**Working Toward a Local Solution:** In some of Thornbury's early analysis for why Dogme types of non-method/methods were needed in successful EFL practice, he noted how many failing programs were literally drowning in an "embarrassment of resources" and "an over-dependence on manufactured materials." He cited how this "single-minded fixation on these materials" ran counter to the "expressed desire of teachers and learners to create more opportunities for 'real language use' in their classrooms." Moreover, these mostly grammar focused teaching systems produced stale classroom environments and that the western-centric textbooks used for instruction lacked cultural relevance for the students. (Thornbury S. , Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005). In a number of interviews with Kurdish English language teachers at both public schools and universities as well as with college and public school students studying English throughout Kurdistan, it has become abundantly clear that the Kurdish ESL/EFL system is complete with many of the shortcomings that Dogme proposes to interrogate. One Kurdish elementary school teacher interviewed for this critique Sirwan Abdulrahman Rwanduzi reported how he regularly deals with an overcrowded classroom and still manages to teach 5 different classes for 40 minutes every day. Sirwan teaches at the Danai Scientific High School in the Soran area to over 125 students in grades 10-12. In writing about his many responsibilities and curriculum targets he reports, "I should teach all the subjects related to English grammar including (tenses, prepositions, relative clause, report statement, passive, advise, certain possibility, suggest, conditionals, model verbs, cause, and effects)." Moreover, he says he has to teach literature, reading, story, paragraphs, conversation, and speaking. He reports that on top of this battery of lessons he is required to write yearly, monthly, weekly and daily teaching plans. In spite of all of these demands and responsibilities this teacher believes that he has been relatively successful in teaching the English language to many of his students, especially the highly motivated ones, and credits in large part his own proficiency in the language and his dedication to his students and EFL practice for his positive results. Sirwan also manages a FaceBook page called *English Teachers in Kurdistan* which has a following of over 8,000 regular viewers.

However, this teacher is also quick to point out that the curriculum is extremely centered on grammar and strict adherence to the textbook *Sunrise* which is used by the majority of Kurdish schools. Moreover, he says that although *Sunrise* is theoretically a Communicative Language textbook many of its lessons and exercises fall short for his Kurdish students. Like most texts, this one is also very western-centric and has more than its fair share of critics. For example, in his 2015 study (Sofi-Karim, 2015) entitled "the English Language

Teaching in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq" Mahdi Sofi-Karim offers an exhaustive in-depth analysis of the present curriculum in Iraqi Kurdistan and in particular focuses on the use of the textbook *Sunrise*. Anyone interested in learning more about this text's inadequacies specifically in relation to Kurdistan should read the entire study. However, suffice it here to say that Sofi-Karim's central conclusion was that "The English syllabus *Sunrise* is not effective and fails to meet the needs of the Kurdish English learners in KRI [Kurdish Region of Iraq] (Sofi-Karim, 2015, p. 2)."

It is also important to note that both Sofi-Karim and Sirwan Abdulrahman Rwanduzi along with dozens of other teachers and students interviewed for this critique acknowledge that many English language teachers in Kurdistan are not adequately trained and lack many of the skills to be successful. Sofi-Karim writes "The curriculum of the English teacher colleges does not provide adequate courses focusing on the English language teaching methods and there is an insufficient number of English teachers trained in real classroom settings (Sofi-Karim, 2015, p. 2)." So, as not to belittle the point, all of these short-comings about the present state of ESL/EFL in Kurdistan are well known by everyone participating in the ESL/EFL project. They are talked about quietly in halls and offices, as well as in classrooms and cafeterias. Moreover, they are acknowledged by policy makers and decision makers who continue to perpetuate the same system without serious critique or efforts at reform. In addition, the literature about the system's problems is also a legend and there is plenty of finger-pointing and blame to go around. Although the scholarly criticism is important and should be encouraged, the finger-pointing and blame game is unproductive at best and literally immobilizing at worst. Nevertheless, as a consequence, for anyone truly interested in trying to improve the system the next step becomes to ask the questions "What can I do about it?" and "How do "I" become the change "I" want to see?"

### 3. Making a Case for Dogme "Lite" in Kurdistan

When Thornbury penned his Dogme ELT article back in 2000 he ignited a conversation among ESL/EFL professionals and practitioners that was long overdue and that has led many in the field to ask new and important questions and to very critically exam their own practices and the practices of the institutions where they work. Hopefully, too, along the way the conversation and deep-analysis have helped enlightened teachers improve the English speaking skills and abilities of many students. It is in this same spirit of questioning and visioning a better system that I too have penned this critique and offer my own call for a new Dogme effort in Kurdistan today. I have called this "Dogme Lite" and in the following pages will explain my thinking and offer some recommendations for consideration. First of all, trying to initiate change and choose a new path is not easy—regardless of where you are in the world or whatever it is you are wishing to change. I know this first hand from years of experience "tilting at windmills" and has won a few but losing many more. Moreover, it is critical to know that trying to effect major positive institutional change normally happens in one of two ways. It is either imposed from the top down by an enlightened leader or it happens from the bottom up after a long slow slog by organizing and achieving small victories. The bottom-up approach can take years—to be ready for the long haul. However, in the case of trying to implement a scaled-down version of Dogme ideas into the existing Kurdish school curriculum might actually be aided by the *Iraqi Curriculum Framework* adopted by academics across Iraq, including many in Iraqi Kurdistan, in 2012.(UNESCO, 2012)For individual teachers or instructors who are interested in trying something new in their curriculum, like a Dogme "Lite" approach, they can turn to the major platforms in the *Framework* and use them to bolster their argument with superiors or colleagues.

In general terms, the *curriculum framework* espouses values and principles which could arguably be interpreted to embrace innovation and change. In fact, many of the values and principles postulated echo the very concerns that Dogme raises about existing "western" centric texts not being culturally sensitive or relevant to their targeted learners. For example, in the *Framework* it clearly states that curriculum materials should "Be relevant to students' lives and their learning and development needs" and "Reflect the culture and local content", as well as "Allow national expectations to be set in a local context (UNESCO, 2012, p. 14)." All of these sentiments are reflected in the "tenants" of Dogme and have been commented on by Thornbury and other "dogmatists". Moreover, the *Framework* states that teachers should "Create an enabling learning environment and encourage active learning, including the use of new technology in education." Furthermore, as if written by a Dogme exponent or acolyte of Paulo Freire the guidelines suggest that teachers "Engage the

learner in social dialogue and collaborative learning" not to mention "Enable learning to be personalized and enjoyable and encourage independence and self-management of learning." All Kurdish teachers, especially ESL/EFL teachers, who might be a little wary of current practice should read this document and consider its implications.

In particular, when it comes to language teaching and language curriculums the *Framework* offers, still yet, further openings for innovation and experimentation. One recent evaluation of the *Framework* and its significance to language teaching in Iraqi Kurdistan clearly shows that the document could be interpreted to support Dogme types of innovative curriculums or strategies within the existing ESL teaching program. The 2015 study authored by Hamsa Hameed Ahmed, Fariza Puteh-Behak and Harison Mohd Sidek states, "The underpinning principles of teaching and learning as recommended by the Iraqi Curriculum Framework are learner-centeredness, interactive teaching and learning, connecting theory and practice as well as new things with the learner's experience and environment(Hamsa Hameed Ahmed, 2015)." Specifically, this study substantiates that the *Sunrise* textbook series currently in use today in Kurdistan is primarily a communicative language teaching curriculum. This is important to note because it has implications for the introduction of Domestic "exercises", ideas and lessons into the existing curriculum.

In fact, the relationship between Dogme and Communicative Language Teaching cannot be understated. In his own words recalling the inception of Dogme Thornbury states that his reforming ideas, "grew out of a frustration with the way the so-called communicative approach seemed to have been betrayed and hi-jacked by globalized ELT publishing initiatives (Thornbury, 2009)." More to the point Thornbury recalled that he wanted to "de-toxify" language teaching away from its encumbrance on published materials like *Sunrise* and return it to its Communicative roots by restoring the "Big C" in the Communicative Approach. Towards real classroom and pedagogic solutions, Thornbury encouraged his trainees and others to, as he puts it, "make more out of less" and "cultivate a learning context that foregrounded what the learners bring to the classroom (Thornbury S. , Scott Thornbury, 2009, p. Item 5)." In short, one could, in my estimation, easily argue that Dogme is simply buttressing the Communicative Language Approach and reminding teachers that in pursuing their goals they can deviate from the regimentation and dreariness of the curriculum on a regular basis and not be at risk of abandoning their overall mandate to "teach the curriculum." In fact, I believe that trained practitioners can "Dogmetize" their existing curriculum whether it is *Sunrise*, *Face-to-Face* or a host of the others present in use in Kurdistan. Thus, enters Dogme "Lite".

**Taking the first steps:** In proposing a Dogme "Lite" method with the "Big C" back in the Communicative process I am neither advocating abandoning the course textbook nor hoping for a bonfire of such curricula as the visionary New Zealand educationalist Sylvia Ashton-Warner reported enjoying when she decided to dispense with all of the unnecessary 'accoutrements' cluttering up her classroom. (Thornbury, 2009, p. 12) In fact, the very first step in the process I am proposing is that all English teachers in Kurdistan need to buy a copy of Thornbury and Medding's *Teaching Unplugged* or download the Pdf that is available on the internet and immediately set about reading it. Moreover, I believe that it is necessary to begin a conversation across the country, particularly focused on teachers and students who have already expressed interest in exploring alternatives to the present system. For starters, FaceBook sites like *English Teachers in Kurdistan* maintained by Sirwan Abdulrahman Rwanuzi would be a good place to begin. These initial conversations could be followed up by local and regional meetings culminating in a first "annual" Dogme/Unplugged Conference.

Second: English teachers wishing for change can take the "revolutionary" first step and begin "Dancing in the Dark(Thornbury S. , Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005)." They can decide to try and become the change they want to see and deviate at least once, if not twice, a week from their textbook syllabus and go about creating a classroom environment and dynamic that is "conducive to interactive talk" and flexible enough to take advantage of conversations that emerge incidentally as they occur in class. And, then the teacher needs to be both a participant in such conversations and able to provide the necessary "scaffolding" to support the talk in English (Thornbury, 2009, p. 21). One big hurdle for this to occur, which Thornbury recognized in his early writings, is that teachers will have to overcome their fear and be willing to take the risk of "just being another person in the room (Thornbury S. , Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005, p. 3)." Moreover, teachers will have to be patient and like novice farmers who regularly check their seedlings avoid the temptation to overwater or do too much tilling.

Third: In following the directive to free the classroom as much as possible from third-party imported materials, teachers need to do everything they can to "Kurdify" the proscribed materials they plan to use. This might mean a little more time and preparation but exercises as simple as "Do you like dolma more than Kuba?" and then asking the students "Bochi" or "Why" and exercises exploring the student's experiences in Kurdistan with questions and lessons like "Have you been to Chavyland?" or "Have you been to the Mall in Erbil?" can make a world of difference. In a recent experimental summer long course for elementary students at the Shekhar Center in Soran, I worked with a team of young university English students to "Kurdify" as many materials as possible. We created PowerPoint slide presentations using Kurdish images, places, themes, and names as well as created materials about the student's neighborhoods and about Kurdistan in general. In addition, we wrote stories using all of the student's names with information that they had provided about themselves in previous exercises. These types "materials-light" lessons oriented to the learner's needs and interests are focused on creating the environment and setting up activities where emergent language can occur. These types of lessons/activities are chronicled in *Teaching Unplugged* (Thornbury, 2009) and the book also provides teachers with a considerable amount of the theoretical underpinnings they will need to more fully inform their work.

Fourth: Another thing that elementary and high school teachers might consider is how to involve students studying English from the universities in their area to help them with their oversized classes. If there is one thing I have learned it is that there is a huge "pool" of energetic, knowledgeable, and willing young university students studying English in Kurdistan who want to have the opportunity to teach their fellow Kurds the English language. And, unfortunately, I am not aware of any programs that could tap this amazing human resource and help address classroom overcrowding and also provide learning and teaching opportunities for university students.

#### 4. Conclusion

At the end of Thornbury's 2005 article (Thornbury S. , Dogme: Dancing in the Dark, 2005) where he proposed writing a textbook about Dogme he asked whether or not there were "Any takers" out there to help him craft a book and chronicle their Dogme experiences. With this critique, I too am asking if there are any English language teachers in Kurdistan who want to see a change and who might be willing to become the change themselves that they would like to see. Can such a process as Dogme "Lite" help improve the English language abilities of the students entering those EMI classrooms evaluated by the British Council? Can Dogme "Lite" ideas be used at universities in Kurdistan to help improve the student's communicative language skills who are studying English? If you agree with the words first written by Thornbury in 2000, "That it is high time Dogme-type principles were applied to the [EFL] classroom" then it is time to get to work. Any takers?

#### References

- Borg, S. (2015). English Medium Instruction in Iraqi Kurdistan. London: British Council.
- Coskun, A. (2016). Dogme ELT: What do teachers and students think? ResearchGate.
- Hamsa Hameed Ahmed, F. P. B. (2015). Examining EFL Secondary Reading Curriculum in Iraqi Kurdistan: A Review. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 3, 377-391.
- Meador, D. (2016). Solutions for Teaching in an Overcrowded Classroom. Retrieved August 3, 2017, from ThoughtCo.: <https://www.thoughtco.com/teaching-in-an-overcrowded-classroom-3194352>
- Mohamad, A. W. (2017). Future of Kurdish Education Hangs in Uncertainty. Fair Observer.
- Rahul, D. (2015). A Critique on Dogme ELT. ResearchGate.
- Sofi-Karim, M. (2015). English Language Teaching in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq. Webster Grove: Webster University--ResearchGate.
- Thornbury, L. M. (2009). *Teaching Unplugged: Dogme in English Teaching*. Peaslake: Delta Publishing.
- Thornbury, S. (2000). A Dogma for EFL. *International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language*, 2.
- Thornbury, S. (2005). Dogme: Dancing in the Dark. *Folio*, pp. 3-5.
- Thornbury, S. (2009). Scott Thornbury. Retrieved August 16, 2017, from Delta Publishing Blog.: <http://www.deltapublishing.co.uk/author/scott-thornbury>

- Turner, C. (2014). U.S. Tests Teens A Lot, But Worldwide, Exam Stakes Are Higher. Retrieved August 7, 2017, from NPR: <http://www.npr.org/2014/04/30/308057862/u-s-tests-teens-a-lot-but-worldwide-exam-stakes-are-higher>
- UNESCO. (2012). Iraqi Curriculum Framework. Amman: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.