Determinants of Capital Structure: An Application on BIST Transportation Index*

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the determinants of capital structure decisions for the firms operating in the transportation industry in Turkey. Firms listed on Borsa Istanbul Stock Exchange Transportation Index have been analyzed using panel data analysis for the period of 2002-2013. According to the findings "Tangibility" and "Size" are significantly and positively associated with long-term financing decisions, supporting trade-off theory. Additionally, results show the significant effects of corporate governance practices, specifically board size, board independence and institutional ownership on capital structure decisions.

Keywords: Capital Structure, Corporate Governance, Transportation Industry, Turkey. *Jel Classification:* G32, G34.

Sermaye Yapısını Etkileyen Faktörler: BIST Ulaştırma Endeksinde Bir Uygulama ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, Türkiye'de faaliyet gösteren ulaştırma işletmelerinin sermaye yapısı kararlarını etkileyen faktörler incelenmektedir. Borsa İstanbul Ülaştırma Endeksinde işlem gören 11 adet ulaştırma işletmesi, 2002-2013 yıllarını kapsayacak şekilde panel veri analizi ile incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın bulgularına göre, "Varlık Yapısı" ve "İşletme Büyüklüğü" ile "Uzun Vadeli Borçlanma Oranı" arasında anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç "Dengeleme Teorisini" desteklemektedir. Ayrıca elde edilen sonuçlar, kurumsal yönetim uygulamalarının, özellikle yönetim kurulu büyüklüğü, yönetim kurulu bağımsız üye sayısı ve kurumsal sahiplik oranının sermaye yapısı kararlarında anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sermaye Yapısı, Kurumsal Yönetim, Ulaştırma Endeksi, Türkiye. JEL Sınıflandırması: G32, G34.

^{*} This study is a version of a master thesis titled as "Determinants of Capital Structure: An Application on Borsa Istanbul Transportation Index", Dokuz Eylül University Graduate School of Social Sciences.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Transportation industry provides a remarkable contribution to national GDP considering the consumption of goods and services, employment of many people, and also the tax revenue for the governments (Sinha and Labi, 2007). Growing fleet age, higher insurance and maintenance costs of the older vehicles, technological developments, high quality standards, rivals with increasing numbers, thus tough competition, and expectations on increased demand, which is projected to nearly double to 37.2 billion tons by 2035 (Kaduwela and Inbasekaran, 2012), make the future projects and investments vital in transportation industry (Brauner, 1994). Therefore, firms operating in transportation industry need to continuously expand their current fleet, which might show up at a very high cost both environmentally and financially. In this respect, financing decisions of these investments bear importance not to face unexpected results.

Cost of capital can be decreased with effective capital structure decisions, resulting in more acceptable projects, and increasing the value of the firm accordingly (Gitman and Zutter, 2012). Considering the financial environment after the 2008 financial crisis, banks substantially turned off the credit taps (Gong et al. 2013) due to the BASEL III rules and Capital Requirements Regulation and Directive (CRR-CRD IV) as banks try to restructure the current loans and new loans are much more restricted due to their overloaded balance sheets (Mayer-Brown, 2014). This situation forced the firms to seek alternative financing sources. In this respect, capital markets became more popular for the transportation firms, specifically maritime firms, to acquire external funds for their capital needs (Grammenos et al., 2007; Merikas et al., 2009; Drobetz et al. 2013). However, the capital markets seek sound corporate governance practices to mitigate the agency problems (Andreou et al., 2014). Therefore, understanding the relationship between corporate governance practices and financing decisions in the transportation industry is vital. As demonstrated by the previous studies, sub-optimal investments can be mitigated by implementing sound corporate governance practices in the cross section of industrial firms (Masulis et al., 2007; Andreou et al. 2014).

There are many empirical studies worldwide investigating determinants of capital structure decisions that present contradictory findings (Toy et al., 1974; Titman and Wessels, 1988; Baskin, 1989; Rajan and Zingales, 1995; Chittenden et al., 1996; Wald, 1999; Booth et al., 2001; Ozkan, 2001; Hall et al., 2004), also for Turkish firms (Güloğlu and Bekçioğlu, 2001; Gönenç, 2003; Akyüz et al., 2004; Balsari and Kırkulak, 2008). Additionally, many empirical studies have attempted to analyze the impact of corporate governance practices on capital structure decisions (Friend and Lang, 1988; Berger et al., 1997; Mehran, 1992). However, capital structure of the transportation firms, substantially shipping and aviation, have rarely been investigated so far (Gritta, 1979; Capobianco and Fernandes, 2004; Arvanitis et al., 2012; Drobetz et al., 2013). In recent years, the relationship between corporate governance practices and performance of the shipping and aviation firms has also been investigated (Backx et al., 2002; Randoy et al., 2003; Syriopoulos and Tsatsaronis, 2011-2012; Tsionas et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2012; Andreou et al., 2014). However, as far as detected, no research to date has examined how the determinants of capital structure, including corporate governance practices, affect the financing decisions of the firms operating in transportation industry in Turkey. Thus this study aims to examine the determinants of capital structure decisions for the firms operating in the transportation industry in Turkey.

Turkey is located at the crossroads of Asia and Europe. The country is encircled by the Black Sea, the Marmara Sea, the Aegean Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. It is an emerging economy (World Bank, 2013), serving as a junction between the continents of Asia and Europe, and amount of freight transport reaches to USD 2 trillion, which make it a hub in the region. Thus, it is one of the most vibrant economies among emerging countries (Deloitte, 2013). Therefore, this study contributes to the literature by providing evidence on capital structure decisions from an emerging country's transportation industry.

The second part of this study presents the theoretical framework of capital structure and empirical studies on determinants of capital structure decisions of the firms operating in Turkey. Data, hypothesis development and research model are presented in the research design section. Results of the analyses are depicted and summarized in the fourth section. Implications and interpretations of the results are presented in the conclusion.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CAPITAL STRUCTURE

2.1. Theories And Determinants Of Capital Structure

The tradeoff theory and the pecking order theory are the main theories of capital structure that are generally used to explain financing decisions of the firms (Drobetz et al, 2013; Chung et al., 2013). Trade off theory provides a model that optimal leverage represents a trade-off between the tax benefits of debt and the deadweight costs of bankruptcy (Kraus and Litzenberger, 1973). The benefits of using debt against higher interest rates and bankruptcy cost are evaluated by trade-off theory (Schneller, 1980; Baron, 1975; Scott, 1976; Turnbull, 1979; Nakamura and Nakamura, 1982; Bradley et al., 1984; Myers, 1984; Stulz and Johnson, 1985). On the other side, the pecking order theory derives from the information asymmetry (Myers, 1984; Myers and Majluf, 1984; Baskin, 1989) meaning that managers of the firms have information on the operations, and future prospects that is not known by investors or other parties. Thus, they cannot value current assets and newly issued securities correctly (Brealey et al., 2011). The pecking order works properly for large firms that rarely issue equity, and that have access to public bond markets that prefer internal financing until its limit. Smaller, younger, growth firms are more likely to rely on equity issues when external financing is required (Shyam-Sunder and Myers, 1999; Fama and French 2002; Lemmon and Zender, 2010).

Evidences obtained from previous empirical studies assert that there is no broad theory on all time series and cross sectional patterns of observed leverage (Graham and Leary, 2011). However, many studies detect some determinants that could help for explanation of firm leverage variations (Frank and Goyal 2009; Drobetz et al. 2013). In this study tangibility, size, profitability, liquidity, growth opportunities, non-debt tax shield, volatility (business risk) are used to evaluate how they affect the capital structure decisions of the transportation firms in Turkey. Additionally, since the seminal work of Jensen and Meckling (1976) in implementing a theory of the firm based upon conflicts of interest between related parties, which are shareholders, managers and debt holders; a great number of studies have been conducted by many researchers to analyze corporate governance practices effects on the capital structure decisions (Zwiebel, 1996; Berger et al., 1997; Harvey et al., 2004; Morellec, 2004; Wen et al., 2002; Jiraporn and Gleason, 2007; Suto, 2003; Sheikh and Wang, 2012). Therefore corporate governance practices are also considered as determinants of capital structure decisions. In summary, Figure 1 shows the determinants of capital structure taken into consideration in this study.



Figure 1: Determinants of capital structure Source: Adopted from the literature review by the authors

2.2. Empirical Studies On Determinants Of Capital Structure Decisions Of The Firms In Turkey

As indicated previously, there are many empirical studies on determinants of capital structure decisions worldwide. However, the explanatory variables used in these studies vary one another. Therefore, the study/variable matrix is generated in this context and depicted in Table 1.

Study	LEV ₁	LEV ₂	TANG	MTB	PROF	SIZE	LIQ	NDTS	VOL
Toy et al. (1974)		+			+	+			+
Ferri and Jones (1979)		+				+			+
Titman and Wessels (1988)	+	+	+		+	+		+	+
Friend and Lang (1988)	+		+		+	+			+
Rajan and Zingales (1995)	+		+	+	+	+			
Booth et al. (2001)	+	+	+	+	+	+			+
Frank and Goyal (2009)	+	+	+		+	+			
Sibilkov (2009)		+		+	+	+	+		
Arvanitis et al. (2012)		+	+		+	+	+	+	
Oztekin and Flannery (2012)		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Drobetz et al. (2013)		+	+	+	+	+			

Table 1. Study/Variable Matrix on Capital Structure Decisions

Additionally, as corporate governance practices are also considered as explanatory variables in this study, the same matrix are also adapted for the corporate governance variables as depicted in the Table 2. Abbreviations of the variables in these tables can be found in the hypotheses development section respectively.

Study	CEODUAL	CEOWN	BODSIZE	INSIDE	INDEP	FOREIGN	INTOWN	MAJOR	
Mehran (1992)		+			+			+	
Berger et al. (1997)		+	+		+				
Randoy et al. (2003)	+			+	+				
Abor (2007)	+		+		+				
Syriopoulos and									
Tsatsaronis (2011)	+			+	+				
Sheikh and Wang (2011)	+	+	+	+	+				
Andreou et al. (2014)	+	+	+		+		+		
Veen et al. (2014)			+			+			

 Table 2. Study/Variable Matrix on Corporate Governance Variables

Considering the studies conducted on examining the determinants of capital structure decisions of Turkish firms, their sampling consist of the firms either listed on Borsa Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST) or unlisted. The studies examined the capital structure decisions of the manufacturing firms (e.g. Gönenç, 2003; Doğukanlı and Acaravcı, 2004; Çağlayan, 2006; Sayılgan et al., 2006; Akkaya and Güler, 2008; Yıldız et al., 2009; Korkmaz et al., 2009), financial firms (e.g. Asarkaya and Özcan, 2007), the tourism firms (e.g. Özer and Yamak, 2000; Karadeniz et al., 2009), and some examined the firms without sectoral distinction (e.g. Akyüz et al., 2006; Kirkulak and Balsarı, 2007). Additionally, Turkish firms have been analyzed in some cross-country studies (Booth et al., 2001; Fan et al., 2012).

Because this study analyzes the transportation and logistics industries, which can also be referred as one of the service sectors, the results of the studies on tourism firms are considerably important due to benchmarking. In this context, Özer and Yamak (2000) conducted a survey to the 101 lodging firms, and their findings support pecking order theory for the firms evaluated as they use their retained earnings in the first place for their investments or current business activities. On the other side, Karadeniz et al. (2009) also investigated lodging firms for the period of 1994-2006 using panel data analysis, and they could not find any significant support to trade-off or pecking order theories.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Data

Companies listed on Borsa Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST) Transportation Index have been used as a sampling for this study. To analyze the determinants of capital structure of the companies in BIST Transportation Index, a panel data analysis is applied for the period of 2002-2013. Financial data of the sampling firms have been gathered via using financial matrix of Finnet 2000 online database, which consists of broad data and news on the each firm listed on BIST and also the data regarding corporate governance practices have been hand-collected by using the publicly available annual reports of each firm. To reach the sufficient data, firstly the start point for collecting data was chosen from the end of the 1989. However, it is seen

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that considering the start point either 1989 or 2002 does not affect the findings, since 45 of 144 observations belong to this period for 4 of 11 firms, and also corporate governance variables are publicly available since 2002. Therefore, the time span during the analyzing process covers the period of 2002-2013 instead of 1989-2013.

3.2. Hypotheses development

3.2.1. Tangibility

From the perspective of pecking order theory; firms with lower tangible assets show higher informational asymmetries, thus tend to use debt instead of equity as indicated by Harris and Raviv (1991), leading to a negative relationship between tangible assets and leverage. However, from the trade-off theory perspective; since tangible assets are considered as collateral, firms can easily obtain debt, because tangible assets provide financial security to the creditors against bankruptcy, leading to a positive relationship between tangible assets and leverage as indicated by Chen (2004), Frank and Goyal (2009), Long and Malitz (1985), Rajan and Zingales (1995), Drobetz and Fix (2003), Michaelas (1999). Following Titman and Wessels (1988), Friend and Lang (1988), Rajan and Zingales (1995); tangibility (TANG) is measured as the ratio of fixed to total assets, and the hypothesis below is developed:

 H_1 = There is a positive relationship between tangibility and leverage

3.2.2 Size

From the trade-off perspective, larger firms have lower probability of default as a result of higher diversification as indicated by Heshmati (2001), and additionally as indicated by Chittenden et al. (1996), larger firms use more leverage due to the smaller costs of monitoring the firm and the reduced moral hazard and adverse selection, that is leading to the positive relationship between size and leverage. On the other side, as argued by Rajan and Zingales (1995), the larger the firm, the more level of transparency, and thus information asymmetry is lower between insiders and outsiders, therefore the probability of undervaluation of issuing new equity decreases. As also pointed out by Booth et al. (2001), size is associated with survival and the agency costs of both debt and equity. As a consequence, larger firms have easier access to equity markets due to low fixed costs, and thus are eager to use equity financing for the capital raising. From this perspective; there is negative relationship between size and leverage.

Following Berger et al. (1997), Wald (1999); size (SIZE) is measured as natural logarithm of total assets. There are contradicting empirical results regarding the effect of size on capital structure decisions, and neither of them presents results on the transportation firms. Therefore following hypothesis is developed:

 H_2 = Firm size significantly affects capital structure decisions

3.2.3. Profitability

Firms prefer raising capital first from retained earnings, and then debt and equity as a last resort (Myers, 1984) due to the asymmetric information (Myers and Majluf, 1984) that is

the consequence of pecking order theory leading to the negative relationship between profitability and leverage. However, from the trade-off perspective, more profitable firms are eager to increase their debt capacity to take advantage of the tax shield. Thus firms lower their costs of financial distress as long as they are profitable (Frank and Goyal, 2009), leading to a positive relationship. In this study, following Andreou et al. (2014), Tsionas et al. (2012), Syriopoulos and Tsatsaronis (2011-2012), two separate variables are used to measure profitability as return on assets (ROA), and return on equity (ROE). As a result the hypothesis below is developed:

 H_3 = Firm profitability significantly affects capital structure decisions

3.2.4. Liquidity

The effect of liquidity on the firm's capital structure decision is contradicting as well. From one side, as the firm's liquidity gets higher; the firm is willing to increase leverage level to meet its short-term debt meaning that there is a positive relationship between liquidity and leverage. On the other side, as indicated by Amihud and Mendelson (1986), if the firm holds liquid assets, these assets are used for funding investment projects or other capital needs of the firm meaning that there is a negative relationship between liquidity and leverage. Following Ozkan (2001), Sibilkov (2009), Oztekin and Flannery (2012), liquidity (LIQ) is measured as the ratio of current assets to current liabilities in this study and the hypothesis below is developed:

 H_4 = Firm liquidity significantly affects capital structure decisions

3.2.5. Growth Opportunities

From the trade-off approach, firms with growing potential might face higher costs of financial distress since growth opportunities may reveal moral hazard issues that encourage the firms to take additional risks (Baskin, 1989) leading an inverse relationship between growth opportunities and leverage (Long and Malitz, 1985; Toy et al., 1974). The pecking order theory implies that the firm growth may cause depletion of the internal funding sources, and thus the lack of funding pushes the firms into finding external capital sources (Michaelas et al., 1999). To sum up, the effect of growth opportunities on capital structure decisions is contradicting as well. Following Ozkan (2001), Booth et al. (2001) and Frank and Goyal (2009), growth opportunities (MTB) is measured as the market-to-book ratio and hypothesis is developed as follows:

 H_5 = Firm growth opportunities significantly affect capital structure decisions

3.2.6. Non-debt Tax Shield

The optimal capital structure model of DeAngelo and Masulis (1980) involves not only corporate taxes and personal taxes, but also non-debt related corporate tax shield such as depreciation expenses, depletion allowances, investment tax credits etc. that serve as a substitute for interest expenses that are deductible in calculation of the corporate tax and thus which lower firm's capacity of debt tax benefit. Therefore, it is expected that firms with highlevel non-debt tax shields reduce their leverage, and as a result it can be claimed that there is a negative relationship between non-debt tax shield and leverage as also proved by Bowen et al. (1982), and Kim and Sorensen (1986). On the other side, if securability is concerned, a direct relationship is expected as indicated by Bradley et al. (1984), and Wald (1999). Following Titman and Wessels (1988) and Oztekin and Flannery (2012), Non-debt tax shield (NDTS) is measured as ratio of annual depreciation expense to total assets, and hypothesis below is developed.

 H_6 = There is a negative relationship between Non-Debt Tax Shield and Leverage

3.2.7. Volatility (Business Risk)

Volatility or business risk is a proxy for the probability of financial distress (Huang and Song, 2006), and the market determines the interest rates and debt amount to be provided to the firm in terms of the firm's earning volatility (Ferri and Jones, 1979). Thus, it was indicated in several empirical studies such as Thies and Klock (1992), and Harris and Raviv (1991), Booth et al. (2001) that a firm's optimal debt level is inversely related to the volatility of earnings. However, Hsia (1981) showed that the systematic risk of equity decreases when the variance of the value of the firm's asset increases. Therefore, the positive relationship between these two variables is expected. Following Booth et al. (2001), Huang and Song (2006) volatility (VOL) is measured as standard deviation of ROA, and the hypothesis below is developed.

 H_7 = Volatility (Business Risk) significantly affects firm's capital structure decisions

3.2.8 Corporate Governance

Since the seminal work of Jensen and Meckling (1976) in implementing a theory of the firm based upon conflicts of interest between related parties, a great number of studies have been conducted by many researchers to explain these conflicts and to decrease agency costs. Corporate policy choices are suffered by the presence of agency conflicts between insiders, (managers and controlling shareholders) and outsiders (minority shareholders). Since managerial flexibility is limited by debt as indicated by Jensen (1986); self-interested managers do not make capital structure decisions, which maximize shareholder wealth. Therefore, leverage ratio of the firm is also affected by agency conflicts (Chang et al., 2014). In this study, corporate governance variables are measured in terms of the studies depicted on Table 3.

Variable	Calculation	Studies used same proxy		
CEO Duality (CEODIIAL)	A dummy variable, 1 if CEO is the	Randov et al. (2003, Andreou et al. (2014)		
CEO Duanty (CEODORE)	Chairman, 0 otherwise	Kandoy et al. (2003, Andreou et al. (2014)		
CEO Ownershin (CEOWN)	Ratio of shares held by CEO to total	Mehran (1992) Berger et al. (1997)		
elo ownersnip (elo witt)	outstanding shares	Mellian (1992), Berger et al. (1997)		
Board Size (BODSIZE)	Log(number of directors)	Berger et al. (1997), Wen et al. (2002)		
Inciden Ournarshin (INSIDE)	Percentage of ownership of all shares that	Randoy et al. (2003), Syriopoulos and Tsatsaronis		
nisider Ownersnip (INSIDE)	are controlled directly or indirectly by	(2011),		

 Table 3. Corporate Governance Variables

	members of the board			
Board Composition (INDEP)	Ratio of Independent Members to total	M L (1000) D (1 (1007)		
	BOD	Menran (1992), Berger et al. (1997),		
Foreign Members in BOD				
(FOREIGN)	Ratio of Foreign members to total BOD	meisen and meisen (2010), veen et al. (2014)		
Institutional Ownership	Ratio of shares held by institutional	$\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{r}} + $		
(INTOWN)	investors	Huang and Song (2006), Andreou et al. (2014)		
Major Ownership (MAJOR)	Percentage of the highest shareholder	Mahaan (1002). Taionas et al. (2012)		
	(either individual or institution)	Meman (1992), 1sionas et al. (2012)		

To sum up, following hypothesis is developed.

H_g= Corporate governance practices significantly affect firms' capital structure decisions

3.3. Research Model Development

In light of the literature review, the determinants of capital structure are divided into 3 categories in the research model. The first category includes the conventional variables, namely; TANG, ROA, ROE, SIZE, LIQ, MTB, NDTS and RISK. The second category is made up of macroeconomic variables that are GDP and INF, and the last category is the corporate governance variables namely: CEODUAL, CEOWN, BODSIZE, INSIDE, INDEP, FOREIGN, INTOWN and MAJOR. Then, the determinants in the first and second categories are applied together within 6 sub-models. Fixed effects model and random effects model are applied to each sub-model of the analysis due to the Hausman test results. To analyze the relationships between the variables used in this study, firstly correlation matrix depicted on the Table 4 is produced. This table demonstrates the pair wise correlation coefficients of all variables. According to Table 4, TANG and SIZE are positively and significantly correlated with LEV₁, whereas ROA, LIQ and RISK are negatively and significantly correlated with leverage. Considering total leverage, LEV₂ is found significantly and negatively associated with LIQ and ROA. It is also found that among the independent variables, there are some significant correlations as well, for instance ROA-RISK, ROA-ROE, and ROE-RISK. Additionally, it is found that ROA and RISK acts as if they are the same variables. These correlations between the independent variables may affect the models directly, and so does the consistency of the models. Therefore, during the model generation process, this factor is considered.

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	LEV1	LEV ₂	TANG	ROA	ROE	SIZE	LIQ	NDTS	RISK	MTB
LEV1	1.0000									
LEV ₂	0.2180* 0.0120	1.0000								
TANG	0.7566* 0.0000	0.1477 0.0911	1.0000							
ROA	-0.3694* 0.0000	-0.2744* 0.0015	-0.4706* 0.0000	1.0000						
ROE	-0.1657 0.0576	-0.1266 0.1480	-0.2192* 0.0116	0.5668* 0.0000	1.0000					
SIZE	0.5181* 0.0000	0.0573 0.5138	0.4547* 0.0000	-0.3889* 0.0000	-0.0956 0.2756	1.0000				
LIQ	-0.2312* 0.0076	-0.2327* 0.0072	-0.2983* 0.0003	0.0082 0.9224	0.0114 0.8971	-0.0161 0.8480	1.0000			
NDTS	0.0595 0.5332	0.0457 0.6324	0.2982* 0.0008	-0.0448 0.6214	-0.0660 0.4891	-0.0089 0.9220	-0.2165* 0.0158	1.0000		
RISK	-0.3694* 0.0000	-0.2744* 0.0015	-0.4706* 0.0000	1.0000* 0.0000	0.5668* 0.0000	-0.3889* 0.0000	0.0082 0.9224	-0.0448 0.6214	1.0000	
MTB	-0.0690 0.4846	0.0432 0.6617	0.0076 0.9371	0.0243 0.7999	-0.0603 0.5411	-0.1100 0.2506	-0.0937 0.3277	0.3742* 0.0001	0.0243 0.7999	1.0000

 Table 4. Correlation Matrix

Model development is conducted in terms of the previous studies. Leverage as a dependent variable is considered as long-term leverage (Titman and Wessels, 1988; Mehran, 1992; Chittenden et al., 1996; Michaelas, 1999; Wald, 1999; Booth et al., 2001; Hall et al., 2004), and total leverage (Drobetz et al., 2013; Toy et al., 1974; Ferri and Jones, 1979; Friend and Lang, 1988; Baskin, 1989; Berger et al., 1997; Ozkan, 2001). Likewise, definitions and calculations of the independent variables are identified in the next section respectively in terms of previous studies. Thus, two models are generated for both long-term and total leverage as depicted below.

$$\begin{split} (\text{LEV}_1)_{it} &= \alpha + \beta_1 (\text{TANG})_{it} + \beta_2 (\text{ROA})_{it} + \beta_3 (\text{ROE})_{it} + \beta_4 (\text{SIZE})_{it} + \beta_5 (\text{LIQ})_{it} + \beta_6 (\text{NDTS})_{it} \\ &+ \beta_7 (\text{RISK})_{it} + \beta_8 (\text{MTB})_{it} + \beta_9 (\text{CEODUAL})_{it} + \beta_{10} (\text{CEOWN})_{it} + \beta_{11} (\text{BODSIZE})_{it} \\ &+ \beta_{12} (\text{INSIDE})_{it} + \beta_{13} (\text{INDEP})_{it} + \beta_{14} (\text{FOREIGN})_{it} + \beta_{15} (\text{INTOWN})_{it} \\ &+ \beta_{16} (\text{MAJOR})_{it} + \beta_{17} (\text{GDP})_{it} + \beta_{18} (\text{INF})_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (LEV_2)_{it} &= \alpha + \beta_1 (TANG)_{it} + \beta_2 (ROA)_{it} + \beta_3 (ROE)_{it} + \beta_4 (SIZE)_{it} + \beta_5 (LIQ)_{it} + \beta_6 (NDTS)_{it} \\ &+ \beta_7 (RISK)_{it} + \beta_8 (MTB)_{it} + \beta_9 (CEODUAL)_{it} + \beta_{10} (CEOWN)_{it} + \beta_{11} (BODSIZE)_{it} \\ &+ \beta_{12} (INSIDE)_{it} + \beta_{13} (INDEP)_{it} + \beta_{14} (FOREIGN)_{it} + \beta_{15} (INTOWN)_{it} \\ &+ \beta_{16} (MAJOR)_{it} + \beta_{17} (GDP)_{it} + \beta_{18} (INF)_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned}$$

4. **RESULTS**

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 5 shows the summary of the statistics of both dependent and independent variables. The mean dependent variable of the model LEV_1 that is the ratio of long-term liabilities to total assets is 24%. LEV_2 is also taken into consideration to highlight the ratio of total debt on total assets, and it is seen that the sum of short-term and long-term liabilities constitute approximately 64% of total assets. This shows that transportation firms use substantially short-term debt for their capital needs instead of long-term debt. This situation makes liquidity more significant for these firms.

		-	
Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.
LEV1	132	0.23981	0.18439
LEV ₂	132	0.63579	0.48458
TANG	144	0.49324	0.26414
ROA	144	0.12577	0.23658
ROE	132	0.11390	1.21959
SIZE	144	18.39562	2.71487
LIQ	144	3.86131	15.19666
NDTS	124	0.32942	0.25479
RISK	144	-1.02e-09	1
MTB	111	3.03820	4.34657
CEODUAL	70	0.22857	0.42294
CEOWN	70	0.02781	0.06884
BODSIZE	70	6.75714	2.48144
INSIDE	70	0.10984	0.17602
INDEP	70	0.06888	0.12951
FOREIGN	70	0.10839	0.20394
INTOWN	73	0.47849	0.26282
MAJOR	75	0.47670	0.20065

 Table 5. Descriptive Statistics

4.2. Results of Panel Data Regressions

The results of the analysis as indicated in Table 6 demonstrate that tangibility and size are significantly and positively associated with the long-term leverage supporting trade off theory. Large firms with tangible assets encounter less costs of financial distress and may borrow more according to tradeoff approach, on the other side; the pecking order approach defends the importance of profitability, arguing that profitable firms use less debt as they are financed internally. (Brealey et al., 2011) and this finding is consistent with Chittenden et al. (1996), Michaelas (1999), Wald (1999), Booth et al (2001), Hall et al. (2004), Huang and Song (2006), Frank and Goyal (2009), Kayo and Kimura (2011), Sheikh and Wang (2012). However, according to the results, no significant relationship is found between profitability and long-term leverage. Inconsistently, Drobetz et al. (2013), and Arvanitis et al. (2012) found that profitability is negatively and significantly correlated with leverage for the shipping firms. The finding of this study is also contradicting with Ozkan (2001), Kester (1986), Friend and Lang (1988), Shyam-Sunder and Myers (1999), and also Baskin (1989) with inverse relationship, and Bowen et al. (1982), Dammon and Senbet (1988) and Givoly et al. (1992)'s positive relationship between profitability and leverage.

From corporate governance perspective, as depicted in Tabled 7, solely Board Size has a weak positive significance on leverage consistent with Lu et al. (2012), Abor (2007) and Sheikh and Wang (2012).

Variables	Dependent Variable: LEV ₁						
variables	rreu.	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
TANC		0.5133359	0.5430905	0.5133359	0.522311	0.522311	0.5414166
TANG	+	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****
DOA		0.0439006				-0.0494708	
KUA	-	(0.410)				(0.451)	
DOF			0.0163259				0.0093703
RUE	-		(0.198)				(0.486)
SIZE.	. /	0.0241633	0.0200522	0.0241633	0.0343172	0.0343172	0.030431
SIZE	+/-	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.001)***
110	. /	-0.0002805	-0.0002678	-0.0002805	-0.0004308	-0.0004308	-0.0002133
LIQ	+/-	(0.646)	(0.638)	(0.646)	(0.482)	(0.482)	(0.714)
NIDTC		-0.0500499	-0.0407895	-0.0500499	-0.0802224	-0.0802224	-0.0599212
ND15	-	(0.292)	(0.406)	(0.292)	(0.123)	(0.123)	(0.237)
DIGIZ	. /			0.0103861	-0.0117039		
KISK	+/-			(0.410)	(0.451)		
	. /	0.0003935	-4.98e-06	0.0003935	-0.0010663	-0.0010663	-0.0003622
MIB	+/-	(0.868)	(0,998)	(0.868)	(0.658)	(0.658)	(0.879)
CDD	,				0.236125	0.236125	0.2049044
GDP	+/-				(0.240)	(0.240)	(0.309)
DT	,				0.1262707	0.1262707	0.0859383
INF	+/-				(0,063)*	(0,063)*	(0.167)
<i>a</i>		-0.470738	-0.4099603	-0.4652168	-0.6970871	-0.6908653	-0.6316305
_Cons		(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.001)***
Obs.		99	99	99	99	99	99
ℝ ² (within)		0.5224	0.5374	0.5224	0.5518	0.5518	0.5514
Random or Fixed		Random	Fixed	Random	Fixed	Fixed	Fixed
VIF		1.42	1.36	1.42	1.79	1.79	1.76
* Statistical significar	nce at 10% 1	evel (p<0.1) ** S	tatistical significa	nce at 5% level (p	o<0.05) *** Statis	tical significance a	at 1% level
(p<0.01) **** Statisti	ical significa	ance at 0.1% level	l (p<0.001)				

Table 6. Results Of The Panel Data Analysis

Variables Prod								
v al lables	rieu.	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5		
TANC	i	0.3529852	0.3472327	0.2872296	0.3475423	0.3609192		
IANG	+	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.001)***	(0.000)****	(0.000)****		
BOA				-0.1794241	-0.1884464	-0.1845176		
KUA	-			(0.118)	(0.107)	(0.105)		
POF	_	-0.0283773	-0.0161133					
KOE	-	(0.644)	(0.802)					
SIZE	./	0.0801798	0.0920458	0.0849478	0.053832	0.0548204		
SILL	+/-	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.001)***	(0.000)****		
INTOWN	. /	0.0428313	0.1043923	0.0890465				
INTOWN	+/-	(0.669)	(0.430)	(0493)				
MATOR	. /	0.1809799	0.1852969	0.1940572				
MAJOK	+/-	(0.131)	(0.209)	(0.162)				
CEODUAL	. /		-0.0193686	-0.0226239				
CEODUAL	+/-		(0.640)	(0.576)				
CEOUN	. /		0.3842748	0.3625297		-0.3549522		
CEUWN	+/-		(0.543)	(0.564)		(0.349)		
BODEIZE	. /				0.0922398	0.0993039		
BODSIZE	+/-				(0.055)*	(0.025)**		
INIDED	. /				0.0315928			
INDEP	+/-				(0.782)			
FOREIGN	. /				0.0445607			
FUREIGN	+/-				(0.657)			
INCIDE	. /					0.0392945		
INSIDE	+/-					(0.757)		
		-1.608406	-1.890234	-1.701119	-1.152167	-1.177649		
_cons		(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****		
Obs.		68	65	65	65	65		
ℝ ² (within)		0.5830	0.6082	0.6157	0.5457	0.5364		
Random or Fixed		Random	Random	Random	Random	Random		
VIF		1.87	2.29	2.26	1.76	1.71		
* Statistical significar	nce at 10% 1	evel (p<0.1) ** S	tatistical significa	nce at 5% level (p	o<0.05) *** Statis	tical significance		
at 1% level (p<0.01) **** Statistical significance at 0.1% level (p<0.001)								

Table 7. Results Of The Panel Data An	alysis (Continued)
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The findings above hold when the dependent variable is taken as long-term leverage. However, as indicated in the Table 8, Tangibility is no longer consistent with total leverage, which also includes short-term debt. This shows that tangible assets are funded by using longterm debt. Furthermore, considering total leverage instead of long-term leverage as dependent variable, significant relationships are found between; ROA, SIZE, LIQ as firm level, GDP and INF as country-level, and CEOWN, INDEP and INTOWN as corporate governance variables and total leverage.

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Variables	Drad	Dependent Variable: LEV ₂					
v ar lables	rieu.	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
TANC	I	-0.3495002	-0.0399551	0.1376774	0.2717504	0.2544014	0.2095881
TANG	т	(0.260)	(0.798)	(0.418)	(0.086)*	(0.115)	(0.112)
ROA	_	-0.8033583	-0.299802	-0.1226929			-0.3367338
KOA	-	(0.003)***	(0.337)	(0.694)			(0.064)*
ROF	_				0.179931	0.1514067	
KOL					(0.207)	(0.305)	
SIZE	±/-	0.0615119	0.1633223	0.2039758	0.1944619	0.2094073	0.0589838
SIZE	17	(0.089)*	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.006)***
110	±/-	-0.0083903	-0.0019414	-0.0017479	-0.0018174	-0.0017048	-0.0024904
LiQ	17-	(0.005)***	(0.054)*	(0.076)*	(0.061)*	(0.102)	(0.009)***
CDP	+/-	1.73097	-0.197078	-0.2171775	-0.0162022	-0.1002591	
GDI	17-	(0.051)*	(0.592)	(0.561)	(0.965)	(0.790)	
INF	1/	0.4971186	0.1140443	0.1202047	-0.2210789	-0.1559577	
	+/-	(0.067)*	(0.592)	(0.711)	(0.463)	(0.610)	
INTOWN	. /		0.5455633	0.5729257	0.5996856	0.5925702	
	+/-		(0.001)***	(0.001)***	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	
CEODIAL	. /		-0.017099	-0.0034499	0.0011028		
CEODUAL	+/-		(0.802)	(0.959)	(0.987)		
CEOWN	. /		3.525641	3.682863	4.073113		
CEOWN	+/-		(0.149)	(0.128)	(0.086)*		
BODSIZE	. /			0.0529055	0.0811447	0.0379583	0.0767326
BODSIZE	+/-			(0.554)	(0.361)	(0.703)	(0.269)
INDED	. /			-0.4325979	-0.4773758	-0.5053459	
INDEP	+/-			(0.040)**	(0.021)**	(0.018)**	
FODEICN	. /					0.0271929	
FOREIGN	+/-					(0.901)	
2010		-0.4240084	-3.057917	-4.085014	-4.056979	-4.144597	-0.8400039
_cons		(0.567)	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.000)****	(0.034)**
Obs.		132	65	65	65	65	65
ℝ ² (within)		0.1352	0.5228	0.5742	0.5881	0.5583	0.3311
Random or Fixed		Fixed	Fixed	Fixed	Fixed	Fixed	Random
VIF		1.68	2.17	2.46	2.59	2.12	1.41
* Statistical significant	nce at 10% 1	level (p<0.1) ** S	tatistical significa	nce at 5% level (j	p<0.05) *** Statis	stical significance	at 1% level
(p<0.01) **** Statist	ical signific	ance at 0.1% leve	l (p<0.001)				

Table 8. Results Of	The Panel Data Anal	ysis (Continued)
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Hypotheses tests and results are depicted as follows.

Relationship	Hypothesis	Finding	Comment
Tangihility Lavarage	4	+	Confirmed for long-term leverage.
Tangionity – Leverage	т	Т	But, not significant with total leverage.
Size – Leverage	+/-	+	Confirmed for both.
Profitability Lavarage	. /	9	Rejected for long-term leverage. But,
Flomability – Leverage	+/ -	1	confirmed for total leverage.
Liquidity	···· 2	9	Rejected for long-term leverage. But,
Liquidity	+/ -	1	confirmed for total leverage.
Growth opportunities	+/-	?	Rejected for both
Non-debt tax shield	-	?	Rejected for both
Volatility	+/-	?	Rejected for both
		Board Size (+)	
Corporate Governance	+/-	Board Composition (-)	Confirmed for both
		Institutional Ownership (+)	

 Table 9. Hypotheses Tests And Results

5. CONCLUSION

Transportation industry is one of the vital components of global economy. Since the new regulations and quality standards, tough competition among the rivals, increasing insurance and maintenance costs with older vehicles, technological developments and also increasing demand; firms in this capital-intensive industry need to continuously conduct new investments where financing may generate difficulties.

For the transportation industry, especially ship owners and airlines are highly capital intensive compared to the other industries; thus size might be considered one of the main determinants of the financing decisions of this industry.

The results of this study show that profitability is not a significant determinant of capital structure decision, however tangibility and size variables are. This may suggest that, as a bank based emerging economy, in Turkey, bigger firms with more collateral have more creditability.

Results differ if total leverage is considered as dependent variable instead of long-term leverage. It is seen that when total leverage is dependent, the significance of tangibility is no longer consistent. Furthermore, negative relationship between total leverage and liquidity and profitability occurs. This can be interpreted as that the tangible assets are funded by using long-term debt, instead of short-term debt in the transportation firms in Turkey. However, considering the higher proportion of short-term debt, these firms initially use short-term debt instead of long-term debt for their other capital needs. Thus, to meet the obligations, these firms need to be more profitable, and liquid accordingly. Furthermore, corporate governance

variables are found significant in both models. However, if the total leverage is concerned, the level of significance of these variables increases.

The main limitation of this study is the sample size. As the financial reports of the firms in this industry are generally not publicly available, it is hard to hand-collect the financial data for unlisted firms. Thus studies with the wider range of data may generate different results.

For the future research, more evidence is needed to understand the determinants of capital structure for transportation industry with larger samples in Turkey. The effects of financial crises might be examined as well. Additionally, subsectors of the industry can be analyzed separately.

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