

## IN THIS ISSUE

Macroeconomic Determinants  
of Stock Market

Stock Market Performances  
in Sri Lanka

Sustainability Practices of  
Hotel Industry

Disadvantages and Stimulants  
of Mobility



Great Britain  
Journals Press



IMAGE: 63 BUILDING, SEOUL  
REPRESENTING SOUTH KOREA'S  
ECONOMIC BOOM

[www.journalspress.com](http://www.journalspress.com)

# LONDON JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0





London Journal of Research in Management and Business

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0

## PUBLISHER

Great Britain Journals Press  
1210th, Waterside Dr, Opposite Arlington Building, Theale, Reading  
Phone: +444 0118 965 4033 Pin: RG7-4TY United Kingdom

## SUBSCRIPTION

*Frequency:* Quarterly

Print subscription

\$280USD for 1 year

\$500USD for 2 year

(color copies including taxes and international shipping with TSA approved)

Find more details at <https://journalspress.com/journals/subscription>

## ENVIRONMENT

Great Britain Journals Press is intended about Protecting the environment. This journal is printed using led free environmental friendly ink and acid-free papers that are 100% recyclable.

Copyright ©2023 by Great Britain Journals Press

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, distributed, or transmitted in any form or by any means, including photocopying, recording, or other electronic or mechanical methods, without the prior written permission of the publisher, except in the case of brief quotations embodied in critical reviews and certain other noncommercial uses permitted by copyright law. For permission requests, write to the publisher, addressed “Attention: Permissions Coordinator,” at the address below. Great Britain Journals Press holds all the content copyright of this issue. Great Britain Journals Press does not hold any responsibility for any thought or content published in this journal; they belong to author's research solely. Visit <https://journalspress.com/journals/privacy-policy> to know more about our policies.

## Great Britain Journals Press Headquaters

1210th, Waterside Dr,  
Opposite Arlington  
Building, Theale, Reading  
Phone: +444 0118 965 4033  
Pin: RG7-4TY  
United Kingdom

Reselling this copy is prohibited.

Available for purchase at [www.journalspress.com](http://www.journalspress.com) for \$50USD / £40GBP (tax and shipping included)

## Featured Blog Posts

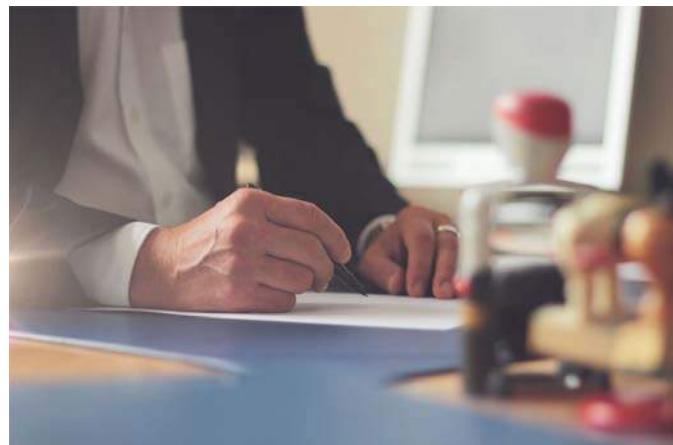
blog.journalspress.com



They were leaders in building the early foundation of modern programming and unveiled the structure of DNA Their work inspired environmental movements and led to the discovery of new genes They've gone to space and back taught us about the natural world dug up the earth and discovered the origins of our species They broke the sound barrier and gender barriers along the way The world of research wouldn't be the same without the pioneering efforts of famous research works made by these women Be inspired by these explorers and early adopters- the women in research who helped to shape our society We invite you to sit with their stories and enter new areas of understanding This list is by no means a complete record of women to whom we are indebted for their research work but here are of history's greatest research contributions made by...

Read complete here:  
<https://goo.gl/1vQ3lS>

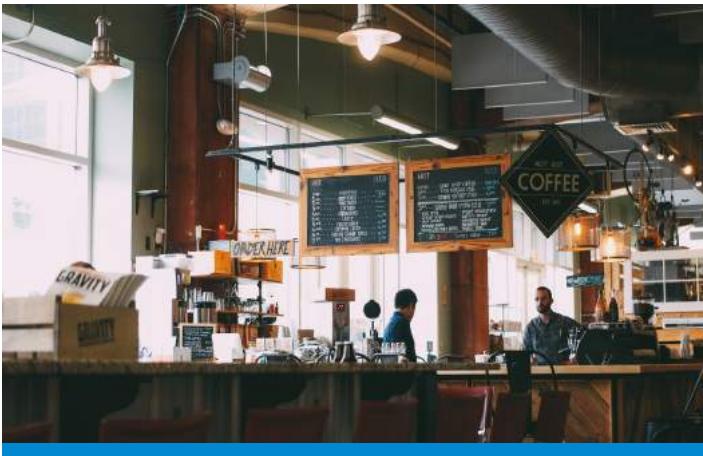
### Women In Research



Writing great research...

Prepare yourself before you start Before you start writing your paper or you start reading other...

Read complete here:  
<https://goo.gl/qKfHht>



It is no Secret that money has been hard to come by these past few years but now that the economy...

Read complete here:  
<https://goo.gl/h4x245>

# Journal Content

## In this Issue



- 
- i.** Journal introduction and copyrights
  - ii.** Featured blogs and online content
  - iii.** Journal content
  - iv.** Editorial Board Members
- 

- 1. Macroeconomic Determinants of Stock Market Performances in Sri Lanka. **1-15**
  - 2. Study of the Qualities of the Indicators to be Included in the Sustainability Information. **17-42**
  - 3. Corporate Sustainability Practices of Hotel Industry: A Systematic Literature Review. **43-53**
  - 4. Disadvantages and Stimulants of Mobility in a Shared bicycle System in Guayaquil, Ecuador. **55-64**
- 

- V.** Great Britain Journals Press Membership



Scan to know paper details and  
author's profile

# Macroeconomic Determinants of Stock Market Performances in Sri Lanka

*EMRT Edirisingha, YPRD Yapa, SGJ Senarathne, PPAW Athukorala & WMA Wickramasinghe*

*University of Peradeniya*

## ABSTRACT

This study measures the impact of the macroeconomic variables on the All-Share Price Index (ASPI) of the Colombo stock exchange in Sri Lanka. Monthly data collected from the CSE data library and the Central Bank of Sri Lanka publications from 2008 to 2020 were employed.

The dependent variable is the All-Share Price Index (ASPI), and the independent macroeconomic variables are gross domestic production (GDP), interest rate, exchange rate, inflation rate, money supply, and reserve money.

**Keywords:** macroeconomic variables; stock market; all share price index; sri lanka.

**Classification:** JEL Code: G1, G14, G15

**Language:** English



Great Britain  
Journals Press

LJP Copyright ID: 146461  
Print ISSN: 2633-2299  
Online ISSN: 2633-2302

London Journal of Research in Management and Business

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0



© 2023. EMRT Edirisingha, YPRD Yapa, SGJ Senarathne, PPAW Athukorala & WMA Wickramasinghe. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution- Noncom-mercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>, permitting all noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

# Macroeconomic Determinants of Stock Market Performances in Sri Lanka

EMRT Edirisingha<sup>a</sup>, YPRD Yapa<sup>a</sup>, SGJ Senarathne<sup>b</sup>, PPAW Athukorala<sup>c</sup>  
& WMA Wickramasinghe<sup>Y</sup>

## ABSTRACT

This study measures the impact of the macroeconomic variables on the All-Share Price Index (ASPI) of the Colombo stock exchange in Sri Lanka. Monthly data collected from the CSE data library and the Central Bank of Sri Lanka publications from 2008 to 2020 were employed.

The dependent variable is the All-Share Price Index (ASPI), and the independent macroeconomic variables are gross domestic production (GDP), interest rate, exchange rate, inflation rate, money supply, and reserve money.

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test was employed to test for stationarity, and the results indicate that all the variables are integrated in the same order I (1). The co-integration analysis for the selected macroeconomic variables and ASPI were carried out to test for the existence of the long-run relationship and the Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). The Johansen co-integration test and the VECM have been performed in this study. The multivariate regression analysis was performed using the selected six independent macroeconomic variables on ASPI, and the parameters were estimated using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method. The results indicate that the selected economic variables have an overall impact on the ASPI of Sri Lanka. Interest rate, exchange rate, and money supply negatively affected ASPI, while gross domestic production, inflation rate, and reserve money reacted positively on ASPI. The VECM shows that the GDP has had a significant impact on the growth of ASPI in the last two months. The results of the Granger Causality test indicate that the ASPI has a unidirectional causal relationship with the exchange rate, also, the exchange rate and

interest rate have a significant bidirectional causality on each other at 1% and 5% levels. Furthermore, the GDP has a unidirectional causal relationship with the interest rate as well as money supply has a unidirectional causal relationship with the exchange rate, also, reserve money and money supply variables have a significant bidirectional causality with each other at a 10% significance level. Finally, the study concluded that at a 10% significance level, all the variables have a significant impact on the ASPI of Sri Lanka, and the inflation rate has a comparatively higher effect on the ASPI.

**Keywords:** macroeconomic variables; stock market; all share price index; sri lanka.

**Author a σ p Y:** Department of Statistics & Computer Science, Faculty of Science, University of Peradeniya. Peradeniya, 20400, Sri Lanka.

**C:** Department of Economics & Statistics, Faculty of Arts, University of Peradeniya. Peradeniya, 20400, Sri Lanka.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The stock market of any country acts as the mirror of its economy. The economic recession, depression, and financial crisis ultimately lead to stock market crash or development. A market where the securities such as shares, debentures, etc., issued by trade is called the 'Stock market'. Likewise, the stock market plays a significant role in the individual industry and investors who want to gain maximum return on their savings (Menike, 2010). According to Bayraktar's (2014) perspective, the stock market is not only a tool for measuring industrial growth but also a means of assessing the stability of the economy. The rising market capitalization, total turnover, and market index are signs of a growing economy. If those are

failing or have fluctuations, it gives the impression of instability in such an economy.

In the past, most people saved their money by investing in commercial banks to make little interest. Nowadays, most developing nations, including Sri Lanka, favour commercial banks. Theoretically, the inflation rate of the country is highly affected by interest rates because of the economic crises in the past decade; the interest rates have been decreasing rapidly with negative fluctuations. Therefore, the number of investors saving money in savings accounts decreases, and they prefer investing money in the stock market. The stock market plays a vital role in the financial sector of every economy.

An efficient capital market drives economic growth by establishing a financial sector. Over time, the significance of the financial market in the economy has increased, and various factors can now affect the stock market's performance, as noted by Badullahewage (2018).

Today's stock markets have emerged as the primary driving force behind national and global economies.

Through stock market performance, there are more economic significances we can identify. The stock market performances are very sensitive to various macroeconomic variables and changes in the level of economic activities (Kumar & Padhi, 2012). The stock market is a primary source for many companies to raise funds for business expansions. If a company wants to increase capital for the business, it can increase shares. By utilizing the primary market of the stock exchange, businesses can issue shares and acquire the necessary funds to meet their operational needs. Considering the recorded public companies, they issue more shares to the market to gather more funds.

These primary functions of the stock exchange play the most important role in supporting the growth of industry and commerce in the country.

That is why raising the stock market is a sign of a developing industrial sector and a growing economy of a country.

Moreover, the stock market helps the redistribution of wealth through stock price increases, and dividends enhance share in the wealth of portfolio business. The price of the share is decided by the demand and supply for the share. However, it is not the only factor that affects the share price. Other factors that affect the share price are company performance, economic factors, and the country's current political situation. The uncontrollable nature of share price is evident in its susceptibility to macroeconomic variables. It provides some indication of the impact of macroeconomic variables on stock prices. The main focus of this research is to investigate the influence of macroeconomic variables on the stock market's performance in the Colombo Stock Exchange.

As well as the potential effect of the stock exchanges on aggregate demand, especially through aggregate consumption and investment.

Numerous research studies have investigated the correlation between macroeconomic factors, stock market indicators, stock return, stock prices and market capitalization (Anthony, 2008; Menike, 2010; Nijam et al., 2015).

There are a large number of investors that have invested in both domestic and international stock markets in the Sri Lankan context. The observation of the effect of macroeconomic variables on stock market performance in Sri Lanka would benefit not only portfolio managers but also economic policymakers. Also, the effect of macroeconomic variables on stock market performance is useful to evaluate how portfolio manager invests in stock heads against macroeconomic variables. Moreover, this study investigates the relationship between macroeconomic factors and the stock market performance that induce an economic policymaker to attention when decision making.

The Colombo Stock Exchange act as the most important market for capital. Well-developed capital market is essential to promote economic development (World Bank, 2020). The capital market plays an important role in the economy, and companies listed in the Colombo stock

exchange are already involved in developing infrastructure. Hence Sri Lankan government has been offering various incentives to boost the stock market. The results of this study are important for local and foreign investors, policymakers, stock market regulators, stock market analysts etc.

Sri Lanka's capital market has undergone tremendous change after the reception of the liberalization policy. It has become more open to international investors, especially in the context of the post-war economy and subsequent economic revitalizations in Sri Lanka.

The CSE has two main price indices, the All-Share Price Index (ASPI) and the S & P Sri Lanka 20 index (S & P SL 20). The ASPI tracks the fluctuations of stock prices for all registered companies. Meanwhile, the S&P SL 20 (Standard & Poor's Sri Lanka 20) is a market index that monitors the performance of 20 top publicly traded companies on the Colombo Stock Exchange, using market capitalization as its basis.

These index values are calculated continuously during the trading session, with the closing values published at the end of each session (Aboocacker & Irfan, 2014). Evaluating the related literature, it is evident that macroeconomic variables such as money supply, interest rate, inflation, GDP, exchange rate, oil prices, gold price, and unemployment have been taken to measure the impact on the stock market performance. Hence, this research aimed to establish a correlation between macroeconomic indicators and the stock market's overall performance.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, we are reviewing the past literature and the theoretical background related to the impact of economic variables on the Colombo stock market performances. Most of the researchers have selected aggregate economic variables to be employed in their research models, based on their countries' economic environment. The inflation rate, exchange rate, interest rate, money supply, gross domestic production, industrial production index, reserve money, crude oil price, and economic growth were the variables

that were mostly selected to study macroeconomic conditions with stock market indices.

Nelson and Schwert (1977) examined how monthly stock returns correlated with inflation from 1953 to 1974 in the United States. Their findings suggested that there was an adverse correlation between stock returns and both anticipated and unanticipated inflation.

Chen et al. (1986) studied the effect of macroeconomic variables on the stock market return. The researchers analyzed various factors, including short-term and long-term interest rates, expected and unexpected inflation, industrial production, and the spread between high and low-grade bonds. They collected data from 1953 to 1972 and conducted 12 cross-sectional regressions. The results showed that macroeconomic variables, such as industrial production and risk premium fluctuations, notably affect the stock market's performance.

Al-Khazali & Pyun (2004) researched the generalized Fisher hypothesis in nine equity markets in various Asian countries such as Australia, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, Taiwan, and Thailand. However, their findings showed that the generalized Fisher hypothesis was rejected in all of these countries. Based on their VAR model, they concluded that variations in stock returns cannot be explained by inflation and vice versa.

The study also found that expected inflation did not affect the stochastic process of nominal stock returns. In addition, they could not identify a consistent negative relationship between stock returns and inflation shocks in all the analyzed countries.

Ahmed (2007) investigated the correlation between the stock market and several macroeconomic indicators, including money supply, treasury bill rate, interest rate, GDP, and industrial production index. By applying a range of tests such as unit roots, co-integration, and vector error correction models, the monthly dataset for the period between July 1997 and June 2005 was analyzed. The results indicated that, in

general, there was no long-term relationship between the stock market index and macroeconomic variables. However, the study did suggest that changes in the interest rate or T-bill growth rate may have some impact on the market return.

Coleman & Tettey (2008) conducted a study on the Ghana Stock Exchange's performance and how it was influenced by various macroeconomic factors. Their research utilized quarterly time series data spanning from 1991 to 2005, and they employed co-integration and 15 error correction models to analyze the data. According to their results, Treasury bill rates had a minimal impact on the stock exchange's performance, while market responses were delayed in cases of inflation.

In a study conducted by Menike (2010), the impact of macroeconomic variables on stock prices in the Sri Lankan stock market was examined. The study utilized monthly data covering the timeframe from September 1991 to December 2002, employing a multivariate linear regression method. Here, there were eight macroeconomic variables that were regressed against each stock. The results indicate that the higher explanatory power of macroeconomic variables is high in explaining the stock prices of most of the stocks listed on CSE. The study held that the inflation rate and exchange rate react negatively to stock prices. Moreover, the presence of a negative effect on the Treasury bill rate, implying that whenever the interest rate on Treasury securities rises, investors tend to switch out of stocks, causing a fall in stock prices.

Pal & Mittal (2011) investigated the long-run relationship between two Indian capital markets and macroeconomic factors such as interest rate, inflation, exchange rate and gross domestic savings using the quarterly data from January 1995 to December 2008. They performed the unit root test, cointegration and error correction mechanism and found that the inflation rate impacts one capital market. The results also indicated that the Gross domestic saving was insignificant in explaining both markets. Not only the above factors, but also stock market

performance is influenced by natural disasters, infrastructure development, social welfare, political situation, and political stability. However, there are very few researchers who covered this area in their studies. Several research studies investigated that there is a positive relationship between stock market performance and economic growth.

Though Sri Lankan situation may be different, when stock market transactions are low, the impact on the country's economic activity may be limited. Therefore, possible practical influences done by sectors and segments of the economy have an impact on stock market changes.

Momani & Alsharari (2011) studied the impact of macroeconomic factors on the stock prices at the Amman Stock Market of Jordan, covering the periods of 1992-2010. The macroeconomic factors were namely: interest rate, national product, money supply, and industrial product index. The results showed a significant statistical impact on share prices. However, when each factor was examined with the indices, they found that the interest rate has a statistically significant impact on the prices of the shares in the Amman Financial Market. The effect was negative on behalf of the index and the sectors index. The production index is another variable, which had a significant impact where its impact was negative for the general sectors index except for the insurance sector, which had a positive impact.

Kumar & Padhi (2012) conducted a study to examine the correlation between the BSE Sensex, the Indian stock market index, and five macroeconomic variables: industrial production index, wholesale price index, money supply, treasury bills rates, and exchange rates. They utilized Johansen's co-integration and vector error correction model to analyze the data from 1994 to 2011 and investigate the long-term equilibrium relationship between the stock market index and the macroeconomic variables.

The findings indicated that the stock market index and the selected macroeconomic variables were co-integrated, suggesting a long-term equilibrium relationship between them. The results also

revealed a positive correlation between stock prices and money supply, while industrial production exhibited a negative correlation with inflation. However, the study found that the exchange rate and short-term interest rate had no significant impact on determining stock prices.

Aurangzeb (2012) studied the factor affecting the performance of the stock market in three selected South Asian countries, namely, Pakistan, India and Sri Lanka using the data collected from the period 1997 to 2010. According to the findings of the regression analysis, it was observed that the performance of the stock market in South Asian nations is positively and significantly affected by foreign direct investment and exchange rates.

Conversely, the interest rate was found to have a negative and significant impact on the stock market performance in the region. The analysis also revealed that inflation has a negative impact on the stock market performance in South Asia, but the impact was insignificant.

Aboocacker & Shehu (2014) conducted a study to investigate the impact of macroeconomic factors on the stock market performance in Sri Lanka.

The study utilized monthly data collected between January 2001 and December 2011. The independent variables of this study are inflation, exchange rate, money market rate and money supply of Sri Lanka, whereas the dependent variable is all share price index. Co-integration analysis for macroeconomic factors and all share price indices of the stock market were carried out to test for the existence and Vector Error Correction Model. It was found that both long and short-run relationships exist among the stock price index and macroeconomic variables. Using the ADF unit root test, it is shown that all the variables are integrated in the same order I (1).

According to the Johansen co-integration test results, a stable and long-term relationship exists between the variables studied.

The Johansen test procedure further supported this finding by indicating the presence of at least one co-integration equation involving the ASPI and macroeconomic variables at a significance

level of 5%. The results of VEC showed that short-run relationship between the stock market index, money market rate and money supply.

Badullahewage (2018) conducted a study on how macroeconomic factors affected the performance of the stock market in Sri Lanka. The study analyzed data from 1990 to 2012 and used indexes to investigate the relationship between macroeconomic variables such as inflation, gross domestic production, interest rates, and exchange rates. The findings of the study demonstrated that all of these factors have an inseparable impact on stock market performance and that the Sri Lankan stock market has gone through many ups and downs as a result of them.

It has been discovered that inflation and exchange rates have a higher impact on stock market performance out of all the factors studied.

According to the research, an increase in indicators such as interest rates, exchange rates, and GDP has been observed to result in improved performance of both the CCPI and ASPI. In contrast, to have a better performance in the stock market, the inflation rate should be kept to a bare minimum.

Jayasundara et al., (2019) researched the relationship between macroeconomic factors and stock market performance in Sri Lanka. They analyzed monthly data from 2006 to 2016 and included two dummy variables to assess the effects of the country's civil war and the global financial crisis on share prices. The Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method was used to estimate the parameters. The findings indicate that macroeconomic variables overall impact the ASPI of Sri Lanka. Interest rates, the industrial production index, and civil war had a negative impact on ASPI, while the US Dollar exchange rate and real GDP growth rate had a positive impact on the all-share price index. The global financial crisis positively affected the all-share price index in Sri Lanka, which is contradictory to the experiences of developed countries.

### III. METHODOLOGY & DATA

The main objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between the All-Share Price Index (ASPI) of the Colombo Stock Exchange and six major macroeconomic variables: Gross Domestic Production (GDP), Interest Rate, Exchange Rate, Inflation Rate, Money Supply and Reserve Money of Sri Lanka using monthly time series data between 2008 and 2020. The data were obtained from the CSE data library and central bank publications. Here, the ASPI variable is considered as a proxy to measure the performance

$$ASPI = f(GDP, INTR, EXR, INFR, MS, RESM) \quad (1)$$

For the convenience of estimation, all the above variables are expressed as a log-linear model as follows

$$\ln ASPI_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln GDP_t + \beta_2 \ln INTR_t + \beta_3 \ln EXR_t + \beta_4 \ln INFR_t + \beta_5 \ln MS_t + \beta_6 \ln RESM_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Where;

$\ln ASPI_t$  represents the log of ASPI at time t;

$\ln GDP_t$  represents the log of GDP at time t;

$\ln INTR_t$  represents the log of Interest rate at time t;

$\ln EXR_t$  represents the log of the Exchange rate at time t;

$\ln INFR_t$  represents the log of the Inflation rate at time t;

$\ln MS_t$  represents the log of Money supply at time t;

$\ln RESM_t$  represents the log of Reserve money at time t;

t is any given time;

$\varepsilon_t$  is the error term;

$\beta_0$  is a constant and;

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6$  are the sensitivity parameters of each macroeconomic variable to the performance of the Colombo stock market, Sri Lanka.

As a preliminary step for analyzing the time series data, the test for stationarity and the test for co-integration were performed. Here, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test is used to examine the existence of unit roots in the dataset. In addition to that, this study involves the Johansen co-integration test (Johansen & Juselius, 1990) using the trace statistic and the maximum eigenvalue method. Furthermore, this study utilizes the Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) to evaluate the short-run and long-term dynamics of variables in an attempt to identify the relationship between the variables. The final model was fitted using the Johansen

of the Colombo stock market performance, Sri Lanka. The interest rate was measured by using 90 days treasury bonds and the inflation rate was measured by using Colombo Consumer Price Index on the base of 2013(100). Sri Lankan Rupees per unit of US dollar (USD) was taken as the exchange rate, and the money supply was measured using the M2b indicator. The following linear model is proposed to establish the relationship between ASPI and selected macroeconomic factors in Sri Lanka.

normalization technique and the pairwise Granger causality test was performed to check the direction of causality. All the statistical analyses were performed using EViews 12.0 statistical software.

### IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

The following table shows the summary of descriptive statistics of the variables used in this study. The sample means, median, maximum, minimum, and standard deviation have been recorded.

**Table 1:** Descriptive Statistics of Variables

|          | ASPI     | GDP        | Interest Rate | Exchange Rate | Inflation Rate | Money Supply (M2b) | Reserve Money |
|----------|----------|------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Mean     | 5516.768 | 21571.790  | 9.935         | 138.066       | 104.378        | 4200779.000        | 657344.000    |
| Median   | 6014.950 | 19107.960  | 9.450         | 131.350       | 104.750        | 3600429.000        | 624946.100    |
| Maximum  | 7798.000 | 212302.000 | 19.600        | 193.090       | 138.000        | 9405734.000        | 1021589.000   |
| Minimum  | 1503.000 | 9540.311   | 4.860         | 107.6         | 69.700         | 1398625.000        | 258097.000    |
| Std. Dev | 1599.069 | 27087.87   | 3.502         | 24.846        | 18.725         | 2249164.000        | 251173.600    |

To have a better understanding of this study, the time-series data should satisfy some properties.

This section describes such a property called stationarity or the existence of unit roots. Here, the ADF test is utilized to find the existence of unit root using EViews statistical software on both levels and their first differences of all variables.

As a preliminary step for testing co-integration among several variables used in the above model, it is necessary to test for the presence of unit root for every individual variable using the ADF test (Dickey & Fuller, 1979) based on the auxiliary regression,

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + \delta t + \beta y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \gamma_i \Delta y_{t-i} + u_t \quad (3)$$

The above ADF auxiliary regression tests for the existence of a unit root in  $y_t$  at time t.

Where;

$\Delta y_{t-1}$  = The lagged first differences,

$u_t$  = The serial correlation errors and,

$\alpha, \delta, \beta$  and  $\gamma$  are the parameters to be estimated.

The null hypothesis for a unit root in variable  $y_t$  is  $H_0: \beta = 0$  and the alternative hypothesis is  $H_1: \beta < 0$ . The following table describes the results of the ADF unit root test.

**Table 2:** ADF Unit root tests for stationarity with constant only

| Variables              | Levels | First Difference | 5% Critical Value | 1% Critical Value |
|------------------------|--------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Log ASPI               | -2.011 | -12.229          | -2.880            | -3.473            |
| Log GDP                | -1.040 | -7.912           | -2.882            | -3.476            |
| Log Interest Rate      | -1.906 | -8.042           | -2.880            | -3.473            |
| Log Exchange Rate      | -0.052 | -8.261           | -2.880            | -3.473            |
| Log Inflation Rate     | -1.228 | -7.737           | -2.880            | -3.474            |
| Log Money Supply (M2b) | -0.094 | -11.140          | -2.880            | -3.473            |
| Log Reserve Money      | -1.890 | -12.695          | -2.880            | -3.473            |

If the test statistic values of the ADF test are larger than the critical value, then the null hypothesis is not rejected. Therefore, in such cases, we conclude that the variable under

consideration is not stationary. That is, it has a unit root. This procedure should be applied once again after having transformed the series under consideration in the first differencing. If the null

hypothesis of non-stationarity is rejected, it is possible to conclude that the series is integrated of order 1. Furthermore, for the ADF tests to be effective, it is important to choose the relevant optimal lag order such that not to reduce the power of the test. The lag order was chosen using AIC values and EViews statistical software identifies the default value of  $\text{trunc}((\text{length}(x) - 1)^{\frac{1}{3}})$  as the lag order for the ADF test, where  $x$  denotes the variable of interest.

The above table indicates that the critical values for the levels of all variables are not significant at the 5% and 1% significance levels. Therefore, it implies that all the variables have a unit root in their level for the ADF test. However, the ADF test results for the first differences of the variables show that the critical values for all the variables are significant at the 5% and 1% significance levels. Therefore, based on these results, we reject the null hypothesis that the presence of unit root at all first differences of the variables. As a result of this test, it can be considered that the variables are integrated of order 1, I (1). Since the series are integrated of the same order I (1), then there exists a risk of co-integration.

After showing that the variables are integrated of order I, I (1), it is necessary to determine whether there is at least one linear combination of these variables. This can be done by using the co-integration method. Along with a non-stationary series, the co-integration method has been used to investigate whether a long-run relationship exists. However, to apply the co-integration test, it is necessary to have the variables under consideration integrated in the same order. In the previous section, it is clear that the variables under consideration are integrated in the same order I (1). As an initial step for applying the co-integration tests, first, specify the relevant optimal lag order of the Vector Auto-regressive (VAR) model. By the Akaike Information Criteria using 2 maximum lags, the general VAR model indicates that the optimal lag length of 1. Based on the above unit-root tests, the Johansen co-integration test can be applied. The following vector autoregressive framework of

order p can be used to express the Johansen co-integration method.

$$X_t = A_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p B_j X_{t-j} + e_t \quad (4)$$

Where;

$X_t$  = An  $n \times 1$  vector of non-stationary I (1) variables,

$A_0$  = An  $n \times 1$  vector of constants,

$p$  = The maximum lag length,

$B_j$  = An  $n \times n$  matrix of coefficients and,

$e_t$  = An  $n \times 1$  vector of white noise terms.

To use the Johansen co-integration method, the above equation (4) should be turned into a vector error correction model (VECM) and it can be written as follows.

$$\Delta X_t = A_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \Gamma_j \Delta X_{t-j} + \Pi X_{t-p} + e_t \quad (5)$$

Where;

$\Delta$  = The first difference operator,

$$\Gamma_j = - \sum_{i=j+1}^p B_j,$$

$$\Pi = -I + \sum_{i=j+1}^p B_j \text{ and,}$$

$I$  = An  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

The co-integration test between the X values is calculated by finding the rank of the  $\Pi$  matrix using its eigenvalues. In this test, the null hypothesis can be expressed as  $H_0: \Pi = \alpha\beta'$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  represent loading matrices of eigenvectors with dimensions  $n \times r$ . The matrix  $\beta$  is responsible for providing co-integration vectors, while  $\alpha$  represents the adjustment parameters. The number of co-integrating relations can be tested by using the following trace statistic and the maximum eigenvalue test statistic given below.

*Trace statistic:*

$$\lambda_{trace}(r) = -T \sum_{i=j+1}^p \ln(1 - \hat{\lambda}_j) \quad (6)$$

*Maximum eigenvalue statistic:*

$$\lambda_{max}(r, r + 1) = -T \ln(1 - \hat{\lambda}_{r+1}) \quad (7)$$

Where,

$r$  = The number of co-integrating vectors under the null hypothesis,

$T$  = The number of observations that are usable and,

$\hat{\lambda}_j$  = The value estimated for the  $j^{\text{th}}$  ordered characteristic root or eigenvalue from the  $\Pi$  matrix

A significant co-integrating vector can be identified utilizing significant non-zero

eigenvalues. The null hypothesis of the trace statistic suggests that the number of co-integrating vectors is less than or equal to  $r$ , whereas the alternative hypothesis suggests that there are more than  $r$  co-integrating relations. The maximum eigenvalue test indicates the null hypothesis of the number of co-integrating vectors is less than or equal to  $r$ , versus the alternative hypothesis of  $(r+1)$  co-integrating vectors. Tables 3 and 4 present the results obtained from the Johansen method of both trace test and maximum eigenvalue test using EViews statistical software, starting with the null hypothesis of no co-integration ( $r=0$ ) among all variables.

*Table 3: Johansen Co-Integration Test (Trace)*

| Eigenvalue | Trace Statistic | 5% Critical Value | P - Value | No. of CE (s) |
|------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|
| 0.341      | 161.283         | 125.615           | 0.000     | None          |
| 0.223      | 97.399          | 95.754            | 0.038     | At most 1     |
| 0.158      | 58.833          | 69.819            | 0.273     | At most 2     |
| 0.104      | 32.502          | 47.856            | 0.584     | At most 3     |
| 0.060      | 15.687          | 29.797            | 0.734     | At most 4     |
| 0.040      | 6.255           | 15.495            | 0.665     | At most 5     |

SERIES: LASPI, LGDP, LINTR, LEXR, LINFR, LMS, LRESM

*Test Assumption:* Linear Deterministic Trend in the Data

The data reported in above Table 3 shows that the null hypothesis of no co-integrating vector or at most one co-integrating vector can be rejected at the 5% significance level, thereby suggesting the presence of two co-integrating equations.

Therefore, according to the results of Table 3 above, at a 5% significance level, the trace statistic suggests at most two co-integrating vectors ( $r=2$ ) are significant.

*Table 4: Johansen Co-Integration Test (Max-Eigen)*

| Eigenvalue | Max-Eigen Statistic | 5% Critical Value | P - Value | No. of CE (s) |
|------------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------|---------------|
| 0.341      | 63.884              | 46.231            | 0.000     | None          |
| 0.223      | 38.566              | 40.078            | 0.073     | At most 1     |
| 0.158      | 26.331              | 33.877            | 0.301     | At most 2     |
| 0.104      | 16.815              | 27.584            | 0.596     | At most 3     |
| 0.060      | 9.432               | 21.132            | 0.796     | At most 4     |
| 0.040      | 6.252               | 14.265            | 0.581     | At most 5     |

SERIES: LASPI, LGDP, LINTR, LEXR, LINFR, LMS, LRESM

*Test Assumption:* Linear Deterministic Trend in the Data

As the results of Table 4, the null hypothesis of no co-integrating vector can be rejected at the 5% significance level and indicates the presence of

one co-integrating equation. Therefore, the maximum eigenvalue statistic suggests that at most one co-integrating vector ( $r=1$ ) is significant.

Therefore, by using both trace and maximum eigenvalue tests, it can be concluded that there are

two co-integrating relations among the variables and it is another evidence to say that the variables are co-integrated. That is, there exists a linear combination of the I (1) variables and a stable long-run relationship.

By taking one co-integrating vector and two co-integrating vectors, the short-run and long-run

interaction of the selected economic variables, the VECM has been estimated based on the Johansen co-integration method. The results demonstrate that the ASPI and the economic variables have a long-run equilibrium relationship. The estimated co-integrating coefficients for the first and second normalized eigenvectors are as follows.

*Table 5:* Normalized co-integrating coefficients (Standard error parenthesis)

| Equation Type                | Log ASPI | Log GDP          | Log Interest Rate | Log Exchange Rate  | Log Inflation Rate  | Log Money Supply  | Log Reserve Money | Constant |
|------------------------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------|
| One co-integrating equation  | 1.000    | 9.526<br>(1.145) | 1.216<br>(1.234)  | -14.010<br>(9.679) | -74.860<br>(19.234) | 28.140<br>(9.585) | -7.005<br>(3.934) | -9.000   |
| Two co-integrating equations | 1.000    | 0.000            | 0.222<br>(0.103)  | 2.107<br>(0.804)   | -7.827<br>(1.492)   | 2.002<br>(0.772)  | -0.711<br>(0.325) |          |
|                              | 0.000    | 1.000            | 0.104<br>(0.128)  | -1.692<br>(1.000)  | -7.037<br>(1.857)   | 2.744<br>(0.961)  | -0.661<br>(0.404) |          |

The above co-integrating long-run model can be re-parameterized as follows:

$$\text{LASPI} = -9.526\text{LGDP} - 1.216\text{LINTR} + 14.010\text{LEXCHR} + 74.860\text{LINFR} - 28.140\text{LMS} + 7.005\text{LRESM} + 9.000 \quad (8)$$

In the long term, there is a significant negative statistical relationship between all share price indexes and gross domestic production, interest rates, and money supply variables. In other words, gross domestic production, interest rates, and money supply variables allow long-term all share price index values to be reduced. Moreover, there is a positive relationship between the share price index and exchange rates, inflation rates,

and reserve money variables. That is exchange rates, inflation rates, and money supply variables support increasing the long-term share price index values.

The estimated coefficients, standard errors, t statistics and p values of the log-linear model (2) and its R-Squared, adjusted R-Squared values are summarized in Table 6 below.

*Table 6:* Regression Outputs

| Dependent Variable: LASPI<br>Method: Least Squares |             |            |             |          |
|--|-------------|------------|-------------|----------|
| Variable   | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-statistic | Prob.    |
| Intercept  | 1.926       | 0.323      | 5.958       | 0.000*** |
| Log GDP  | 0.084       | 0.048      | 1.752       | 0.082*   |
| Log Interest Rate                                  | -0.320      | 0.062      | -5.202      | 0.000*** |
| Log Exchange Rate                                  | -2.644      | 0.458      | -5.767      | 0.000*** |
| Log Inflation Rate                                 | 3.866       | 0.816      | 4.741       | 0.000*** |
| Log Money Supply                                   | -0.682      | 0.410      | -1.664      | 0.098*   |
| Log Reserve Money                                  | 0.705       | 0.189      | 3.734       | 0.000*** |
| R-Squared  |             | 0.7881     |             |          |
| Adjusted R-Squared                                 |             | 0.7796     |             |          |

Note: \*Denotes significance at 10% level. \*\*denotes significance at the 5% level and \*\*\*denotes significance at the 1% level.

The above log-linear model can be re-parameterized as follows:

$$\text{LASPI} = 1.926 + 0.084\text{LGDP} - 0.320\text{LINTR} - 2.644\text{LEXCHR} + 3.866\text{LINFR} - 0.682\text{LMS} + 0.705\text{LRESM} \quad (9)$$

The significance of each variable is tested by using the t-test. The null hypothesis of this test stated that there is no significant impact from the

independent economic variable on ASPI, whereas the alternative hypothesis stated that there is a significant relationship between the independent

economic variable on ASPI. According to the regression outputs in Table 6, using p-values, it can be considered as all the macroeconomic variables show significant effects on the ASPI of Sri Lanka at a 10% level. Additionally, using the R-squared value, it is evidence to say that 78.81% of the total variation is explained by the above log-linear model (9) and the adjusted R-squared in the above table suggests that the fitted model is approximately 77.96% reliable.

If it is given that a co-integrating relationship is present among the selected variables in level form, an error correction model can be estimated.

An error correction model is used to identify the short-run dynamic response of ASPI and other economic variables. The VECM is a restricted VAR developed to be utilized with known co-integrated nonstationary series. The VEC has co-integration relations built into the specification so that it restricts the long-run behaviour of the economic variables to converge to their co-integrating relationships while allowing for short-run adjustment dynamics. VECM relates changes in ASPI growth to changes in the other lagged variables and the disturbance term of lagged periods. Table 7 shows the results of the VECM short-run dynamic relationship and the short-run relationship coefficients using EViews statistical software.

*Table 7:* Vector Error Correction Estimates for LASPI

| Dependent Variable $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$   |             |            |             |           |
|---|-------------|------------|-------------|-----------|
| 153 observations are used after adjustments |             |            |             |           |
| Variables                                   | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | P-value   |
| ECT   | -0.0065     | 0.0055     | -1.1858     | 0.2375    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI}(-1))$                  | -0.4796     | 0.0843     | -5.6873     | 0.0000*** |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI}(-2))$                  | -0.1896     | 0.0848     | -2.2363     | 0.0268**  |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDGP}(-1))$                  | 0.0747      | 0.0555     | 1.3453      | 0.1805    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDGP}(-2))$                  | 0.0937      | 0.0544     | 1.7240      | 0.0867*   |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR}(-1))$                  | 0.1644      | 0.2556     | 0.6433      | 0.1024    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR}(-2))$                  | -0.2504     | 0.2485     | -1.0076     | 0.3152    |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR}(-1))$                   | -1.6721     | 1.2191     | -1.3716     | 0.1722    |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXT}(-2))$                   | -0.3305     | 1.2234     | 0.2701      | 0.7874    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR}(-1))$                  | 0.2442      | 1.1342     | 0.2153      | 0.8298    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR}(-2))$                  | -0.5311     | 1.1088     | -0.4790     | 0.6326    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS}(-1))$                    | 1.3582      | 1.8022     | 0.7536      | 0.4522    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS}(-2))$                    | 2.4823      | 1.7897     | 1.3870      | 0.1675    |
| $\Delta(\text{LRESM}(-1))$                  | -0.0833     | 0.4108     | -0.2029     | 0.8395    |
| $\Delta(\text{LRESM}(-2))$                  | -0.0873     | 0.4134     | -0.2111     | 0.8331    |
| Constant                                    | -0.0134     | 0.0139     | -0.9667     | 0.3352    |

*Note:* \*Denotes significance at 10% level. \*\*denotes significance at the 5% level and \*\*\*denotes significance at the 1% level.

The VECM short-run results are presented in Table 7. It is evident that  $\Delta(\text{LASPI}(-1))$  and  $\Delta(\text{LASPI}(-2))$  are statistically significant at a 5% level with priori expected signs. The coefficient of Error Correction Term (ECT) is correct in sign and insignificant. However, it is fairly small, that is, 0.0065. This implies, nearly 0.65% of the

disequilibria in ASPI of the previous month's affect back to the long-run equilibrium in the current month. The interest rates, US dollar exchange rates, inflation rates and reserve money variables had a negative impact on the growth of the all-share price index of Sri Lanka for the last two months and those effects are not statistically

significant at a 1% level. The gross domestic product has a positive and significant (at 10% level) impact. In contrast, the other macroeconomic variables have a positive and insignificant (at 1% level) impact on the growth of all share price indexes of Sri Lanka. Therefore, when the GDP of the last two months are increasing, it will cause the growth in ASPI by 0.0937 units. According to the records of the past two months, the growth in ASPI has a negative and significant impact on the current growth in ASPI. Therefore, according to the above results, GDP is a significant determinant of the growth of ASPI.

The VECM can identify the short-run dynamics and the long-run equilibrium relations between the time series variables. Therefore, it can distinguish between the short-run and long-run Granger causality. In other words, the Granger causality test is used to find the joint significance of the coefficients of the differenced explanatory variables. To further understand this study, the Granger causality test has been employed to check the direction of causality and the results are presented in Table 8. The F-statistic and probability values are estimated using 153 observations and 2 months lags under the null hypothesis of no causality.

*Table 8:* Pairwise Granger Causality Test

| Null Hypothesis  | F - statistic | Prob.    |
|--|---------------|----------|
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$  | 1.105         | 0.334    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$  | 0.051         | 0.951    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ | 1.465         | 0.234    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ | 0.288         | 0.750    |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$  | 0.910         | 0.405    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$  | 8.070         | 0.001*** |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ | 0.068         | 0.934    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ | 1.798         | 0.169    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$   | 0.747         | 0.476    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LMS})$   | 0.848         | 0.430    |
| $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ | 0.003         | 0.998    |
| $\Delta(\text{LASPI})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$ | 0.630         | 0.534    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$  | 0.106         | 0.900    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$  | 2.960         | 0.055*   |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$   | 0.206         | 0.814    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$   | 0.307         | 0.736    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$  | 0.135         | 0.874    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$  | 0.323         | 0.725    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$    | 1.396         | 0.251    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LMS})$    | 0.815         | 0.445    |
| $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$  | 0.671         | 0.513    |
| $\Delta(\text{LGDP})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$  | 0.090         | 0.914    |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$  | 5.021         | 0.008*** |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$  | 5.292         | 0.006*** |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ | 0.300         | 0.741    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ | 0.394         | 0.675    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$   | 1.563         | 0.213    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LMS})$   | 0.242         | 0.785    |
| $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ | 0.109         | 0.897    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINTR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LRESM})$ | 1.030         | 0.340    |
| $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$  | 0.584         | 0.559    |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LINFR})$  | 0.498         | 0.609    |
| $\Delta(\text{LMS})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$    | 2.363         | 0.098*   |
| $\Delta(\text{LEXR})$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(\text{LMS})$    | 1.256         | 0.288    |

|  |       |        |
|--|-------|--------|
| $\Delta(LRESM)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LEXR)$  | 0.741 | 0.478  |
| $\Delta(LEXR)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LRESM)$  | 0.819 | 0.443  |
| $\Delta(LMS)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LINFR)$   | 1.262 | 0.286  |
| $\Delta(LINFR)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LMS)$   | 1.325 | 0.269  |
| $\Delta(LRESM)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LINFR)$ | 2.742 | 0.068* |
| $\Delta(LINFR)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LRESM)$ | 2.395 | 0.095* |
| $\Delta(LRESM)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LMS)$   | 0.484 | 0.617  |
| $\Delta(LMS)$ does not Granger Cause $\Delta(LRESM)$   | 1.956 | 0.145  |

Note: \*Denotes significance at 10% level. \*\*denotes significance at the 5% level and \*\*\*denotes significance at the 1% level.

The results of the Granger Causality test indicate that the ASPI and exchange rate have a significant unidirectional causality, also the exchange rate and interest rate have a significant bidirectional causality on each other at 1% and 5% levels.

Furthermore, the GDP and interest rate have a unidirectional causality and money supply and exchange rate have a unidirectional causality. Finally, reserve money and money supply variables have a significant bidirectional causality on each other at 10% level. The results of this test also indicate that all the other pairs of variables do not have a significant causal relationship with each other at 1% and 5% levels.

## V. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATION

The main objective of this study is to investigate the impact of selected economic variables on the Colombo Stock Market Performances for 2008–2020. The ADF test was conducted to test the stationarity and the order of integration of all the series. It showed that all the variables are integrated in the same order I (1). The Johansen co-integration test results indicate a long-run relationship between the variables. The optimal lag length for each VAR model was selected by minimizing the Akaike Information criteria, and the final analysis used a lag length of 2. The estimated regression model shows a positive relationship between ASPI with GDP, Inflation rate and Reserve money. Simultaneously, there is a negative relationship between the Interest rate, Exchange rate and Money Supply. The VECM model shows that there is a long-run relationship between the ASPI and all other variables during the first two-month lags and especially the gross domestic product has a positive and significant

impact on the growth of ASPI for the last two-month lags. The results of Granger's causality test indicate a significant effect of ASPI on the exchange rate, and it is not affected by the other variables. Finally, the overall findings suggest that all the selected economic variables have been significantly affected by the ASPI. Those variables are the most powerful estimators for estimating the Stock market performances of Sri Lanka.

## REFERENCES

1. Athapathu A.R., and Jayasinghe, P. (2012). Stock Market Performance and Economic Growth: The Case of Sri Lanka, International Research Conference on Management & Finance, 83-92.
2. Aurangzeb. (2012). Factors Affecting Performance of Stock Market: Evidence from South Asian Countries. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2(9), 1-15.
3. Badullahewage, S. U. (2018). The Effects of Macroeconomic Factors on the Performance of Stock Market in Sri Lanka. International Journal of Innovation and Economic Development, 3(6), 33–41.
4. Chen N.F., Richard R., and Ross A.S. (1986). Economic Forces and the Stock Market. The Journal of Business, 59(3), 383–403.
5. Dayarathne, D. A. I., and Lakshman, R. (2012). Sensitivity of Stock Prices to Economic Events: Econometric Evidence from Sri Lankan Stock Market and US Stock Market. Sabaragamuwa University Journal, 11(1), 21–32.
6. Dickey, D. A., and Fuller, W. A. (1979). Distribution of the Estimators for Autoregressive Time Series with a Unit Root.

- Journal of the American Statistical Association, 74(366), 427–431.
7. El-Nader, H. M., and Alraimony, A. D. (2012). The Impact of Macroeconomic Factors on Amman Stock Market Returns. International Journal of Economics and Finance, 4(12), 202-213.
  8. Garcia, V. F., and Liu, L. (1999). Macroeconomic Determinants of Stock Market Development. Journal of Applied Economics, 2(1), 29–59.
  9. Garthika, S., and Rajapakse, R. P. C. R. (2018). Stock Market Performance and the Macroeconomic Factors: Evidence from Colombo Stock Exchange (CSE). International Journal of Research, 5(20), 753-779.
  10. Geetha, C., Mohidin, R., Chandran, V. V., and Chong, V. (2011). The Relationship Between Inflation and Stock Market: Evidence from Malaysia, United States and China. International Journal of Economics and Management Science, 1(2), 01–16.
  11. Gunasekage, A., Pisedtasalasai, A., and Power, D. M. (2004). Macro-economic Influences on the Stock Market: Evidence from an Emerging Market in South Asia. South Asia Economic Journal, 3(3), 285-304.
  12. Gunawardhana, M. A. T. P., and Mustafa, A. M. M. (2020). Relationship Between Inflation and Stock Market Return in Sri Lanka. Journal of Business Economics, 2(1), 76–88.
  13. Gupta, R., and Basu, P. K. (2011). Weak Form Efficiency in Indian Stock Markets. International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER), 6(3), 57-64.
  14. Jahufer A., and Irfan S.S.M. (2014). Contribution Of Macroeconomic Factors. Journal of Management, 10(1), 1-9.
  15. Jayasundara, J. M. D. P., Rathnayake, R. M. A. K., and Fernando, P. J. S. (2019). Impact of Macroeconomic Variables on Stock Market Performances: Evidence from Sri Lanka. Journal of Business Economics, 8(8), 67-89.
  16. Johansen, S., and Juselius, K. (1990). Maximum Likelihood Estimation and Inference on Cointegration-With Applications to The Demand for Money. Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics, 52(2), 169-210.
  17. Kirui, E., Wawire, N. H. W., and Onono, P. O. (2014). Macroeconomic Variables, Volatility and Stock Market Returns: A Case of Nairobi Securities Exchange, Kenya. International Journal of Economics and Finance, 6(8), 214-228.
  18. Naik, P.K., & Padhi, P. (2012). The Impact of Macroeconomic Fundamentals on Stock Prices Revised: Evidence from Indian Data. Eurasian Journal of Business and Economics, 2012(10), 25–44.
  19. Coleman, A.K., and Tettey, K.F.A. (2008). Effect of Exchange-rate Volatility on Foreign Direct Investment in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Case of Ghana. Journal of Risk Finance, 9(1), 52–70.
  20. Levine, R., and Zervos, S. (1996). Stock market development and long-run growth. World Bank Economic Review, 10(2), 323–339.
  21. Menike, L. M. C. S. (2006). The Effect of Macroeconomic Variables on Stock Prices in Emerging Sri Lankan Stock Market. Sabaragamuwa University Journal, 6(1), 50–67.
  22. Aslam, A. L.M. (2016). Impact of Money Supply on Sri Lankan Economy: An Econometric Analysis. International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences, 67, 11–17.
  23. Mohammad, S. D., Hussain, A., Jalil, M. A., and Ali, A. (2009). Impact of Macroeconomics Variables on Stock Prices: Empirical Evidence in Case of KSE (Karachi Stock Exchange). European Journal of Scientific Research 38(1), 96-103.
  24. Momani, G. F., and Alsharari, M. A. (2011). Impact of Economic Factors on the Stock Prices at Amman Stock Market (1992-2010). International Journal of Economics and Finance, 4(1), 151-159.
  25. Mugambi, M., and Okech, T. C. (2016). Effect Of Macroeconomic Variables on Stock Returns of Listed Commercial Banks in Kenya. International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management, 4(6), 390-418.
  26. Nanayakkara, and Darshi, G.A.N. (2015). The Impact of Macroeconomic Variables on Stock Market Performance in Sri Lanka.

- International Conference on Contemporary Management.
27. Pal, K., and Mittal, R. (2011). Impact of Macroeconomic Indicators on Indian Capital Markets. *Journal of Risk Finance*, 12(2), 84–97.
  28. Premawardhana, V. (1997). The Relationship Between Stock Returns and Interest Rates in Sri Lanka. *Sri Lankan Journal of Management*, 2(3), 251–263.
  29. Rahman, M. M., and Salahuddin, M. (2010). The Determinants of Economic Growth in Pakistan: Does Stock Market Development Play a Major Role? *Economic Issues Journal Articles, Economic Issues*, 15(2), 69–86.
  30. Rakhal, R. (2015). Determinants of Stock Market Performance. *NCC (Nepal Commerce Campus) Journal*, 3(1), 134–142.
  31. Rathnayaka, R.M.K.T., and Seneviratna, D.M.K.N. (2018). Impact of Macroeconomic Variables on Stock Market Returns: A Case Study of Colombo Stock Exchange, Sri Lanka. *Kelaniya Journal of Management*, 6(0), 1–12.
  32. Rathnayaka, R.M.K.T., Seneviratna, D.M.K.N., and Nagahawatta, S.C. (2014). Empirical Investigation of Stock Market Behavior in the Colombo Stock Exchange. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Management and Economics (ICME 2014)*, 209–216.
  33. Rjoub, H., Tursoy, T., and Günsel, N. (2009). The Effects of Macroeconomic Factors on Stock Returns: Istanbul Stock Market. *Studies in Economics and Finance*, 26(1), 36–45.
  34. Samarakoon, P.L. (1996). Stock Market Returns and Inflation: Sri Lankan Evidence. *Sri Lankan Journal of Management*, 1(4), 207–224.
  35. Singh, T.S., Mehta, S., and Varsha, M. (2011). Macroeconomic Factor and Stock Returns: Evidence from Taiwan. *Journal of Economics and International Finance*, 2(4), 217–227.
  36. Tripathi, V., and Seth, R. (2014). Stock Market Performance and Macroeconomic Factors: The Study of Indian Equity Market. *Global Business Review*, 15(2), 291–316.
  37. Aslam, Z. A.Z. (2013). Exchange Rate and Economic Performance - A Comparative Study of Developed and Developing Countries. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 8(1), 116–121.

*This page is intentionally left blank*



Scan to know paper details and  
author's profile

# Study of the Qualities of the Indicators to be Included in the Sustainability Information

Miguel Ángel Villacorta Hernández

Universidad Complutense de Madrid

## ABSTRACT

When in 2018, the legislator established the obligation to prepare the Non-Financial Information Statement (EINF), it revolutionized the way of structuring the contents of the Annual Report. It was the first time that it was legislated, in Spain, the presentation of sustainability information. Our research aims to identify the way to present non-financial information in Spanish listed groups since then, in order to propose improvements in the presentation. The main conclusion is that greater value must be given to sustainability within the organization, not only in the issuance of the EINF, but also in the organizational design.

**Keywords:** non-financial information statement, annual report, financial statements, non-financial information.

**Classification:** LCC Code: HD60

**Language:** English



Great Britain  
Journals Press

LJP Copyright ID: 146462  
Print ISSN: 2633-2299  
Online ISSN: 2633-2302

London Journal of Research in Management and Business

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0



© 2023. Miguel Ángel Villacorta Hernández. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncom-mercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>, permitting all noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

# Study of the Qualities of the Indicators to be Included in the Sustainability Information

Estudio De Las Cualidades De Los Indicadores a Incluir en La Información De Sostenibilidad

Miguel Ángel Villacorta Hernández

## RESUMEN

Cuando en 2018, el legislador estableció la obligación de elaborar el Estado de Información No Financiera (EINF), revolucionó la forma de estructurar los contenidos del Informe Anual pues, por primera vez en España, normalizó la presentación de la información de sostenibilidad.

Nuestra investigación tiene como objetivo identificar el modo de exponer la información no financiera en los grupos cotizados españoles desde entonces, para proponer mejoras en la presentación. La principal conclusión es que hay que conceder mayor valor a la sostenibilidad dentro de la organización, no sólo en la emisión del EINF, sino también en el diseño organizativo.

**Palabras clave:** estado de información no financiera, informe anual, estados financieros, información no financiera.

## ABSTRACT

When in 2018, the legislator established the obligation to prepare the Non-Financial Information Statement (EINF), it revolutionized the way of structuring the contents of the Annual Report. It was the first time that it was legislated, in Spain, the presentation of sustainability information. Our research aims to identify the way to present non-financial information in Spanish listed groups since then, in order to propose improvements in the presentation. The main conclusion is that greater value must be given to sustainability within the organization, not only in the issuance of the EINF, but also in the organizational design.

**Keywords:** non-financial information statement, annual report, financial statements, non-financial information.

**Author:** Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

## I. INTRODUCCIÓN

La Ley 11/2018 española instauró el Estado de información no financiera (EINF) para recoger ciertos contenidos no financieros en el Informe Anual. Desde ese momento se legisla el modo de incorporar la información no financiera (con especial importancia de la información de sostenibilidad) dentro del Informe Anual. Esto supone una normalización completa del Informe Anual, legislando tanto la información financiera como la información no financiera.

El objetivo de esta investigación es analizar los indicadores de sostenibilidad incluidos por las sociedades cotizadas españolas en sus EINF tras esta Ley, valorar las mejores alternativas entre todas las posibles, y emitir propuestas para mejorar su presentación.

Para realizarlo nos basamos en los estudios empíricos previos sobre los EINF emitidos hasta el momento y un estudio realizados ahora para observar la forma de presentar los indicadores.

Este estudio analiza los indicadores sugeridos por la CNMV y AECA -que son los recomendados por la Ley 11/2018- y los utilizados en el EINF por los grupos del IBEX 35.

El trabajo se organiza en esta introducción, seguida del apartado 2, donde se analiza la legislación, presente y futura del EINF. Los apartados 3 y 4 desarrollan respectivamente una

revisión de los análisis empíricos realizados hasta el momento, y el llevado a cabo en esta investigación. El apartado 5 se reserva al grueso del artículo con la identificación de las principales características de los informes emitidos por los grupos españoles para, a partir de ellos, proponer trece modificaciones legislativas para mejorar la presentación del documento en el futuro. El trabajo termina con las conclusiones recogidas en el apartado 6.

## II. NORMALIZACIÓN PRESENTE Y FUTURA

El vigente modo de presentar el EINF en España -según la Directiva 2014/95/UE- aparece recogido en la “Ley 11/2018, de 28 de diciembre, por la que se modifica el Código de Comercio, el texto refundido de la Ley de Sociedades de Capital aprobado por el Real Decreto Legislativo 1/2010, de 2 de julio, y la Ley 22/2015, de 20 de julio, de Auditoría de Cuentas, en materia de información no financiera y diversidad”.

Además de esta norma, de obligado cumplimiento, el Ministerio de Asuntos Económicos y Transformación Digital ha creado una “Guía sobre información no financiera” (ICAC: 2020), de aplicación voluntaria por parte de las empresas y grupos. Desde que las entidades empezaron a elaborar los primeros EINF se recibieron en el Ministerio de Asuntos Económicos y Transformación Digital diversas consultas sobre la aplicación de la Ley y la forma de dar un mejor cumplimiento a las exigencias de la misma. Por ello, el Ministerio, con el fin de facilitar la aplicación práctica de la norma, optó por elaborar una guía con mero valor informativo, en la que da respuesta a las cuestiones consultadas.

A estos dos documentos actuales, hay que sumar las modificaciones futuras que puede tener esta legislación. La Ley 11/2018 se basa en la Directiva 2014/95/UE del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo, de 22 de octubre de 2014. Ante las deficiencias informativas reconocidas por la Unión Europea, el año 2020 se inició un proceso de consulta pública en el ámbito de la Unión Europea para la revisión de la Directiva, proceso

que culminó en abril de 2021 con la presentación por parte de la Comisión Europea de la propuesta de revisión de la Directiva. La nueva Directiva ya ha visto la luz, e incluye un conjunto de novedades relevantes que afectan a la contabilidad y a la auditoría.

La nueva Directiva sobre Informes de Sostenibilidad, “Corporate Sustainability Reporting Directive” (CSRD), se aprobó el 14 de diciembre de 2022, fue publicada en el DOUE el 16 de diciembre de 2022 y entró en vigor el 6 de enero de 2023.

Las principales novedades de la Directiva CSRD son las siguientes:

- Especifica con más detalle el contenido de la información que debe ser incorporada.
- Exige la verificación de esta información.
- Establece un formato electrónico único de presentación.
- Referencia a unos estándares europeos de sostenibilidad propios para la Unión Europea, que actualmente están en Borrador, y que estarán aprobados en junio 2023.
- Obliga a incorporar el Informe de Sostenibilidad en el Informe de Gestión, eliminando la alternativa de presentación en documento separado.
- Respecto a detalles formales, en vez de utilizar el término de información no financiera, se refiere a información de sostenibilidad.
- El ámbito de aplicación es mayor, incluso a PYMES e incluso a empresas no comunitarias que actúen en la Unión Europea.

El aspecto más importante de la Directiva 2022 es que se aplicará a un número mayor de empresas, porque los límites de aplicación han descendido, tanto es así, que cuando termine el proceso de aplicación escalonada en 2024-2028, la Directiva 2022 se aplicará a 49.000 empresas frente a las 12.000 obligadas con la Directiva de 2014. La nueva Directiva sobre Informes de Sostenibilidad se va a empezar a aplicar en el año 2024 y terminará de empezar a aplicarse en 2028. A partir del 1 de enero de 2024, para las grandes empresas de interés público con más de 500 empleados, las cuales ya estaban sujetas a la

Directiva información no financiera, con lo que tendrá que presentar los informes en el año 2025.

A partir del 1 de enero del año 2025 para las grandes empresas con más de 250 empleados y/o 40.000.000 de euros en facturación y/o 20.000.000 de euros en activos total, las cuales actualmente no están sujetos a la directiva de información no financiera, por lo que tendrán que presentar los informes a partir del año 2026. Por último, en esta misma fecha deberá ser aplicada por las pequeñas y medianas empresas cotizadas, eso sí, las PYMES podrán optar por no exponer esta información hasta 2028.

Las subsidiarias estarán exentas si su empresa matriz incluye a esta en su informe que cumple con el CSRD. Las microempresas que cotizan en bolsa y las PYMES que no cotizan en bolsa quedan fuera del alcance de la Directiva, pero pueden aplicar las disposiciones de forma voluntaria.

Las subsidiarias exentas, las PYMES no cotizadas y las microempresas no tienen la obligación de ofrecer información, pero en la medida que algunas pueden formar parte de la cadena de valor de otras más grandes, también tendrán que informar indirectamente a través de ellas.

La legislación española tendrá que adaptarse a todos los contenidos de fondo y forma que establece la nueva Directiva. El legislador deberá adaptar la Ley 11/2018, y el resto de normativa, a estos nuevos contenidos antes del 6 de julio de 2024, porque este es el plazo establecido por la Directiva para adecuarla a cada legislación (art. 5 Directiva CSRD).

La importancia de la nueva Directiva, y la aplicación masiva a un número mucho mayor de empresas, es tal que el Instituto de Contabilidad y Auditoría de Cuentas (ICAC) ha constituido un Comité consultivo de sostenibilidad a través del Real Decreto 20/2022. Esto se produce porque ha considerado necesario que en el seno del ICAC se instrumentalice un mecanismo, a través del cual, pueda formarse la posición española respecto al contenido de estas futuras normas en el cual estén representadas los contables y auditores, para que puedan desarrollar su cometido en el futuro proceso de elaboración de estas normas, tal y

como actualmente ocurre en relación con la normativa contable y la auditoría en los comités del ICAC.

Respecto a la auditoría, también existen esfuerzos renovadores por medio del organismo The International Auditing and Assurance Standards Board (IAASB) que emite las International Standards of Auditing, dependiente del International Federation of Accountants (IFAC) y que tiene un proyecto de coordinación con el International Accounting Standard Board (IASB). El IAASB se reúne periódicamente en el Sustainability Assurance Consulting Group para mejorar la revisión de la información de sostenibilidad, social y medioambiental.

Teniendo en cuenta que van a realizarse próximamente modificaciones en la legislación contable y de auditoría, esta investigación pretende ofrecer propuestas para ayudar a mejorárlas.

### III. ESTUDIOS EMPÍRICOS PREVIOS

Desde comienzos del siglo XXI, la investigación empírica sobre información no financiera se ha caracterizado por tres dimensiones: la primera de contenidos, la segunda de forma de presentarlo y la tercera de metodología descriptiva del método de análisis. Por un lado, los estudios han relacionado la información no financiera, y en muchos casos identificado y confundido, con la información narrativa y voluntaria (Abed, *et. al.*, 2016: 338-339; Álvarez, *et. al.*, 2012: 9-11; Beattie, 2014: 110; Beattie, *et. al.*, 2004: 208).

Por otro lado, los estudios se han centrado tanto en el análisis de la información expresada en formato literal, como la basada en indicadores (Abed, Al-Najjar y Roberts, 2016: 338-339; Álvarez, *et. al.*, 2012: 9-11; Beattie, *et. al.*, 2004: 208; Dienes, *et. al.*, 2016: 164-165).

Por último, la investigación empírica de la información no financiera se ha sustentado en dos metodologías básicas: determinar cuáles son los contenidos más frecuentes –sobre qué se informa y la calidad de este tipo de información–sobre qué se debería informar- (Beattie, *et. al.*, 2004: 208; Álvarez, *et. al.*, 2012: 9-11; Beattie, 2014: 110;

Abed, et. al., 2016: 338-339; Dienes, et. al., 2016: 164-165).

Los resultados de estos trabajos intentan responder a tres preguntas:

- ¿Qué consecuencias económicas tienen las prácticas divulgativas en términos de impacto sobre el valor de mercado? (Hussainey, et. al., 2003; Schleicher, et. al., 2007; Banghøj y Plenborg, 2008; Hussainey y Walker, 2009; Hussainey y Aal-Eisa, 2009; Li, 2010; Muslu, et. al., 2015; Khan, et. al., 2016);
- ¿Cómo influyen los gestores sobre el contenido y formato de los informes, mediante estrategias de comunicación vinculadas a la manipulación de los textos? (Rutherford, 2003; Clatworthy y Jones, 2003, 2006; Courtis, 2004; Balata y Breton, 2005; Li, 2008; Yeoh, 2010; Schleicher y Walker, 2010; Abed, et. al., 2011; Schleicher, 2012; Cho, et. al., 2012; Babío, et. al., 2013; Falschlunger, et. al., 2015; Suárez, et. al., 2019). Dentro de este apartado se encuentra la teoría de *impression management*, entendida como la presencia de determinadas estrategias de comunicación que ocultan una mala gestión (Sydserff y Weetman, 2002), tales como aumentar el tamaño o la complejidad de los informes o sesgar su contenido hacia las noticias positivas (Bloomfield, 2008);
- ¿Qué se informa y sobre qué se debería informar? (Beattie, 2014: 126).

Dentro de esta última pregunta, son relevantes para esta investigación los estudios que observan qué índices o indicadores de información no financiera son mejores (Leventis y Weetman, 2004; Hossain, et. al. y, 2005; Flöstrand y Ström, 2006; Aljifri y Hussainey, 2007; O'Sullivan, et. al., 2008; Hossain y Hammami, 2009; Frías et. al., 2013; Rodríguez y Noguera, 2014; Alji-fri, et. al., 2014; Elshandidy, et. al., 2015; Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, et. al., 2017).

Nuestra investigación se centra en los aspectos de cómo se debería informar el EINF, pero para ello debe basarse en conocer lo que se informa en ese documento por parte de las empresas y grupos empresariales.

La mejor forma de observar el modo de presentar la información de los EINF publicados por las sociedades cotizadas españolas es recurrir a los dos trabajos realizados por Ernst & Young (2019; 2020) con el nombre genérico de “Rethinking Sustainability. Los resultados de este estudio lo completamos con el realizado por Ibáñez (2011), la observación directa de los EINF de las empresas españolas y los resultados del estudio empírico realizado en esta investigación.

#### IV. ESTUDIO EMPÍRICO

Nuestro estudio empírico se centra en observar cómo se expresan los indicadores no financieros incluidos (a) en la Guía para la elaboración del informe de gestión de las sociedades cotizadas elaborado por la Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores (CNMV: 2013), (b) en el Modelo sobre información integrada de la Asociación Española de Contabilidad y Administración de Empresas (AECA: 2020) y (c) en los EINF publicados por las empresas y grupos cotizados españoles, para identificar cuáles son de todos ellos los más útiles, y como deberían ser definidos y expresados para tener más utilidad.

El estudio empírico está justificado por el Preámbulo de la Ley 11/2018 cuando afirma que es necesario ampliar la información literal con unos indicadores adecuados. La muestra también se justifica en el Preámbulo II cuando señala a las Guías de CNMV y AECA como los ejemplos más representativos de indicadores consensuados por organismos españoles.

El artículo 2 de la Directiva 2014/95/UE recogía el mandato a la Comisión Europea de elaborar unas directrices no vinculantes sobre la metodología aplicable a la presentación de información no financiera, incluyendo unos indicadores clave de resultados no financieros de carácter general y sectorial, teniendo en cuenta las mejores prácticas existentes, la evolución internacional y los resultados de iniciativas conexas en la Unión Europea. En cumplimiento de dicho mandato, mediante la Comunicación de la Comisión (2017/C 215/01) se aprobaron en mayo de 2017 las Directrices sobre la presentación de informes no financieros (Comisión Europea,

2017) que es una metodología para la presentación de informes no financieros. En este sentido, la Ley 11/2018 menciona que “en España se han llevado a cabo iniciativas sobre indicadores fundamentales financieros y no financieros como los propuestos en la Guía para la elaboración del informe de gestión de las entidades cotizadas de la Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores (CNMV: 2013) o en el modelo sobre información integrada de la Asociación Española de

Contabilidad y Administración de Empresas (AECA), recogido en el Cuadro Integrado de Indicadores (CII-FESG) y su taxonomía XBRL, referenciado, a su vez, por la citada Guía de la CNMV”.

Los cuadros 1, 2 y 3 recogen los indicadores no financieros recomendados en la Guía de la CNMV (2013), la forma de expresarlo y su adecuación para una homogeneidad entre diferentes empresas de diferentes sectores.

**Cuadro 1:** Forma De Expresar Los Indicadores Sectoriales Financieros Y Económicos De La CNMV  
(2013: 130-136)

| Nombre   | Expresión                           | Adecuación  |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|
| Número de tiendas  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ingresos en tiendas propias (franquiciadas)/ Ingresos totales  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Aperturas netas de tiendas (Altas – Bajas de tiendas)  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Superficie en metros cuadrados destinada al comercio   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Importe de ventas en las tiendas que han estado abiertas durante los dos últimos ejercicios completos.   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ventas totales / m <sup>2</sup> de superficie comercial  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ventas/plantilla media   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Total ingresos del periodo/total usuarios activos  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de abonados   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Nº de conexiones o cualquier servicio de telecomunicaciones contratados a cierre del ejercicio   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Nº de desconexiones/nº medio de clientes   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Nº de clientes de una determinada categoría o clase / Total base de clientes   | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Minutos de voz consumidos por los clientes   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Nº total de minutos de voz anual por acceso móvil/12 meses   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Costes de captación/ número de accesos   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ingresos por habitaciones / número total de habitaciones disponibles   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de productos en desarrollo  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de ingresos por nuevos productos  | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Volumen de producción que puede obtenerse en un período determinado en una cierta rama de actividad  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje medio que ha realizado una instalación en el período a analizar   | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Evolución de la demanda de gas y electricidad  | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Producción y venta en unidades físicas   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ingresos por ventas/ Unidades vendidas   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Cotizaciones de los distintos productos con influencia significativa sobre los ingresos y gastos de la entidad, por ejemplo de las materias primas | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Beneficio obtenido por una instalación de generación de carbón después de pagar por el costo del combustible de carbón y derechos de emisión       | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Beneficio obtenido por una instalación de generación de gas después de pagar por el costo del combustible  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Energía real generada / Total energía generable a plena carga  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Tiempo disponible / Total periodo (en %)   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |

|  |                                     |   |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|
| Gwh distribuidos   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Red de transporte/ distribución (electricidad/ gas)  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Tiempo de interrupción equivalente de la potencia instalada en media tensión. Es un índice de calidad de suministro (por segmento y país)                              | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Clientes en cada segmento / total (en %)   | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Índice de pérdidas de red  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Disponibilidad de suministro   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Reserva / total embalsable (en %)  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Potencia en construcción   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Coste unitario de extraer un barril de crudo y gas (Coste de extracción del crudo y gas/ Producción)   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Inversiones en exploración / Incorporaciones de reservas probadas por descubrimientos y extensiones  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Cantidades de producto (petróleo crudo, etc.) que sea posible estimar con certeza razonable, que podrán ser producidas   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Adiciones de reservas probadas netas del período / Producción neta del período   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de pozos  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de bloques o área neta (km2)  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Principales activos en los que opera la compañía, señalando el % que se posee, si son operados o no y si fundamentalmente contienen líquidos o gas                     | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Número de puntos de suministro por países  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Importe de los contratos formalizados para ejecución de proyectos de construcción o prestación de servicios  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Cartera de pedidos / Cifra de negocios   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Producción- variación de stocks – exportación + importación  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Km construidos   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de ocupación (m2 arrendados / m2 totales disponibles)   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Número de unidades vendidas y pendiente  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Total toneladas de residuos tratadas/total toneladas de residuos recolectadas  | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Porcentaje de residuos peligrosos/ no peligrosos según destino: valorizados, estabilizados o transferidos a un gestor final/otros destinos                             | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| m3 de agua captada (consumida) y porcentaje de cada origen sobre el total  | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Porcentaje de agua perdida en las redes de distribución  | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Número medio de vehículos/ viajeros diario   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Patrimonio propio no comprometido/Cuantía mínima margen de solvencia   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Patrimonio propio no comprometido - Cuantía mínima margen de solvencia   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| (Gastos de Explotación Netos de Reaseguro +Participación en Beneficios y Extornos- Otros Ingresos Técnicos + Otros Gastos Técnicos)/ Primas Imputadas Netas Reaseguro) | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| (Siniestralidad Neta de Reaseguro + Variación de otras provisiones técnicas)/Primas Imputadas Netas Reaseguro)   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Ratio de Gastos + Ratio de Siniestralidad  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

*Cuadro 2:* Forma de expresar los indicadores de naturaleza social de la CNMV (2013: 136)

| Nombre  | Expresión                           | Adecuación  |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| Tasa de retención de Directivos   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Tasa de retención de plantilla  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Porcentaje de la plantilla con discapacidad   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Nuevos empleados  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Importe de la ayuda social (para gastos médicos y educación de los hijos) por empleado  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Horas de formación por empleado   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva. La expresión en porcentaje con orientación positiva sería Número de empleados que han recibido más de 50 horas * 100 / Número de empleados totales |
| Índice de satisfacción de los clientes  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva. La expresión en porcentaje con orientación positiva sería Número de clientes satisfechos * 100 / Número de empleados totales                       |
| Índice de quejas y reclamaciones de los usuarios  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Índice de absentismo (Porcentaje de jornadas de trabajo perdidas por enfermedad común leve o por falta de motivación para el trabajo) | Porcentaje                          | No orientado en positivo. La expresión en porcentaje con orientación positiva sería Número de horas trabajadas * 100 / Número de horas trabajadas   |
| Jornadas perdidas por accidente laboral o enfermedades profesionales  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

*Cuadro 3:* Forma de expresar los indicadores de gestión ambiental de la CNMV (2013: 137)

Fuente: Elaboración propia

| NOMBRE  | EXPRESIÓN                           | ADECUACIÓN  |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| Emisiones de gases de efecto invernadero (Totales/ Directas / Indirectas)                       | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Emisiones CO2 evitadas  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Potencia instalada libre de emisiones. Importe en MW  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Potencia instalada libre de emisiones. Porcentaje sobre potencia total instalada (%)            | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Producción libre de emisiones. Importe en MWh   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Producción libre de emisiones. Porcentaje sobre producción total (%).                           | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Ahorro de energía. Porcentaje de reducción de MWh adquiridos a la red eléctrica en el ejercicio | Porcentaje                          | No expresado con orientación positiva               |
| Agua reutilizada en toneladas   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

|   |                                     |   |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| Porcentaje de reducción de los vertidos de líquidos a la red, en relación con las cifras del periodo anterior | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de cifra de negocios desarrollada con certificación de calidad/ambiental sobre el total            | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

A continuación, realizamos el mismo análisis con los indicadores incluidos en el Modelo sobre información integrada de la Asociación Española de Contabilidad y Administración de Empresas (AECA: 2020), recogido en el «Cuadro Integrado de Indicadores (CII-FESG) y su taxonomía XBRL».

Los cuadros 4 y 5 recogen los indicadores recomendados por AECA (2020), la forma de expresarlo y su adecuación para una homogeneidad entre diferentes empresas de diferentes sectores.

*Cuadro 4:* Forma de expresar los indicadores ambientales de AECA (2020: 11-12)

| Nombre   | Expresión | Adecuación  |
|--|-----------|---|
| Megavatios·hora (MVH) de energía consumida   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Metros cúbicos (m <sup>3</sup> ) de agua consumida   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Suma de emisiones, directas, de gases de efecto invernadero en toneladas métricas de CO <sub>2</sub> equivalente.          | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Suma de emisiones indirectas, de gases de efecto invernadero en toneladas métricas de CO <sub>2</sub> equivalente          | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Suma de emisiones transporte y distribución en actividades Upstream en toneladas métricas de CO <sub>2</sub> equivalente   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Suma de emisiones transporte y distribución en actividades Downstream en toneladas métricas de CO <sub>2</sub> equivalente | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Toneladas de residuos generados, peligrosos y no peligrosos  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Toneladas de residuos gestionados  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Toneladas de residuos reutilizados, siguiendo procesos específicos   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

*Cuadro 5:* Forma de expresar los indicadores sociales de AECA (2020: 13-14)

| Nombre  | Expresión | Adecuación  |
|---|-----------|---|
| Número de personas con contrato al final del ejercicio                                      | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de mujeres con contrato al final del ejercicio                                       | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de personas con puestos en la alta dirección   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de mujeres en puestos de alta dirección  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de empleados con contrato indefinido en vigor al final del ejercicio                 | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva. Para adecuarlo el indicador podría ser Número de empleados con contrato indefinido en vigor al final del ejercicio * 100 / Número total de empleados |
| Número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental y que hayan | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva. Para adecuarlo el indicador podría   |

|   |                                     |   |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| empezado a disfrutarlo en el ejercicio económico de referencia  |                                     | ser Número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental y que hayan empezado a disfrutarlo en el ejercicio económico de referencia * 100/ Número total de empleados varones |
| Número de empleadas mujeres que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso maternal y que hayan empezado a disfrutarlo en el ejercicio económico de referencia  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de empleados que tienen un grado reconocido de discapacidad al final del ejercicio   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de empleados que participan en actividades laborales consideradas de alto riesgo por los accidentes o enfermedades profesionales potenciales   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de días perdidos como consecuencia de accidentes y enfermedades de todo tipo, (profesionales o no), o cualquier otra razón o circunstancia, por la totalidad de los empleados durante el ejercicio   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número total de empleados que abandonan voluntariamente el puesto de trabajo durante el ejercicio   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de contratos nuevos – (número de jubilaciones + número de bajas voluntarias + número de despidos)  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número medio de años de permanencia de todos los empleados  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número total de horas de formación recibidas por los empleados durante el año   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de empleados de la entidad o el grupo cuyas condiciones laborales están basadas en los convenios colectivos, dividido por el número total de empleados de la entidad o el grupo, y dicha división multiplicarla por cien   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adequado  |
| Número de incidentes por incumplimiento de la regulación legal con resultado de multa, sanción o amonestación   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de denuncias a causa de incidentes con los proveedores por razones de carácter laboral, social o medioambiental  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de proveedores que aplican una política de diligencia debida al respecto del suministro a la empresa de minerales procedentes de zonas en conflicto  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número medio de días entre la fecha de factura y la fecha de pago (proveedores y acreedores por prestación de servicios)  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de incidentes durante el año en los que se hayan visto menoscabados los Derechos Humanos como consecuencia de las actuaciones de la empresa, habiéndose constatado esos hechos en un procedimiento de reclamación, arbitraje, o judicial, con resultado de condena, sanción o amonestación | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |
| Número de actuaciones y medidas vigentes en materia de respecto a los Derechos Humanos al final del ejercicio.  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva   |

|  |        |   |
|--|--------|---|
| Número de horas de formación recibidas por los empleados durante el año en relación con la lucha contra la corrupción y el soborno                 | Número | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de incidentes y denuncias recibidas en materia de corrupción y soborno con resultado de condena, sanción o amonestación, a lo largo del año | Número | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de actuaciones y medidas vigentes en materia de lucha contra la corrupción y el soborno, al final del ejercicio                             | Número | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

*Fuente: Elaboración propia*

El estudio empírico termina observando cómo se han calculado los indicadores incluidos en el EINF publicados por las empresas cotizadas españolas, para identificar cuáles son de todos ellos los mejores, y como deberían ser y como se deberían calcular.

El estudio analiza las cuentas anuales consolidadas auditadas y el informe de gestión consolidado de 35 grupos españoles cotizados, así como el EINF, bien insertado en el IG o bien publicado en un informe separado que puede constituirse, a su vez, en informe o memoria de RSC o en IR. Se consultaron, asimismo, tanto el Informe anual integrado y/o Informe anual como

el Informe de RSC, siempre que el grupo lo elabore. Todos los informes corresponden a los ejercicios cerrados a 31 de diciembre de 2018, 2019 y 2020 obtenidos a través de las webs corporativas de los grupos.

Los cuadros 6 y 7 recogen los indicadores utilizados por las empresas y grupos del IBEX 35, la forma de expresarlo y su adecuación para una homogeneidad entre diferentes empresas de diferentes sectores. En este caso, al contrario de los otros análisis, no se han incluido todos los indicadores, sino los más recurrentes, porque así revisamos los indicadores más frecuentes en las empresas cotizadas españolas.

*Cuadro 6:* Forma de expresar los indicadores ambientales publicados por los grupos del IBEX 35

| Nombre  | Expresión | Adecuación  |
|---|-----------|---|
| Uso de energía renovable                                  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Consumo de energía  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Consumo de agua   | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Cantidad de residuos peligrosos y no peligrosos generados | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 3                 | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 2                 | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 1                 | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

*Fuente: Elaboración propia*

*Cuadro 7:* Forma de expresar los indicadores sociales por los grupos del IBEX 35

| Nombre   | Expresión | Adecuación  |
|--|-----------|---|
| Recursos destinados (personales, económicos y otros) | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Remuneraciones medias de la plantilla                | Ratio     | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número total de contratos                            | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de empleados                                  | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de empleados con discapacidad                 | Número    | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |

|   |                                     |   |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| Número de horas de formación  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de horas de formación por empleado   | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de empleados cubiertos por convenio  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de accidentes de trabajo   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de enfermedades profesionales por sector   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Absentismo laboral  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de personas con discapacidad   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Número de categorías profesionales que se reporta   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Remuneraciones medias de Directivos por genero  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Remuneraciones medias de Consejeros por genero  | Ratio                               | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Brecha salarial (global, por edad, categoría y país)  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Aportaciones a fundaciones, entidades sin ánimo de lucro y a otras acciones sociales  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de aportaciones fundaciones, entidades sin ánimo de lucro y a otras acciones sociales sobre el total de los beneficios | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Porcentaje de empleados cubiertos por convenio  | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Total de subvenciones públicas recibidas  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Denuncias por corrupción  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de denuncias recibidas por vulneración de los derechos humanos   | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de quejas resueltas durante el ejercicio   | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Número de quejas recibidas  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de resolución de quejas  | Porcentaje con orientación positiva | Adecuado  |
| Número de despidos  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Número de empleados con discapacidad  | Número                              | No expresado en porcentaje con orientación positiva |
| Porcentaje de hombres y mujeres contratadas   | Porcentaje                          | No orientado en positivo                            |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

El 71,4% de los indicadores expuestos por los grupos y empresas del IBEX 35 están expresados en número (25/35), imposible de comparar entre empresas de diferente tamaño. El 11,4% (4/35) están expresado como un ratio que es difícilmente

comparable entre empresas, aunque existen más posibilidades para ello que el anterior. El 2,8% (1/35) están expresados en porcentaje sin orientación positiva, es decir, ofrecen información en negativo, que requiere un esfuerzo del lector

para saber si un aumento en el dato es positivo o negativo, aunque al estar expresado en porcentaje puede ser comparado con algún cálculo adicional entre diferentes empresas. Por último, el 14,2% (5/35) de los indicadores deben considerarse adecuados porque están expresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva, lo que posibilita la comparación entre diferentes empresas de distintos sectores y tamaños.

Las empresas han vuelto a presentar en número la mayor parte de sus indicadores, más que los de la CNMV, pero menos que AECA. Lo más importante es que las empresas del IBEX 35 han presentado en realidad con indicadores adecuados un porcentaje mayor a los definidos en teoría por los organismos.

La conclusión del análisis es que los datos ofrecidos por AECA están mejor definidos que los de la CNMV, al incluir la forma exacta de calcularlo (por ejemplo número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental y que hayan empezado a disfrutarlo en el ejercicio económico de referencia) y observaciones para homogeneizar su cálculo (por ejemplo, especificando qué se entiende por puesto de alta dirección, incidente, queja o cuestiones relacionadas con el cliente). Sin embargo, los datos de la CNMV están mejor presentados, realizando un esfuerzo en la definición de los indicadores para que aparezcan expresados en forma de ratios y porcentajes para mejorar la comparabilidad, mientras que AECA los presenta mayoritariamente como un número.

El dato más importante del estudio empírico de las empresas del IBEX 35 es que en la actualidad las empresas y grupos presentan con indicadores comparables en un porcentaje mayor que los especificados en los dos organismos, por lo que se puede afirmar que la exposición es mejor en la realidad; esperemos que siga mejorando esa exposición en el futuro.

Para que un conjunto de indicadores fuese útil, cada uno de ellos tendría que (a) tener el alto nivel de definición y complementarlo con consideraciones para que toda empresa sepa cómo calcularlo y todo usuario supiera entenderlo, como hace AECA y (b) estar

presentado en forma de porcentaje con orientación positiva para que pudiera ser comparable entre empresas y grupos de diferentes tamaños y sectores.

Los resultados del análisis son los siguientes. La CNMV presentó 80 indicadores en total: 60 indicadores económicos (CNMV, 2013: 130-135), 10 indicadores de naturaleza social (CNMV, 2013: 136) y 10 indicadores de gestión ambiental (CNMV, 2013: 137).

Respecto al modo que tiene el organismo de presentar los indicadores no financieros, identificamos que el 48,75% están expresados en número (39/80), imposible de comparar entre empresas de diferente tamaño. El 28,75% (23/80) están expresados como una ratio que es difícilmente comparable entre empresas, aunque existe más posibilidades para ello que el anterior.

El 12,5% (10/80) están expresados en porcentaje sin orientación positiva, es decir, ofrecen información que requiere un esfuerzo del lector para saber si un aumento en el dato es positivo o negativo, aunque al estar expresado en porcentaje puede ser comparado con algún cálculo adicional entre diferentes empresas. Por último, el 10% (8/80) de los indicadores deben considerarse adecuados porque están expresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva, lo que posibilita la comparación entre diferentes empresas de distintos sectores y tamaños.

Se da la paradoja que los porcentajes están en orden inverso de adecuación. Son más recurrentes lo menos relevantes porque, aunque más fáciles de definir teóricamente, son los que menos comparabilidad proporcionan. El resto de los indicadores evolucionan disminuyendo la recurrencia al ascender el nivel de comparabilidad.

La segunda parte del análisis se centra en los indicadores recomendados por AECA (2020) recogidos en el «Cuadro Integrado de Indicadores (CII-FESG) y su taxonomía XBRL. Presenta 33 indicadores no financieros de los cuales 9 son ambientales (AECA, 2020: 11-12) y 24 sociales (AECA, 2020: 13-14). El 97% de los indicadores están expresados en número (32/33), imposible

de comparar entre empresas de diferente tamaño, mientras que únicamente el 3% (1/33) de los indicadores deben considerarse adecuados porque están expresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva, lo que posibilita la comparación entre diferentes empresas de distintos sectores y tamaños. Ningún indicador está expresado como ratio ni como un porcentaje sin orientación positiva.

El estudio empírico termina observando cómo se expresan los indicadores incluidos en el EINF publicados por las empresas cotizadas españolas.

El estudio analiza el EINF de los 35 grupos españoles cotizados en el IBEX 35, en los ejercicios cerrados a 31 de diciembre de 2018, 2019 y 2020, obtenidos a través de las webs corporativas de los grupos.

El 71,4% de los indicadores expuestos por los grupos del IBEX 35 están expresados en número, el 11,4% están expresados como una ratio, el 2,9% están expresados en porcentaje sin orientación positiva y, por último, el 14,3% de los indicadores deben considerarse adecuados porque están expresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva, lo que posibilita la comparación entre empresas de distintos sectores y tamaños.

El cuadro 8 recoge la comparativa de la forma de expresar los indicadores de la CNMV, AECA y grupos del IBEX 35. Los grupos empresariales han presentado la mayor parte de sus indicadores en número, más que los de la CNMV, pero menos que AECA. Lo más importante es que los grupos han presentado en realidad un porcentaje mayor con indicadores adecuados a los definidos en teoría por los organismos.

**Cuadro 8.** Comparativa de la forma de expresar los indicadores de la CNMV, AECA y grupos del IBEX 35

| Forma De Expresarlo                 | Cnmv   | Aeca | Grupos Consolidados Ibex 35 |
|-------------------------------------|--------|------|-----------------------------|
| Número                              | 48,75% | 97%  | 71,4%                       |
| Ratio                               | 28,75% | -    | 11,4%                       |
| Porcentaje                          | 12,5%  | -    | 2,9%                        |
| Porcentaje con orientación positiva | 10%    | 3%   | 14,3%                       |

Fuente: Elaboración propia

La conclusión del análisis es que los datos ofrecidos por AECA están mejor definidos que los de la CNMV, al incluir la forma exacta de calcularlo (por ejemplo, número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental y que hayan empezado a disfrutarlo en el ejercicio económico de referencia) y observaciones para homogeneizar su cálculo (por ejemplo, especificando qué se entiende por puesto de alta dirección, incidente, queja o cuestiones relacionadas con el cliente). Sin embargo, los datos de la CNMV están mejor presentados, realizando un esfuerzo en la definición de los indicadores para que aparezcan expresados en forma de ratios y porcentajes para mejorar la comparabilidad, mientras que AECA los presenta mayoritariamente como un número.

El dato más importante del estudio empírico de los EINF de los grupos del IBEX 35 es que presentan indicadores comparables en un

porcentaje mayor que los especificados en los dos organismos teóricamente, por lo que se puede afirmar que la exposición es mejor en la realidad que la propuesta de los dos organismos; esperemos que siga mejorando esa exposición en el futuro ampliándolos a todos los indicadores.

Para que un conjunto de indicadores fuese útil, cada uno de ellos tendría que (a) tener el alto nivel de definición y complementarlo con consideraciones para que toda empresa sepa cómo calcularlo y todo usuario supiera entenderlo y (b) estar presentado en forma de porcentaje con orientación positiva para que pudiera ser comparable entre empresas y grupos de diferentes tamaños y sectores.

## V. PROPUESTAS PARA MEJORAR LA PRESENTACIÓN DE LOS EINF PUBLICADOS POR LAS COTIZADAS ESPAÑOLAS

En este apartado se analiza el modo en que se han presentado la información en los EINF de los grupos empresariales para, a continuación, proponer mejoras legislativas. Estas mejoras pueden ser incorporadas en la legislación mercantil, aunque mejor podría ser realizada por el segundo nivel de normalización, el ICAC, por ser el organismo público especializado en legislación contable y auditora.

La mejor forma de observar la materialización práctica de los EINF publicados por las sociedades cotizadas españolas es recurrir a los dos trabajos realizados por Ernst & Young (E&Y: 2019; 2020) con el nombre genérico de *Rethinking Sustainability*, al realizado por Ibáñez (2021), a la observación directa de los EINF de las empresas españolas y a los resultados de los dos estudios empíricos propios realizado en esta investigación.

Ante las deficiencias de comparabilidad y presentación detectadas en todos estos estudios, en esta investigación se ofrecen cuatro propuestas de mejora en la legislación y práctica empresarial.

### 5.1 Extensión del documento

Tenemos dudas razonables de que siempre se cumpla que la cantidad y calidad de la información están positivamente relacionadas (esto es compartido por Botosan, 1997: 324; Bravo et al., 2009: 268), es más, pensamos que la información clara y sintética es la más adecuada para la toma de decisiones. La sobrecarga informativa va en detrimento de su calidad, a pesar de que las grandes compañías continúan aumentando la longitud de sus informes anuales (Deloitte, 2019: 172; PriceWatherhouseCoopers [PwC], 2019: 7).

La extensión media de los EINF publicados en 2019 por las empresas del IBEX 35 fue de 142 páginas, teniendo más del 72% de los EINF una extensión igual o superior a 80 páginas (E&Y, 2020: 41).

En función de la modalidad de reporte elegida, su extensión varía notablemente, teniendo los EINF básicos 74 páginas de media, mientras que los informes integrados y los EINF ampliados, 193 y 205 páginas de media respectivamente. La extensión media de los informes publicados en 2019 de todas las categorías fue de 142 páginas, teniendo el 72% de los EINF (frente al 48% en 2018) más de 80 páginas, el 22% (frente al 35% en 2018) entre 50 y 80 páginas y sólo el 6% (frente al 16% en 2018) entre 20 y 50 páginas (E&Y, 2020: 41). Por tanto, se puede observar un considerable aumento de la extensión media de los EINF publicados en 2019 con respecto al año 2018.

La legislación mercantil se caracteriza por una ausencia de estructura normalizada para integrar el EINF, lo que reduce la comparabilidad y aumenta la sobrecarga informativa. La excesiva extensión de la información no financiera observada en los EINF analizados tiene su origen en la inclusión de contenidos innecesarios para la comprensión, estudio y objetivos perseguidos de la información. La publicación de contenidos, algunos relevantes pero otros irrelevantes, de compleja comprensión e interpretación, “incrementa el coste de su tratamiento, consulta y análisis” (AECA, 2010: 34).

Esto no es deseable. El legislador debería establecer una estructura normalizada, que incluyera la información que debe recoger un EINF. Si el ICAC estableciera claramente cuáles son los contenidos que se deben incluir, las empresas no incorporarían información excesiva, que en muchos casos lo que quieren conseguir es abrumar con unos datos que despisten al usuario sobre las desventajas de la empresa, poniendo el acento en las materias que la empresa prefiere ofrecer.

Recordemos que el EINF ya no es voluntario, donde sí tendría sentido ofrecer información de más, sino que el legislador ha elegido ciertos contenidos que se deben exponer.

Nuestra propuesta es que el legislador establezca una estructura normalizada del EINF donde no sólo estén regulados los contenidos sino también los indicadores para que quede clara la

información que las empresas deben ofrecer, y no se exceda sus contenidos. Con esta medida pretendemos que las entidades ofrezcan una información concreta y homogénea en vez de un excesivo cúmulo de contenidos dispersos y distintos en cada compañía.

Si el EINF sólo incluye información no financiera, y no toda ella, sino exclusivamente la que ha establecido la Ley 11/2018, serán documentos más breves que los utilizados hasta ahora, lo que redundará en una mejor ubicación de los contenidos, y una mayor capacidad informativa al incorporar datos relevantes y ordenados.

## 5.2 Obligatoriedad

En España han existido dos etapas en la caracterización de la información no financiera: voluntariedad (hasta 2017) y mandato legislativo (a partir de 2017).

Antes de que alcanzara el consenso internacional normativo, las empresas cotizadas ya ofrecían datos no financieros de forma voluntaria (Robb, *et al.*, 2001: 74; Leventis y Weetman, 2004: 309). La globalización, el mayor acceso al mercado de capitales y la creciente internacionalización de las empresas supuso una predominancia de información de los *stakeholders* (grupos de interés) frente a los *shareholders* (Laudal, 2011).

En este contexto es necesario complementar la información de carácter financiero de los estados financieros con información no financiera, pues ambos contenidos son esenciales para ofrecer la información demandada por los grupos de interés (Reverte, 2015; Salido *et al.*, 2018; García *et al.*, 2019).

El creciente interés de los *stakeholders* para ser informados de un gran número de aspectos de las empresas –no únicamente de los rendimientos empresariales presentes– provocó que las empresas comenzasen a divulgar información no financiera (Beyer, *et al.*, 2010: 311; Dumay, *et al.*, 2016: 177; Enamul, 2017: 246; Akisik y Graham, 2019: 336). Por una parte, los inversores necesitan información no financiera de calidad la cual les ayude a determinar los posibles riesgos que podrían afectar a sus inversiones (García et

al., 2019). Por otra parte, los grupos de interés son conscientes de la necesidad de una economía mundial que combine la protección del planeta y la justicia social con la rentabilidad a largo plazo (Reverte, 2015).

Aunque algunas empresas comenzaron a divulgar voluntariamente información no financiera debido a la creciente demanda informativa, cada vez más compañías la ofrecen porque está siendo exigida progresivamente por los organismos públicos a través de la regulación legal.

La segunda etapa, caracterizada por existir mandato legislativo, empezó en España con la entrada en vigor del Real Decreto-ley 18/2017 y llega hasta la actualidad. La entrada en vigor de ese texto supuso pocas modificaciones, porque las empresas eligieron qué reportar y, además, lo hicieron con poco alcance y profundidad.

El cambio más transcendente en esta fase llegó con la Ley 11/2018, de 28 de diciembre; por primera vez en la historia, un grupo de empresas que cumplían ciertos criterios requeridos por la Ley tendrían que depositar en el Registro Mercantil no sólo su Estados Financieros y su IG, sino también su EINF. Los EINF fueron realizados de forma masiva en 2018 y 2019 con los contenidos fijados en la Ley, pero lo hicieron con una gran heterogeneidad (sobre todo en el modo de calcular los indicadores no financieros). Esta heterogeneidad dificultaba la comparabilidad entre compañías y, en consecuencia, la posibilidad de obtener conclusiones sobre el desempeño y el posicionamiento de las compañías en materia de sostenibilidad.

Establecer la obligatoriedad en la presentación de la información no financiera tiene importantes ventajas, la fundamental es que todas las empresas obligadas a ello la presenten. Sin embargo, el legislador no debería limitarse a esta regulación, pues la satisfacción de la utilidad de los usuarios requiere profundizar en la normalización. El futuro debe pasar por limitar la heterogeneidad de la información presentada. La legislación deberá, igual que antes obligó a presentar, en el futuro deberá obligar a presentar

cada indicador de una determinada manera, pues así se podrá comparar interempresarialmente.

Nuestra propuesta es, por tanto, aumentar la regulación del EINF, obligando no sólo a presentar unos contenidos, sino también a presentar los contenidos e indicadores según una normalización detallada: indicando su forma de cálculo y de donde obtener los datos de cada componente de la fórmula.

Con un mayor nivel de normalización en el cálculo de los indicadores se pretende alcanzar un doble objetivo. Por un lado, informar de manera más objetiva, incrementando la credibilidad y comparabilidad de los datos, así como su relevancia. Por otro, limitar parcialmente la subjetividad en el proceso de elaboración de la información divulgada, derivada de la interrelación de ésta con los potenciales beneficios empresariales. Hay que tener presente que la información no financiera puede ser utilizadas por los responsables de la organización con el fin de manipular la percepción que los usuarios tienen sobre la compañía. Al igual que ocurre con la información financiera, cuanto más regulado esté el detalle del proceso de divulgación de la información, menores posibilidades de elección por parte de las empresas emisoras de esta información.

### *5.3 Normas contables específicas*

Trabajos empíricos (Beattie, 2014: 126; Elshandidy, et al., 2015; Reverte, 2015; Salido et al., 2018; García et al., 2019) han demostrado que la información no financiera presentada por las sociedades no cumple con las expectativas de los usuarios, principalmente por dificultades en la comparabilidad de la información. Además, las empresas obligadas a facilitar la información no financiera se encuentran con dificultades derivadas de la concreción de los requisitos legislativos actuales respecto a la información que debería publicar. Ambas deficiencias de la información no financiera, actualmente ofrecida por las empresas, se subsanaría con la emisión de unas normas contables específicas para que esa información sea relevante y verificable.

Nuestra propuesta es que el ICAC emita unas normas contables específicas de la información no financiera, donde se establezca y concrete con detalle, tanto la información que las empresas están obligadas a publicar, como la manera en que ellas tienen que presentarla.

La emisión de las normas contables específicas debe planificarse en tres niveles: (a) definición de cualidades, (b) definición de los contenidos para medir cada una de las cualidades y (c) establecimiento de una presentación que permita la comparabilidad. Este proceso debe ser racional, cosa que no ha podido producirse hasta ahora porque la exposición tiene su origen en una información voluntaria nacida de la práctica empresarial en vez de en la normalización.

En primer lugar, el legislador debe clarificar cuáles son las cualidades que debe tener la empresa para ser responsable en sostenibilidad frente al conjunto de la sociedad. Esto no ha ocurrido hasta ahora donde el legislador obliga a incluir indicadores sin que quedara claro qué cualidad está intentando medir (sólo define el concepto más general, las cuestiones) y sin pronunciarse sobre si esa cualidad es verdaderamente representativa de la responsabilidad.

Evidentemente las normas contables tienen que actualizar periódicamente la forma de cálculo de los indicadores, pero previamente debe analizarse qué significa ser sostenible en cada área. Por ejemplo, antes de indagar cómo se calcula las emisiones de dióxido de carbono, hay que plantearse si ese valor es el verdaderamente importante para considerar a una entidad como no contaminante.

Igualmente hay que definir las variables a informar para todo tipo de empresas porque en algunas la cantidad de dinero desperdiciada en su cafetería es una información poco relevante, mientras que para otras sí puede serlo. Por tanto, generalizar estos contenidos no aumenta la relevancia.

La normalización contable en esta fase tiene repercusiones sobre el futuro productivo y comercial de las empresas e incluso sobre la

economía de los países. La Comisión Europea envío a los estados miembros el Borrador de norma *Taxonomy*, el 31-12-2021, que considera a la energía nuclear y al gas natural (a pesar de que la primera produce residuos y la segunda gases de efecto invernadero) como fuentes renovables (a la altura de la eólica y la solar), al igual que apoya Francia, Bulgaria y Polonia (Alemania sólo quiere que se considere renovable al gas), y la opinión contraria de España. Si el ICAC estableciera a la energía nuclear y al gas como renovables en el EINF, los inversores del mercado de capital preferirían empresas que las explotaran frente a otras, pero si el ICAC los considerara como no sostenibles convertiría a las inversiones de esos negocios en menos atractivas. Igual ocurrirá con los empresarios que se planteen invertir en una planta de energía nuclear, pues tendrán más clientes si el EINF del ICAC los considera fuentes deseables que si establece lo contrario.

En segundo lugar, el legislador debe definir la información literal y los indicadores para medir cada una de las cualidades. El principal reto del EINF para los próximos ejercicios es reducir la heterogeneidad en la forma de reportar. La información no financiera tiene complejidades distintas de la financiera, la principal es que hay tantas unidades de medida como aspectos a evaluar. En la información financiera tenemos una moneda que sirve de tipo de cambio entre las operaciones, mientras que en la información no financiera es necesario medir la brecha salarial, número de mujeres, número de accidentes, emisiones de CO<sub>2</sub> o consumo de agua, todas ellas con medidas distintas. Para disminuir la heterogeneidad es imprescindible profundizar en la normalización contable de los indicadores para que todas las empresas registren y midan igual cada aspecto de la información no financiera.

En tercer lugar, es necesario presentar toda esta información para que ayude a los usuarios de la información a tomar decisiones, y esto fundamentalmente se obtiene legislando de forma que sea comparable interempresarial y temporalmente. En el momento actual, únicamente es posible realizar la comparación temporal dentro de la misma empresa (siempre que no se haya modificado el indicador o la forma

de calcularlo de un año a otro, entonces ni eso), pero no entre diferentes empresas ya que cada compañía incorpora el indicador más ventajoso, e incluso calcula un mismo indicador de forma distinta.

#### *5.4 Mejora de la comparabilidad de los indicadores*

El EINF debe revelar los contenidos establecidos en la Ley por medio de información literal, pero también, y más importante, por medio de indicadores. La utilización de indicadores clave para aumentar la comparabilidad de la información no financiera está avalada por la legislación mercantil española (artículo 49 Código de Comercio: apartado 6e introducida en la Ley 11/2018) y por los organismos internacionales (German Accounting Standards Board [GASB], 2005: 31-32; IASB, 2010: 37-38; CNMV, 2013: 32-33; IIRC, 2013: 9; GRI: 2015; FRC, 2018: 19).

La Ley 11/2018 establece que la información no financiera presentada en el EINF debería cumplir siete criterios: “comparabilidad, materialidad, relevancia y fiabilidad” (artículo 49 Código de Comercio: apartado 6e), cuando se mencionan los contenidos genéricos del EINF; a continuación, el legislador amplía que la información presentada debe ser “precisa, comparable y verificable”.

De todos los indicadores establecidos por CNMV, AECA y los grupos empresariales españoles (y observados en el estudio empírico del apartado 3), debemos elegir los que cumplan los siete criterios establecidos por el legislador. Los indicadores analizados generalmente cumplen todas las características, las principales dudas existen precisamente en la comparabilidad.

Para que el EINF sea comparable es necesario que lo sea interempresarial y temporalmente. Esto lo tuvo en cuenta el legislador mercantil al establecer que debe “facilitar la comparación de la información, tanto en el tiempo como entre entidades” (artículo 49 Código de Comercio: apartado 6e).

#### 5.4.1 Comparabilidad interempresarial

El 100% de las empresas del IBEX 35 han utilizado indicadores para representar el EINF, tanto en 2019 como en 2018. Eso sí, ha existido una significativa heterogeneidad en la forma de cálculo y presentación de los indicadores.

La forma de calcular los indicadores es tan variable, que el 98% de los indicadores

cuantitativos no financieros del EINF del IBEX 35 tenían más de una forma diferente de medición (Ernst & Young, 2019: 5 y 28). En el cuadro 9 se observa el número de formas de calcular cada indicador cuantitativo aplicado por los EINF de los grupos cotizados en el selectivo.

**Cuadro 9:** Heterogeneidad en el modo de calcular cada indicador del EINF ofrecido por los grupos del IBEX 35

| Número De Formas De Expresar Cada Indicador en Cada Ejercicio Contable | 2018 | 2019 |
|--|------|------|
| Medidas para adaptarse a las consecuencias del cambio climático        | 2    | 4    |
| Medidas de reciclaje, valorización y/o reutilización de residuos       | 2    | 2    |
| Definición de medidas para la eficiencia energética                    | 2    | 2    |
| Medidas para la eficiencia en el consumo de materias primas            | 2    | 2    |
| Efectos actuales de la empresa sobre el medioambiente                  | 2    | 2    |
| Sistema Integrado de Gestión de Residuos                               | 2    | 1    |
| Metas de reducción de GEI  | 2    | 2    |
| Medidas de reducción de GEI  | 2    | 2    |
| Certificación ambiental  | 3    | 3    |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 3                              | 5    | 4    |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 2                              | 4    | 5    |
| Emisiones de efecto invernadero alcance 1                              | 4    | 5    |
| Uso de energía renovable   | 4    | 4    |
| Consumo de energía   | 10   | 6    |
| Consumo de agua  | 7    | 9    |
| Generación de residuos   | 5    | 4    |
| Recursos destinados (personales, económicos y otros)                   | 5    | 4    |
| Medidas de igualdad  | 1    | 2    |
| Remuneraciones medias de la plantilla                                  | 3    | 4    |
| Política o procedimiento para la no discriminación                     | 1    | 1    |
| Accesibilidad universal para las personas con discapacidad             | 2    | 2    |
| Número de empleados con discapacidad                                   | 2    | 2    |
| Número de horas de formación   | 3    | 4    |
| Número de empleados cubiertos por convenio                             | 3    | 3    |
| Número de accidentes de trabajo  | 3    | 6    |
| Plan de Igualdad   | 3    | 4    |
| Desconexión laboral  | 4    | 4    |
| Número de categorías profesionales que se reporta                      | 5    | 5    |
| Fórmulas de cálculo de la brecha salarial                              | 8    | 8    |
| Tipos de desglose de la brecha salarial                                | 9    | 5    |
| Aportaciones a fundaciones y entidades sin ánimo de lucro              | 14   | 11   |
| Denuncias por corrupción   | 2    | 2    |
| Promoción y cumplimiento de las disposiciones de la OIT                | 3    | 3    |
| Denuncias recibidas por vulneración de los DDHH                        | 2    | 4    |
| Impacto en empleo y desarrollo local                                   | 2    | 2    |
| Relaciones con las comunidades locales                                 | 2    | 2    |
| Sistemas de supervisión y auditoría                                    | 3    | 3    |
| Porcentaje de quejas resueltas durante el ejercicio                    | 3    | 3    |
| Número de quejas recibidas   | 3    | 3    |
| Total de subvenciones públicas recibidas                               | 4    | 3    |
| Tipología de impuesto sobre sociedades                                 | 3    | 3    |

|                                       |          |          |
|---------------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Desglose de impuesto sobre sociedades | 3        | 3        |
| Tipología de beneficios               | 3        | 4        |
| Desglose beneficios                   | 3        | 5        |
| TOTAL                                 | 160      | 162      |
| MEDIA PARA LOS 42 INDICADORES         | 3,636364 | 3,681818 |

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de los datos de Ernst & Young (2020: 29)

Para observar un ejemplo de las deficiencias en la comparabilidad interempresarial analizamos la información sobre la brecha salarial de las compañías del IBEX 35 obtenida con los datos de E&Y (2020: 78-80). En el análisis de los datos se han identificado diferentes métodos de cálculo (brecha salarial bruta, ajustada, etc.), así como la inclusión de distintos conceptos (retribución fija, retribución fija y variable, retribución bruta, etc.); además, las empresas han realizado el cálculo de la brecha salarial indistintamente a través de la media o de la mediana al no haberse establecido un criterio normativo concreto. Todas estas alternativas impiden la comparabilidad interempresarial. Pero además de existir diferencias significativas con la forma de calcular el indicador, existen problemas al presentar el indicador de forma distinta. Por ejemplo, con respecto a las formas de reporte de la brecha salarial, en 2019 el 66% de las empresas analizadas informa sobre su brecha salarial combinando diferentes opciones: global, por categoría profesional, edad, país, etc. El 13% de las compañías únicamente presenta la brecha salarial global, otro 9% reporta la brecha salarial por entidad, el 6% presenta la brecha por país y el 6% restante lo hace por categoría profesional.

Estas diferencias de cálculo -en parte basadas en la sensibilidad que supone divulgar este dato- dificulta la comparabilidad entre empresas y grupos.

Nuestra propuesta es que el ICAC defina todos los indicadores, tanto el detalle de su cálculo, como su presentación expresada en porcentaje y con orientación positiva.

La idea de que exista una información no financiera estandarizada es tenida en cuenta por la Directiva, la Ley 11/2018, la CNMV y AECA, la diferencia es que para nuestra propuesta no es suficiente una batería de voluntarios indicadores, sino que deben ser legislados y que sean de

aplicación obligatoria, tanto el cálculo como la presentación.

Al estar definido el detalle de su cálculo por el legislador, todas las empresas calcularían del mismo modo cada indicador. El mejor ejemplo es que si el legislador hubiera definido el indicador de la brecha salarial se hubiera reducido la enorme heterogeneidad en su cálculo y presentación.

Del estudio empírico se ha obtenido como resultado que únicamente el 10% de los indicadores definidos por la CNMV (2013), el 3% de los establecidos por AECA (2020) y el 14,2% de los expuestos por los grupos cotizados del IBEX 35, pueden considerarse adecuados porque están expresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva. Según nuestra propuesta deberían ser todos.

Cuando se presenta un indicador expresado en porcentaje se pueden comparar empresas grandes con pequeñas y de diferentes sectores. El ejemplo de indicador es “Gastos en mecenazgo \* 100/ activo total”, porque es aplicable a todo tipo de empresas y siempre será un aspecto positivo que aumente el indicador. Un indicador ofrecido por algunos grupos del IBEX 35 “Cantidad de dinero invertido en mecenazgo” impide la comparación entre empresas de distinto tamaño porque una misma cantidad de dinero para una empresa grande supone menos esfuerzo que para una PYME.

Si se presentan con orientación positiva, cada vez que observemos que una empresa tenga un dato de un indicador mayor que otro, el usuario de la información podrá visualmente identificar que la primera está cumpliendo más adecuadamente. El ejemplo adecuado es el indicador que muestra la estabilidad laboral calculado por “Número de empleados con contrato indefinido en vigor \* 100/ Número de empleados totales”, de forma que un

aumento en el indicador expresa una mejora en la estabilidad laboral. Por el contrario, no debe utilizarse el indicador “Número de empleados con contratos precarios en vigor \* 100/ Número de empleados totales” pues supone que al aumentar el indicador la situación empeora lo que provoca que los resultados sean menos visuales y comparables.

A continuación, mostramos unos ejemplos de indicadores propuestos por la CNMV (2013: 136) reexpresados en porcentaje con orientación positiva. El indicador “Horas de formación por empleado” expuesto como ratio, debería expresarse “Número de empleados que han recibido más de 50 horas \* 100/ Número de empleados totales”. El Índice de satisfacción de los clientes, expuesto como número, debería expresarse “Número de clientes satisfechos \* 100/ Número de empleados totales”. Igualmente los indicadores sociales de AECA (2020: 13-14) podrían reexpresarse y en vez de utilizar “Número de empleados con contrato indefinido en vigor al final del ejercicio” ofrecer el “Número de empleados con contrato indefinido en vigor al final del ejercicio \* 100/ Número total de empleados”, y en vez del “Número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental” indicar el “Número de empleados varones que han hecho uso de su derecho al permiso parental \* 100/ Número total de empleados varones”

#### *5.4.2 Comparabilidad temporal*

Los datos de Ernst & Young (2019: 2020) muestran que en 2018 y 2019, por ser los primeros años de exposición del EINF, no estaba consolidada la forma de calcular los indicadores, lo que ha llevado a empresas a modificar el procedimiento de cálculo (en muchos casos para intentar mejorar el proceso, en otros para ocultar alguna situación negativa), con la consiguiente dificultad de comparar resultados de un ejercicio económico con los anteriores.

En lo referente a la presentación de la información, el 44% de las compañías del IBEX 35 incluye el evolutivo de todos los indicadores cuantitativos, el 53% presenta la evolución de la

mayoría de los indicadores cuantitativos y el 3% restante no presenta evolutivos, centrándose únicamente en datos del ejercicio contable en cuestión.

Nuestra propuesta es que la comparabilidad temporal se consigue normalizando indicadores que sean perdurables en el tiempo, para que puedan compararse los datos de un año con los anteriores. Pero, además, proponemos que el legislador obligue a las empresas a incluir el evolutivo de todos los indicadores cuantitativos para que así la presentación sea más útil a los usuarios.

Cuando el legislador decide actualizar y modificar un determinado indicador, es necesario reexpresar los datos de ejercicios anteriores presentados a efectos comparativos. Además, las entidades deben combinar datos cuantitativos con explicaciones cualitativas que suministren el contexto adecuado para interpretar tales datos.

## VI. CONCLUSIONES

Las empresas están motivadas para ofrecer información no financiera porque cumplen la Ley, pero también porque mejoran la imagen de la empresa, la diferenciación respecto a la competencia, la satisfacción informativa de los grupos de interés y la posición de la compañía a largo plazo. Sin embargo, también existen potenciales riesgos al ofrecer esta información, principalmente el incremento de costes a corto plazo, la generación de expectativas irreales, el enfoque inadecuado de las prácticas de la empresa para mejorar los indicadores, el desvío de las prácticas y objetivos habituales, y por último, los riesgos de divulgación de información beneficiosa para la competencia. Ante esta situación, las empresas quieren cumplir la Ley, publicando el EINF, pero también tienen motivaciones para ofrecer una información escasa, incompleta, sesgada para que sea favorable a sus intereses, con bajo nivel de utilidad y fiabilidad.

Analizando los EINF publicados por los grupos cotizados españoles podemos afirmar que presentan deficiencias en los ámbitos de la (a) cantidad, (b) calidad, (c) comparabilidad y (d) fiabilidad de la información. En primer lugar, los

EINF son más extensos de lo aconsejable, incrementando el coste de su tratamiento, consulta y análisis. Además, suelen incurrir en información innecesaria para la comprensión, estudio y objetivos perseguidos de la información.

En segundo lugar, están escritos con un enfoque de marketing, ensalzando los aspectos positivos y omitiendo los negativos. En tercer lugar, son informes muy heterogéneos, con falta de homogeneidad en la estructura y presentación.

*Cuadro 10:* Propuestas para corregir las deficiencias legislativas del EINF

|                                   | antes de ley<br>11/2018<br>(pasado)   | Ley 11/2018<br>(Presente)   | Propuesta Futura   |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Extensión                         | Extensos sin normalización  | Extensos sin normalización  | Breves por estar normalizados, con datos relevantes y ordenados  |
| Obligatoriedad                    | Voluntaria presentación   | Obligatoria presentación  | Obligatoria presentación de contenidos e indicadores concretos   |
| Normas Contables Específicas      | Ausencia de normas contables específicas  | Ausencia de normas contables específicas  | Emisión de normas contables específicas de la información no financiera con normalización en tres niveles: definición de cualidades, contenidos para cada cualidad y presentación  |
| Comparabilidad De Los Indicadores | Indicadores no legislados<br><br>Indicadores nacidos de la práctica o del consenso.<br><br>Expresados de diferentes formas<br><br>Los indicadores cambian a lo largo del tiempo para adaptarse mejor a la realidad cambiante.<br><br>Algunos presentan evolutivo otros no | Indicadores no legislados<br><br>Indicadores nacidos de la práctica o del consenso.<br><br>Expresados de diferentes formas<br><br>Los indicadores cambian a lo largo del tiempo para adaptarse mejor a la realidad cambiante.<br><br>Algunos presentan evolutivo otros no | Legislación detallada del cálculo y presentación de cada indicador. Presentación expresada en porcentaje y con orientación positiva<br><br>Normalización de indicadores perdurable en el tiempo para que puedan compararse los datos de un año con los anteriores.<br>Obligación de incluir el evolutivo |

Fuente: elaboración propia

El reto para el futuro debe ser conceder mayor valor a la sostenibilidad dentro de la organización.

Para mejorar el bienestar y el desarrollo futuro es necesario incorporar en el lenguaje empresarial los aspectos no financieros, pues cuando un usuario evalúa una compañía debe valorar, tanto

el cuadro 10 resume las propuestas realizadas en esta investigación para corregir las deficiencias observadas.

Las propuestas están basadas en aumentar la normalización de las normas contables y de auditoría.

márgenes económicos, pero también por los aspectos de sostenibilidad, como haber reducido la brecha salarial. Los directores de compras, además de por los indicadores de aprovisionamiento, serían valorados también por la reducción de la huella de carbono de la cadena de suministro. Los directores financieros serán valorados por la presentación de los Estados Financieros, pero también por la presentación del EINF. Los consejeros del Consejo de Administración tendrían la responsabilidad de la información financiera, pero también del cumplimiento de determinados objetivos en materia de sostenibilidad.

Si se consigue que la información no financiera se adapte a las exigencias de los destinatarios de la información, principalmente a consumidores e inversores, será fundamental en la gestión y en las decisiones estratégicas de las compañías, hasta el punto de que marcarán gran parte de la rentabilidad y el rendimiento financiero de las organizaciones.

Llegará un momento en que los inversores asuman que si invierten en una empresa sostenible tienen riesgos atenuados y una seguridad en la rentabilidad a largo plazo, mientras que si invierten en empresas no sostenibles están asumiendo que tienen un mayor riesgo.

Siempre teniendo en cuenta que la finalidad del EINF no debe ser únicamente ofrecer una información de la situación presente de la empresa, sino ayudar a generar una serie de actuaciones futuras dentro de cada empresa, para combinar la protección del planeta y la justicia social con la rentabilidad a largo plazo.

## BIBLIOGRAFÍA

1. Abed, S., Al-Najjar, B. y Roberts, C. (2016). Measuring annual report narratives disclosure: Empirical evidence from forward-looking information in the UK prior the financial crisis. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 31(4), 338-361.
2. Abed, S., Al-Okdeh, S., y Nimer, K. (2011). The inclusion of forecasts in the narrative sections of annual reports and their association with firms characteristics: The case of Jordan. *International Business Research*, 4 (4), 264-271.
3. Acciona (2020). Informe integrado 2020. Disponibles en: <https://www.accionia.com/es/accionistas-inversores/informacion-financiera/informe-anual-integrado/>
4. (2019). Informe integrado 2019. Disponibles en: <https://www.accionia.com/es/accionistas-inversores/informacion-financiera/informe-anual-integrado/>
5. (2018). Informe integrado 2018. Disponibles en: <https://www.accionia.com/es/accionistas-inversores/informacion-financiera/informe-anual-integrado/>
6. ACS (2020). Informe anual integrado 2020. Disponible en: <https://www.grupoacs.com/accionistas-e-inversores/informe-anual/>
7. (2019). Informe anual integrado 2019. Disponible en: <https://www.grupoacs.com/accionistas-e-inversores/informe-anual/>
8. (2018). Informe anual integrado 2018. Disponible en: <https://www.grupoacs.com/accionistas-e-inversores/informe-anual/>
9. Akisik, O. y Graham, G. (2019). Integrated reports, external assurance and financial performance: An empirical analysis on North American firms. *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, 10 (2), 317-350.
10. Aljifri, K., y Hussainey, K. (2007). The determinants of forward-looking information in annual reports of UAE companies. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 22(9), 881-894.
11. Álvarez, M. A., Babío, M. R., Suárez, O., y Vidal, R. (2012). A utilidade da información narrativa: análise do contenido do informe de xestión. *Revista Galega de Economía*, 21(1), 9-31.
12. Asociación Española de Contabilidad y Administración de Empresas [AECA] (2020). *Modelo AECA de información integrada para la elaboración del Estado de Información No Financiera*, Madrid: AECA.
13. (2010). Normalización de la información sobre responsabilidad social corporativa, Madrid: AECA.
14. Babío, M. R., Suárez, O., y Vidal, R. (2013). Audit, audit committees and narrative

- reporting bias. *Revista Galega de Economía*, 22(1), 205-228.
15. Balata, P., y Breton, G. (2005). Narratives vs. numbers in the annual report: Are they giving the same message to the investors? *Review of Accounting and Finance*, 4(2), 5-25.
  16. Banghøj, J., y Plenborg, P. (2008). Value relevance of voluntary disclosure in the annual report. *Accounting and Finance*, 48(2), 159-180.
  17. Beattie, V. (2014). Accounting narratives and the narrative turn in accounting research: Issues, theory, methodology, methods and a research framework. *The British Accounting Review*, 46(2), 111-134.
  18. Beattie, V., McInnes, B., y Fearnley, S. (2004). A methodology for analysing and evaluating narratives in annual reports: A comprehensive descriptive profile and metrics for disclosure quality attributes. *Accounting Forum*, 28(3), 205-236.
  19. Beyer, A., Cohen, D. A., Lys, T. Z. y Walther, B. R. (2010). The financial reporting environment: Review of the re-cent literature. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 50(2-3), 296-343.
  20. Bloomfield, R. (2008). Discussion of "Annual report readability, current earnings, and earnings persistence". *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 45(2-3), 248-252.
  21. Botosan, C. A. (1997). Disclosure level and the cost of equity capital. *The Accounting Review*, 72(3), 323-349.
  22. Bravo, F., Abad, M. C. y Trombetta, M. (2009). Disclosure indices design: Does it make a difference? *Spanish Accounting Review*, 12(2), 253-277.
  23. Cho, C. H., Michelon, G., y Patten, D. M. (2012). Impression management in sustainability reports: An empirical investigation of the use of graphs. *Accounting and the Public Interest*, 12(1), 16-37.
  24. Clatworthy, M. A., y Jones, M. J. (2006). Differential patterns of textual characteristics and company performance in the chairman's statement. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 19(4), 493-511.
  25. (2003). Financial reporting of good news and bad news: Evidence from accounting narratives. *Accounting and Business Research*, 33(3), 171-185.
  26. Comisión Europea (2017). Directrices sobre la presentación de informes no financieros. (Metodología para la presentación de información no financiera). Comunicación de la Comisión. Diario Oficial de la Unión Europea, 2017/C 215/01. Bruselas, Bélgica: Comisión Europea.
  27. Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores (2013). Guía para la elaboración del informe de gestión de las sociedades cotizadas. Madrid: CNMV.
  28. Courtis, J. K. (2004). Corporate report obfuscation: Artefact or phenomenon? *The British Accounting Review*, 36(3), 291-312.
  29. Deloitte (2019). Annual report insights 2019. Surveying FTSE reporting. London, UK: Deloitte.
  30. Dienes, D., Sassen, R. y Fischer, J. (2016). What are the drivers of sustainability reporting? A systematic review. *Sustainability Accounting, Management & Policy Journal*, 7(2), 154-189.
  31. Directiva 2014/95/UE del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo, de 22 de octubre de 2014, por la que se modifica la Directiva 2013/34/UE en lo que respecta a la divulgación de información no financiera e información sobre diversidad por parte de determinadas grandes empresas y determinados grupos. Diario Oficial de la Unión Europea, L 330, de 15-1-2014.
  32. Dumay, J., Bernardi, C., Guthrie, J. y Demartini, P. (2016). Integrated reporting: A structured literature review. *Accounting Forum*, 40(3), 166-185.
  33. Eccles, R. G., y Krzus, M. P. (2010). One report. Integrated reporting for a sustainable strategy. New York, NY: Wiley.
  34. Elshandidy, T., Fraser, I. y Hussainey, K. (2015). What drives mandatory and voluntary risk reporting variations across Germany, UK and US? *The British Accounting Review*, 47(4), 376-394.
  35. Enamul, M. (2017). Why company should adopt integrated reporting? *International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues*, 7(1), 241-248.

36. Ernst & Young (2020). Rethinking Sustainability. III Informe comparativo sobre los Estados de la Información No Financiera (EINF) del IBEX 35, Ernst & Young, Madrid.
37. (2019). Rethinking Sustainability. Estudio comparativo de los estados de información no financiera (EINF) del IBEX 35. Ernst & Young, Madrid.
38. Falschlunger, L. M., Eisl, C., Losbichler, H., y Greil, A. M. (2015). Impression management in annual reports of the largest European companies: A longitudinal study on graphical representations. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*, 16(3), 383-399.
39. Financial Accounting Standards Board (2010). Concepts Statement nº 8. Conceptual framework for financial re-reporting – Chapter 1, The objective of general purpose financial reporting, and Chapter 3, qualitative characteristics of useful financial information (a replacement of FASB Concepts Statements no. 1 and no. 2). Norwalk, CT: FASB.
40. (2006). Preliminary views: Conceptual framework for financial reporting: Objective of financial reporting and qualitative characteristics of decision-Useful financial reporting information. *Financial Accounting Series*, 1260-001. Norwalk, CT: FASB.
41. (2001). Improving business reporting: Insights into enhancing voluntary disclosures. Norwalk, CT: FASB.
42. (1978). Statement of financial accounting concepts no. 1. Objectives of financial reporting by business enterprises. Norwalk, CT: FASB.
43. Financial Reporting Council (2018). Guidance on the strategic report. London, UK: FRC.
44. Flöstrand, P. y Ström, N. (2006). The valuation relevance of non-financial information. *Management Research News*, 29 (9), 580-597.
45. Frías, J. V., Rodríguez, L. y García, I. M. (2013). Explanatory factors of integrated sustainability and financial reporting. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 23(1), 56-72.
46. García, I. M., Martín, P., Granada, M. y Rodríguez, L. (2019). La divulgación de información no financiera en España. *Gestión, Revista de Economía* (69), 15-22.
47. German Accounting Standards Board (2005). Management reporting. German Accounting Standards, GAS 15. Berlin, Germany: GASB.
48. Global Reporting Initiative (2015). G4. Guía para la elaboración de memorias de sostenibilidad. Principios y contenidos básicos. Ámsterdam, Países Bajos: GRI.
49. Goicoechea, E., Gómez-Bezares, F. y Ugarte, J. V. (2019). Integrated reporting assurance: Perceptions of auditors and users in Spain. *Sustainability*, 11(3), 713.
50. García Sánchez, I. M., Martín Zamora, P., Granada Abarzuza, M., & Rodríguez Ariza, L. (2019). La divulgación de información no financiera en España. *Gestión, Revista de Economía* (69), 15-22.
51. Hossain, M., Ahmed, K., y Godfrey, J. M. (2005). Investment opportunity set and voluntary disclosure of prospective information: A simultaneous equations approach. *Journal of Business Finance & Accounting*, 32(5-6), 871-907.
52. Hossain, M., y Hammami, H. (2009). Voluntary disclosure in the annual reports of an emerging country: The case of Qatar. *Advances in Accounting*, 25(2), 255-265.
53. Hussainey, K., y Aal-Eisa, J. (2009). Disclosure and dividend signaling when sustained earnings growth declines. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 24 (5), 445-454.
54. Hussainey, K., Schleicher, T., y Walker, M. (2003). Undertaking large-scale disclosure studies when AIMR-FAF ratings are not available: The case of prices leading earnings. *Accounting and Business Research*, 33(4), 275-294.
55. Hussainey, K., y Walker, M. (2009). The effects of voluntary disclosure and dividend propensity on prices leading earnings. *Accounting and Business Research*, 39(1), 275-294.
56. Laudal, T. (2011). Drivers and barriers of CSR and the size and internationalization of firms. *Social Responsibility Journal* (2), 234-256.
57. Ibáñez Jiménez, E.M. (2021). "Análisis de los modelos de integración de la información financiera y no financiera en los grupos

- cotizados del IBEX 35”, Revista Galega de Economía 2021, 30 (2), 7303 ISSN-e 2255-5951.
58. Instituto de Censores Jurados de Cuentas de España. (2019). Guía de actuación sobre encargos de verificación del Estado de Información No Financiera. Guía de actuación 47. Madrid: ICJCE.
59. Instituto de Contabilidad y Auditoría de Cuentas (2020): Guía informativa sobre la aplicación de la ley 11/2018, de 28 de diciembre, por la que se modifica el código de comercio, el texto refundido de la ley de sociedades de capital aprobado por el real decreto legislativo 1/2010, de 2 de julio, y la ley 22/2015, de 20 de julio, de auditoría de cuentas, en materia de información no financiera y diversidad, ICAC, Madrid.
60. International Airlines Group (2018). Informe y cuentas anuales 2018. Disponible en: <https://www.iairgroup.com/es-ES/inversores-y-accionistas/resultados-e-informes>
61. The International Auditing and Assurance Standards Board (IAASB) (2013). International Standard on Assurance Engagements (ISAE) 3000 revised, assurance engagements other than audits or reviews of historical financial information.
62. Integrated Reporting Council. (2013). International <IR> framework. London, UK: IRC.
63. International Accounting Standards Board. (2010). Management commentary. IFRS Practice Statement. London, UK: IASB.
64. (2005). Management commentary. IASB Discussion Paper. London, UK: IASB.
65. (1989). Marco conceptual para la preparación y presentación de los estados financieros. London, UK: IASB.
66. International Integrated Reporting Council [IIRC] (2015). Assurance on <IR>. Overview of feedback and call to action. London, UK: IRC.
67. (2013): International Framework, London, UK: IRC.
68. Khan, M., Serafeim, G., y Yoon, A. (2016). Corporate sustainability: First evidence on materiality. The Accounting Review, 91(6), 1697-1724.
69. Larrán Jorge, M.; García Meca, E. (2004). Costes, beneficios y factores ligados a la política de divulgación financiera. Revista de Contabilidad (14), 75-111.
70. Leventis, S., y Weetman, P. (2004). Impression management: Dual reporting and voluntary disclosure. Accounting Forum, 28(3), 307-328.
71. Li, F. (2010). The information content of forward-looking statements in corporate filings. A naïve bayesian machine learning approach. Journal of Accounting Research, 48(5), 1049-1102.
72. (2008). Annual report readability, current earnings, and earnings persistence. Journal of Accounting and Economics, 45(2-3), 221-247.
73. Moreno, A., y Capriotti, P. (2009). Communicating CSR, citizenship and sustainability on the web. Journal of Communication Management, 13(2), 157-175.
74. Muslu, V., Radhakrishnan, S., Subramanyam, K. R., y Lim, D. (2015). Forward-looking MD&A disclosures and the information environment. Management Science, 61(5), 931-948.
75. Laudal, T. (2011). Drivers and barriers of CSR and the size and internationalization of firms. Social Responsibility Journal (2), 234-256.
76. Leventis, S. y Weetman, P. (2004). Impression management: Dual reporting and voluntary disclosure. Accounting Forum, 28(3), 307-328.
77. MásMóvil (2018). Cuentas anuales consolidadas auditadas a 31 de diciembre 2018. Informe de gestión consolidado 2018. Disponible en: <https://www.grupomasmovil.com/informacion-economica-y-financiera/memorias-anuales/>
78. O'Sullivan, M., Percy, M., y Stewart, J. (2008). Australian evidence on corporate governance attributes and their association with forward-looking information in the annual report. Journal of Management and Governance, 12(1), 5-35.
79. Pérez-Batres L., Doh, J., Van, M., Pisani, M. (2012). Stakeholder Pressures as Determinants of CSR Strategic Choice: Why do Firms Choose Symbolic Versus Substantive Self-Regulatory Codes of Conduct? Journal of

- Business Ethics, 2012, vol. 110, issue 2, 157-172.
80. PriceWatherhouseCoopers. (2019): The reporting dilemma – balancing the needs of shareholders and other stakeholders. PwC's Annual Review of Corporate Reporting in the FTSE 350 2018/19.
81. Reverte Maya, C. (2015). "La nueva Directiva Europea de Reporting no Financiero", Revista de la Asociación Española de Contabilidad y Administración de Empresas (110), 17-22.
82. Robb, S. W. G., Single, L. E., y Zarzeski, M. T. (2001). Nonfinancial disclosures across Anglo-American countries. *Journal of International Accounting, Auditing & Taxation*, 10(1), 71-83.
83. Rodríguez, L., y Noguera, L. C. (2014). Corporate reporting on risks: Evidence from Spanish companies. *Spanish Accounting Review*, 17(2), 116-129.
84. Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, P., Sánchez-Cañizares, S., y Fuentes-García, F. (2017). Determinantes dos indicadores de calidad divulgativa das memorias de sostenibilidade: o caso da banca española. *Revista Galega de Economía*, 26(2), 43-58.
85. Rutherford, B. A. (2003). Obfuscation, textual complexity and the role of regulated narrative accounting disclosure in corporate governance. *Journal of Management and Governance*, 7(2), 187-210.
86. Salido Hernández, P., Santos Jaén, J. M., & Gracia Ortiz, M. (2018). Información no financiera como herramienta de transparencia. *La Razón Histórica: Revista hispanoamericana de las ideas políticas y sociales* (40), 116-132.
87. Sáez, A., Haro de Rosario, A., y Caba, M. D. C. (2014). Hacia una información corporativa integrada: evidencias en la industria de productos del cuidado de la salud. *Revista Finanzas y Política Económica*, 6(2), 317-340.
88. Schleicher, T., Hussainey, K., y Walker, M. (2007). Loss firms' annual report narratives and share price anticipation of earnings. *The British Accounting Review*, 39(2), 153-171.
89. Schleicher, T., y Walker, M. (2010). Bias in the tone of forward-looking narratives. *Accounting and Business Research*, 40(4), 371-390,
90. Schleicher, T. (2012). When is good news really good news? *Accounting and Business Research*, 42(5), 547-573.
91. Stolowy, H., y Paugam, L. (2018). The expansion of non-financial reporting: An exploratory study. *Accounting and Business Research*, 48(5), 525-548.
92. Suárez, O., Babío, M. R., Álvarez, M. A., y Vidal Lopo, R. (2019). Las atribuciones egoístas en los informes de gestión y diversidad de género en los órganos directivos de la empresa. *Revista Española de Financiación y Contabilidad*, 48(1), 87-112.
93. Sydserff, R., y Weetman, P. (2002). Developments in content analysis: a transitivity index and scores. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 15(4), 523-545.
94. U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission [SEC] (2003). Interpretation: Commission guidance regarding management's discussion and analysis of financial condition and results of operations. Washington, DC: SEC.
95. Wallace, R. S. O., Naser, K., y Mora, A. (1994). The relationship between the comprehensiveness of corporate annual reports and firm characteristics in Spain. *Accounting and Business Research*, 25(97), 41-53.
96. Yeoh, P. (2010). Narrative reporting: The UK Experience. *International Journal of Law and Management*, 52(3), 211-231.



Scan to know paper details and  
author's profile

# Corporate Sustainability Practices of Hotel Industry: A Systematic Literature Review

C.N.R. Wijesundara, Ali Khatibi & S.M. Ferdous Azam

Management & Science University

## ABSTRACT

This systematic review paper aims to enhance knowledge of corporate sustainability initiatives in the hospitality industry as it has been researched by earlier researchers. Corporate sustainability has gained more attention in academics and the corporate world since the 1990s. There is still a shortage of literature in corporate sustainability. This review study analyzes 28 papers from online indexed journals published between the years 2003 and 2022.

**Keywords:** corporate sustainability, best practices, hotel industry.

**Classification:** LCC Code - TX911.3.S87

**Language:** English



Great Britain  
Journals Press

LJP Copyright ID: 146463  
Print ISSN: 2633-2299  
Online ISSN: 2633-2302

London Journal of Research in Management and Business

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0



© 2023. C.N.R. Wijesundara, Ali Khatibi & S.M. Ferdous Azam. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution- Noncom-mercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>, permitting all noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

# Corporate Sustainability Practices of Hotel Industry: A Systematic Literature Review

C.N.R. Wijesundara<sup>a</sup>, Ali Khatibi<sup>o</sup> & S.M. Ferdous Azam<sup>p</sup>

## ABSTRACT

*This systematic review paper aims to enhance knowledge of corporate sustainability initiatives in the hospitality industry as it has been researched by earlier researchers. Corporate sustainability has gained more attention in academics and the corporate world since the 1990s. There is still a shortage of literature in corporate sustainability. This review study analyzes 28 papers from online indexed journals published between the years 2003 and 2022.*

*The purpose of this study is to give hoteliers a feeling of a road map towards corporate sustainability practices within the hospitality industry, to offer a variety of possibilities for new, creative sustainability activities, and to take a closer look at the corporate sustainability initiatives that are currently being made in the sector. The research paper has compiled the corporate sustainability definitions and surviving sustainability practices by analyzing the prevailing literature. The results show that corporate sustainability is a domain that is currently developing. Many definitional strategies have been utilized, and various corporate sustainable best practices have been adopted by hoteliers worldwide. The findings demonstrate the importance of sustainability in the hospitality sector and the variety of inventive ways in which hoteliers are integrating sustainability into their business plans. This is shown by the expansion of their clientele and high levels of customer satisfaction, the decline of their carbon footprint, and the improvement of their corporate reputation among hotels worldwide. The review's findings also revealed a vacuum in the body of knowledge about corporate sustainability in hotels.*

**Keywords:** corporate sustainability, best practices, hotel industry.

**Author a:** Post Graduate student, Post Graduate Centre, Management & Science University, Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia. Department of Tourism Management, Faculty of Management Studies, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka.

**o p:** Post Graduate Centre, Management & Science University, Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Businesses' sustainability concerns & efforts are significant to the environmental, social, and economic wellbeing of the world (Runtuk et al. 2023; Kaftan et al. 2023; Avinash & Rahman, 2021; Pranugrahaning et Al. 2021). It is noticed that more and more environmentally conscious consumers are factoring sustainability concerns into their purchasing decisions (Hull, 2022; Paloma et al. 2021). Even in the tourism industry, this has become a trend now. This new class of customers wants the value created by businesses to benefit society and the environment in addition to shareholder profits. From the business perspective, investors are seeking companies that have been incorporating sustainable practices into their processes and policies as a result of this changing customer behavior (Ottaviani et al. 2023; Wu & Jin, 2022; Hull, 2022; Swarnapali, 2017). The more organizations that embrace sustainability initiatives, the better for the environment, their long-term consumer retention rates, and their profitability (Grant, 2020).

Practices that promote sustainability are justifiable when they help an organization, and its stakeholders achieve their requirements today without harming the needs of future generations (Kaftan et al. 2023; Wu & Jin, 2022; Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). Sustainability initiatives also cover a business's obligations to society and the environment. Many businesses have recently improved their operation by adhering to best

practices that guarantee sustainability to attain sustainability (Ottaviani et al. 2023; Pranugrahaning et al. 2021; Kaftan et al. 2023).

The subject of sustainability is vital for hotels since the lodging industry contributes significantly to environmental issues by using up resources like water and energy (Kaftan et al. 2023; Hull, 2022; Verma & Chandra, 2018). The damaging effects of hotels on the environment are a growing concern. The vast and rapid expansion of the hotel business makes it essential for hotels to embrace ecologically sustainable practices (Paloma et al. 2021). As per Hepper et al. (2017) depicted, corporate sustainability entails putting systematic efforts into the organizations' strategy to reduce adverse effects on the environment and society brought on by its processes. As Runtuk et al. (2023) mentioned, the volume of references to corporate sustainability and sustainable strategy has significantly increased during the last few decades. Over time, investors' understanding of sustainability as a workable corporate strategy has grown. In keeping with this development, academic writers have increasingly focused on corporate sustainability initiatives. The Brundtland Report, published in 1987, served as the primary inspiration for the notion of corporate sustainability (Wu & Jin, 2022; Hull, 2022; Bhatia & Tuli, 2015).

It is believed that an organization can perform at different levels in terms of corporate sustainability depending on the semantic value that is considered (Pranugrahaning et al. 2021).

It has been noted that the notion of corporate sustainability can have varied meanings depending on the context in which it is employed (Runtuk et al. 2023; Swarnapali, 2017). It is crucial to comprehend the motivations behind a firm's sustainability initiatives and how trustworthy this data appears to be. In this regard, the purpose of this research is to conduct a comprehensive literature review on the corporate sustainability practices of the hotel industry that have been published in online indexed journals over the last two decades, to identify the corporate sustainability practices of hotels used for assessing corporate sustainability. The article is

divided into five sections: Section 1- Introduction; Section 2 describes the Methodology; Section 3 displays the Analysis of the papers; Section 4 Discussion & conclusion; and Section 5 Implications.

## II. METHODOLOGY

This particular study has used a literature search strategy based on earlier review articles to examine studies on corporate sustainability in the hospitality sector and other related topics that had been produced by academics. The terms corporate sustainability and sustainability practices were used in an electronic search of publications in tourism, hospitality, business, and management.

It restricted the search to articles written in the most recent 20 years, or from 2003 to 2022. 41 papers were found in the initial results of the search. Each report underwent a screening process to determine whether or not its essential relevance to corporate sustainability could be determined. As Seuring and Müller (2008), revealed, the review follows the four-step iterative process: (i) material collection; (ii) descriptive analysis; (iii) category selection; and (iv) material analysis. The systematic examination of the literature analysis aids in providing a comprehensive knowledge of corporate sustainability in hotel literature that has been the subject of previous studies. The conclusion would point out the overlooked areas and offer suggestions for further research.

### 2.1 Material Collection

The process of gathering the material begins with the definition of the search terms and other criteria. As Creswell & Creswell (2017) mentioned, it is advisable to start the search in computerized databases that contain peer-reviewed papers. The reputed online research journals were chosen for this investigation since they are the top platforms for scientific inquiry and analytical information worldwide (Runtuk et al. 2023; Yan Li, et al. 2017). Forty-one papers that were subjected to a preliminary examination based on the title, keywords and abstract were found by the search.

Following that, 13 papers were eliminated, leaving 28 articles that were fully read. Then, the procedure was established for the inclusion or exclusion of documents: they should assess the existing corporate sustainability practices of hospitality businesses.

## 2.2 Category Selection

This step defines the main determinants and analytical categories that will be utilized to assess the articles. As Seuring and Müller (2008) depicted, the primary subjects of analysis are fundamental dimensions, which are made up of analytical categories. NVivo was the program the researcher utilized to help this phase. Parameters and their associated analytical categories were discovered as the researcher studied the papers.

Then, these categories were encoded and put into a hierarchy structure using NVivo. NVivo produces a nod, which is a construct to hold data collected from the papers, for each text fragment that has been decoded. This approach enables the identification of the dimensions and key metrics used in the models for evaluating corporate sustainability practices, as well as the sources used to assess the metrics and the industries for which the indicators were suggested.

## III. ANALYSIS

Understanding the advantages and disadvantages of the study, as well as spotting any research gaps that need additional attention, are the three main objectives of the analysis (Leonidou et al. 2020).

The distribution of articles over time, corporate sustainability dimensions, and corporate

sustainability practices are all features of interest that we extract from each study during the descriptive analysis stage. Hospitality as an industry is a sector that has an expanding presence in the dynamics of the global economy, as it contributes around 10.5% to the world GDP.

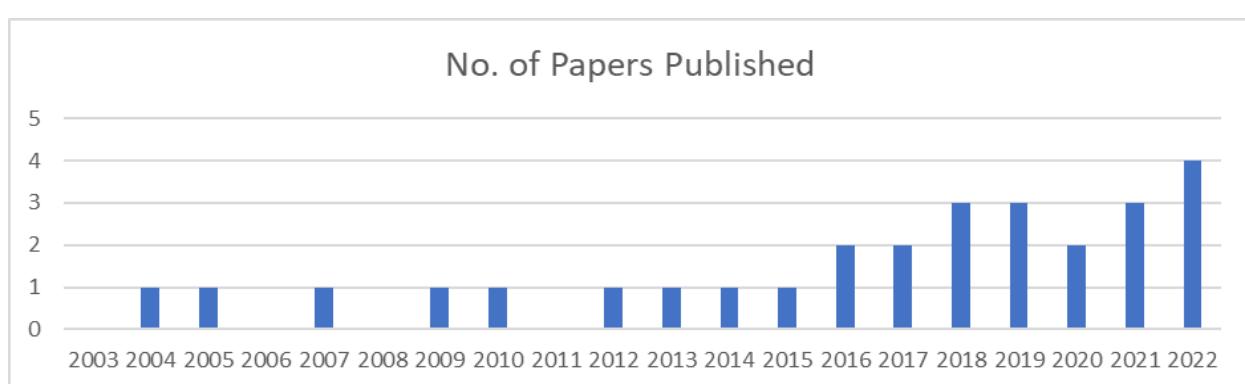
Moreover, its expansion can be a way to improve the economic and social wellbeing of any country where it operates (Pereira et al. 2021; Robin et al. 2017). It is a vital source of wealth, employment, and advancement for many countries and regions.

A portion of this industry is still hesitant to support sustainable initiatives (Hossein et. al, 2020). Research works & investigations on the sustainability of the tourism & hospitality industry have gained far less attention than manufacturing activities, still the expanding number of sustainability concerns and developing market pressures have enhanced its sustainability awareness (Pereira et al. 2021). Moreover, as the biggest sub-sector of the tourism industry, the hospitality sector unquestionably has the widest range of environmental effects (Paloma et al. 2021). Sustainability thus becomes a significant and essential component, not only for enhancing the natural environment but also for sustaining this industry's competitive performance (Hossein et al. 2020).

### 3.1 Distribution of papers over the period

Even though our review covers the period 2003–2022, there are only a few papers were published during the first 12 years period. Figure 1 presents the evolution of the documents over the years, from 2003 to 2022.

*Chart 1:* Distribution of the papers over the period



As per the chart depicted, there were only 09 published papers during the first 12 years (2003-2015). As a percentage, it is around 32% of the total of 28 articles. The rest of 68% of the papers (19 papers) were published during the last 07 years. In the year 2015, the world confirmed its commitment to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which is an action program for people, the planet, and prosperity to improve the quality of life (Pereira et al. 2021). This explains why there have been more publications in the last seven years: between 2015 and 2022, around 70% of papers on corporate sustainability practices of the hotel industry, were published during that period.

### *3.2 Corporate Sustainability Dimensions*

In around 65% of the cases (18 papers), corporate sustainability practices were assessed considering the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) concepts, that is, environmental, economic, and social dimensions.

Although the Triple Bottom Line of sustainability has been taken into consideration by certain researchers, the social dimension was modeled using a viewpoint that is centered on the health and safety of persons.

They chose the label "employee safety" for the third dimension rather than the term "social," which covered topics like education and training programs, the usage of personal safety equipment, etc. Madan et al. (2017), have discussed the above-mentioned aspect. Other than that, Ajmal et al. (2017) has been concerned about the health and safety aspect of corporate customers. Some studies take into account an extra component in addition to TBL, which includes concerns with corporate ethics, strategies, and stakeholder interactions. The scholars (Hogrefe & Bohnet, 2022; Hull, 2022; Aras et al. 2017; Schrippe and Ribeiro, 2019; Wang and Dai, 2018) who have written about this fourth dimension of corporate sustainability have been called authors of governance, corporate governance. Gurumurthy (2018) has introduced an additional dimension for conflict management and organizational image. Alcívar et al. (2020) presented a fourth dimension mentioned as the corporate identity, which concerns the company's vision and mission.

Though some scholars have talked about the fourth component, the majority have focused on the main three dimensions (economic, environment, social) of corporate sustainability.

*Table 1:* Dimensions of corporate sustainability

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| Environmental Dimension | Nagendrakumar et. Al., (2022); Smith and Grosbois, (2011); Esteban et. al, (2017); Nikolaou et. al, (2019); Montilla et al. (2020); Nallusamy et al. (2015); Silva et. al, (2014); Ulrike, (2020); Danijela et. al, (2016); Kularathne, (2018); Bresjin, (2019); Gavilanes et. al., (2019); Huang et. al., (2015); Kanchan, (2019).                        |
| Economic Dimension      | Nagendrakumar et. Al., (2022); Hussain et.al, (2017); Hristov & Chirico (2019); Hossein, (2020); Chindu & Bhattacharya, (2019); Kim & Barber, (2015); Rupert & Ebner, (2010)   |
| Social Dimension        | Hogrefe & Bohnet (2022); Madan et. al, (2017); Smith and Grosbois, (2011); Esteban et. al, (2017); Nikolaou et. al, (2019); Ajmal et al. (2018); Hutchins et al. (2019); Paredes et. al, (2016); Batista & Francisco, (2018); Hossein et. al., (2021); Chindu & Bhattacharya, (2019); Kim & Barber, (2015); Modica et. al., (2020); Jones et. al., (2016). |

Only environmental and social factors were considered simultaneously in several research (Smith and Grosbois 2011; Esteban et. al, 2017; Nikolaou et. al, 2019). Some other research works looked at sustainability from just one angle, on the environmental aspects (Montilla et al. 2020; Nallusamy et al. 2015; Silva et al. 2014).

Moreover, some of the other researchers have only been concerned with the social dimension (Ajmal et al. 2018; Hutchins et al. 2019; Paredes et al. 2016). Since the majority of researchers (over 65%) have assessed corporate sustainability by considering the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) concepts, this paper has paid attention only to these three dimensions (environmental,

economic, and social dimensions) when compiling the prevailing corporate sustainability practices.

### *3.3 Corporate Sustainability Practices*

Corporate sustainability considers ethical principles and standards while supporting responsible behaviors that combine environmental, societal, and economic interests.

Sustainability employs a long-term perspective on the future. The environmental aspect of sustainability seeks to reduce the adverse environmental impacts caused by hotel operations through proper monitoring mechanisms and, or collaborative efforts like environment-friendly product development and greening of production processes (Siddique et al., 2022; Hogrefe & Bohnet, 2022; Vachon, 2007; Tsai et al. 2011).

The social aspect or dimension attempts to improve the wellbeing of the staff, other suppliers, the visitor, and the surrounding community at large by offering proper training, creating a safe workplace, fair trade, building long-term collaborations, and more (Hull, 2022; Gopalakrishnan et al. 2012; Vachon, 2007; Schwartz et al. 2008). Finally, the economic aspect of sustainability is making money and expanding a firms' market share while having as few adverse social and environmental effects as possible (Siddique et. al. 2022; Wu & Jin, 2022; Kassinis & Soteriou, 2009). Accomplishing sustainability requires businesses to ensure long-term viability, the social welfare of their partners, such as consumers, suppliers, and staff members, as well as the minimization of the adverse effects of their operations on the environment (Pereira et al. 2021). Sustainability now concerns a fundamental goal, enhancing the promote legislation from regulatory entities and the liable actions by organizations and individuals.

#### *3.3.1 Environmental Practices*

The process of creating value depends on taking a proactive approach toward the environment and implementing suitable environmental methods and technologies (Hosseini et al. 2020) The hotel sector or lodging industry shift to "going green" is

characterized by a rising focus on limiting its environmental effect by implementing environmentally preferable waste-reduction methods and by using sustainable techniques and suppliers (Nagendrakumar et al. 2022; Boley and Uysal, 2013). As Suluo (2020) mentioned, authorities in several nations have imposed more substantial environmental restrictions and urged businesses to take action to safeguard the environment due to increasingly significant environmental issues, such as global warming.

Many lodging establishments understand that implementing green practices is not only morally right but also advantageous in terms of cost savings, image improvement, market positioning, and increased CSR (Hosseini et al. 2020). As Kularathne et al. (2019) depicted, the co-management of any lodging establishment not only contributes to its revenue and ability to retain guests but also shows better social commitment and enhances its reputation.

Environmental practices are being developed to improve creative business strategies that rethink the business model by investigating alternatives and developing new methods (Pereira et al. 2021).

The use of ecologically friendly cleaning solutions, energy and water-saving techniques, and the careful disposal of solid waste are only a few examples of environmental measures utilized in the hotel business (Modica et al. 2020; Rodriguez et al. 2012; Alonso et al. 2014). The following practices were summarized by analyzing the 28 selected research papers.

#### *3.3.2 Social Practices*

The social dimension of corporate sustainability attempts to improve the happiness of the staff, other suppliers, the visitor, and the local community at large by, among other things, offering proper training, a safe workplace, fair deals, building long-term collaborations, and more (Siddique et al. 2022; Hogrefe & Bohnet, 2022; Vachon, 2007; Schwartz et al. 2008; Farmaki, 2015). In essence, the social element of corporate sustainability incorporates the activities of the business that they use to improve the ordinary lives and wellbeing of either their

surrounding community or their existing consumers. It enhances social capital via empowerment, which in turn reduces potential danger and sustains the safety of cultural and social systems (Siddique et al. 2022; Webster & Courtnell, 2019). The following social practices were summarized by analyzing the 28 selected research papers.

### 3.3.3 Economic Practices

The "economic aspect" of business sustainability is frequently called the generic dimension. In addition to environmental and social considerations, economic sustainability includes general organizational characteristics that must be upheld for a business to last a long time (Nagendrakumar et al. 2022; Pereira et al. 2021).

Moreover, the economic aspect of corporate sustainability involves the creation of profits and the enhance the business market share while creating a deficient level of social and environmental impacts (Kassinis & Soteriou, 2009). The economic aspect of corporate sustainability encourages increased consumption of products and services, which eventually raises the standard of living for people. This is about the profit-driven mindset of large corporations and offers hoteliers the chance to establish a win-win scenario through the deployment of effective, sustainable initiatives that would benefit the environment and yield them a more significant profit over the long term (Kim, Barber, & Kim, 2019; Kasemsap, 2018; Petri & Mikuli, 2012).

Following economic practices were summarized by analyzing the 28 selected research papers

| No | Economic practices   | Author / Author of the paper and the year of the publication   |
|----|--|--|
| 1  | Whenever possible recruit locals to the staff.                   | Nagendrakumar et. Al., (2022); Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Petri & Mikuli, (2012); Hossein et. al, (2020); Hussain et.al, (2017)     |
| 2  | Pay staff above the industry average.                            | Hristov & Chirico (2019); Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Petri & Mikuli, (2012); Chindu & Bhattacharya, (2019); Rupert & Ebner, (2010)  |
| 3  | Provision of additional benefits for employees.                  | Hussain et.al, (2017); Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Chindu & Bhattacharya, (2019)   |
| 4  | Encourage guests to consume/use locally made/purchased products. | Nagendrakumar et. Al., (2022); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Pereira et. al,(2021); Hossein et. al, (2020); Hristov & Chirico (2019); Rupert & Ebner, (2010) |
| 5  | Encourage guests to contribute to charitable activities.         | Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Petri & Mikuli, (2012); Hristov & Chirico (2019)   |
| 6  | Select suppliers who contribute to local development.            | Hussain et.al, (2017);Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Hossein et. al, (2020)   |
| 7  | Assess the company's economic impact                             | Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Petri & Mikuli, (2012); Chindu & Bhattacharya, (2019)  |
| 8  | Provide training programs for staff                              | Nagendrakumar et. Al., (2022); Garay & Font, (2013); Kim, Barber, & Kim, (2019); Petri & Mikuli, (2012); Rupert & Ebner, (2010)                            |

## IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The topic of corporate sustainability in hospitality sparked a lot of attention globally. Numerous articles featuring the phrase "sustainable in hotels" in the title were published between 2003 and 2022. It is a tendency that has global implications for the pursuit of justice, equity, and development for all populations within and between generations. To enhance the credibility

of the research, present a wide range of viewpoints and practices in corporate sustainability across the globe, and give hoteliers and viewers of this research a well-rounded information foundation on such initiatives, several research bases were used in this study.

As Harmon (2017) depicted, in the previous ten years, sustainability has been increasingly

important in the hotel sector. The topic of sustainability has increasingly taken center stage in discussions of both societal and political importance. Starting in 2015, academics have begun to pay more attention to corporate sustainability assessment. It is believed that the majority of publications have been focused on in the previous five years is a result of the agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, which was introduced in 2015. The several interpretations of the meaning of "corporate sustainability" were used in the literature we analyzed; typically, this notion is based on the tripod of economic-social-environmental factors.

According to the prevailing literature, sustainability is based on three dimensions; social, economic, and environmental. In terms of the environment, the hotel sector must use environmentally friendly products, control prevailing water wastage, fix alternative energy sources, use technology for power saving, use natural light, recycling of plastics and glass, creation of internal policies to reduce the wastage, keep ecosystems viable and healthy by taking into account the carbon footprint of food, building development, transportation of staff and visitors to and from the facility. As the social aspect, the hospitality sector requires to enhance the daily lives and wellbeing of either their community or their customers by participating in taking actions to alleviate education and poverty, offering donations to the locals, and voluntary activities for the wellbeing of the local community, creating long-term partnerships with suppliers, providing high-quality services and products and a safe environment for consumers, create a safe and healthy work environment, comply with labor legislation and employee contracts, treating all consumers fairly. Economic perspective, the hotel sector must maintain the profit-driven mindset of entrepreneurs and offers hoteliers the chance to establish a win-win situation by utilizing practical sustainable efforts such as recruiting locals to the staff, additional benefits for employees, paying staff above the industry average, encouraging guests to use locally made products, contribute to charitable activities, select suppliers who contribute to local development, assess the

company's economic impact. Moreover, the corporate sustainability practices of each dimension are constructed using various sources of information through the selected papers: we counted the number of corporate sustainability practices. In the systematic literature survey, many authors have concluded from their systematic study that the literature had primarily addressed the environmental element of sustainability, leaving out the economic and social dimensions of sustainability in hotels.

## V. IMPLICATIONS

This study's primary objective was to examine sustainable corporate practices in the hospitality industry by looking through a wide range of article variations publicly available online. This article can be utilized as a fundamental overview of corporate sustainability practices made in the hospitality sector between 2003 and 2022 from around the world by addressing various cultures that are engaged effectively in adopting sustainability initiatives in the hospitality sector.

This scientific report is a helpful resource for hotels, organizations, and even students looking for ideas for fresh initiatives they may also adopt in their hospitality establishments. Moreover, this research work is significant for hotel management because it identifies different corporate sustainability dimensions and practices that can be adopted to lower energy and water usage and improve economic outcomes through incorporation as a collection of practices that can be used as benchmarks. Additionally, this study demonstrates how vital the eco-friendly operation & service delivery discussed in the literature is to the long-term sustainability of lodging sector.

## REFERENCES

1. Agnes Pranugrahaning, Jerome D. Donovan, Cheree Topple, Eryadi K. Masli, (2021). Corporate sustainability assessments: A systematic literature review and conceptual framework, *Journal of Cleaner Production*.
2. Ajmal, M. M., M. Khan, M. Hussain, and P. Helo. (2018). "Conceptualizing and Incorporating Social Sustainability in the Business World." *International Journal of Sustainable*

- Development & World Ecology 25 (4): 327–339.
3. Alcívar, A.; Verdecho, M.-J.; Alfaro-Saiz, J.-J. (2020). A Conceptual Framework to Manage Resilience and Increase Sustainability in the Supply Chain. *Sustainability*.
  4. Alonso-Almeida, M.; Llach, J.; Marimon, F. (2014). A closer look at the 'Global Reporting Initiative' sustainability reporting as a tool to implement environmental and social policies: A worldwide sector analysis. *Corp. Soc. Responsib. Environ. Manag.* 21, 318–335.
  5. Aras, G., N. Tezcan, O. Kutlu Furtuna, and E. Hacioglu Kazak. (2017). "Corporate Sustainability Measurement Based on Entropy Weight and TOPSIS." *Meditari Accountancy Research* 25 (3): 391–413.
  6. Avinash Pratap Singh & Zillur Rahman (2021). Integrating corporate sustainability and sustainable development goals: towards a multi-stakeholder framework, *Cogent Business & Management*.
  7. Becherer, Richard C.; Helms, Marilyn M.; and McDonald, John P. (2014). "The Effect of Entrepreneurial Marketing on Outcome Goals in SMEs," *New England Journal of Entrepreneurship*: Vol. 15: No. 1, Article 3.
  8. Bello, F. G., Banda, W., & Kamanga, G. (2017). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices in the hospitality industry in Malawi. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(3), 1–21.
  9. Bhatia, A., & Tuli, S. (2015). Sustainability Disclosure Practices: A Study of Selected Chinese Companies. *Management and Labour Studies*, 40(3–4), 268–283.
  10. Boley, B. B., & Uysal, M. (2013). Competitive synergy through practicing triple bottom line sustainability: Evidence from three hospitality case studies. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*.
  11. Carcano, Luana. (2013). Strategic Management and Sustainability in Luxury Companies: The IWC Case. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*. 2013.
  12. Cavagnaro, E., Staffieri, S., & Ngesa, F. (2015). Looking from a local lens: Inbound tour operators and sustainable tourism in Kenya.
  13. Chan, M. L. E., Cheung, W. T. N., Yeung, N. Y. D., Kwok, F. P. A., & Wong, H. Y. R. (2018). An evaluation study of the "RESTART" program – short-term residential treatment for addiction. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, 16, 1357–1372.
  14. Chindu Chandran & Prodyut Bhattacharya (2019). Hotel's best practices as a strategic driver for environmental sustainability and green marketing, *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, 29:2, 218–23.
  15. Creswell, J. W., and J. D. Creswell. (2017). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
  16. Danijela Despotovic, Slobodan Cvitanovic, Vladimir Nedic & Milan Despotovic (2016). Economic, social and environmental dimension of sustainable competitiveness of European countries, *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 59:9, 1656–1678.
  17. Dyllick, T., and K. Hockerts. (2002). "Beyond the Business Case for Corporate Sustainability." *Business Strategy and the Environment* 11 (2): 130–141.
  18. Esteban, V. A., M. P. G. Villardón, and I. M. G. Sánchez (2017). "Cultural Values on CSR Patterns and Evolution: A Study from the Biplot Representation." *Ecological Indicators* 81: 18–29.
  19. Farmaki, A. (2015). Regional network governance and sustainable tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 17(3), 385–407.
  20. Garay, L., & Font, X. (2013). Doing good to do well? Corporate social responsibility reasons, practices and impacts in small and medium accommodation enterprises. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 329–337.
  21. Gavilanes, J.E.; Ludeña, C.F.; Cassagne, Y.J. (2019). Sustainable Practices in Luxury Class and First-Class Hotels of Guayaquil, Ecuador. *ROSA DOS VENTOS-Turismo e Hospitalidade*. 11, 400–416.

22. Grant, M. (2020). Understanding sustainability. Retrieved from <https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/sustainability.asp>.
23. Gopalakrishnan, K., Yusuf, Y. Y., Musa, A., Abubakar, T., & Ambursa, H. M. (2012). Sustainable supply chain management: A case study of British aerospace systems. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 140(1), 193–203.
24. Gurumurthy, A. (2018). Where is the ‘struggle’ in communications for social progress? *Global Media and Communication*, 14(2), 193–200.
25. Harmon, W. (2017). The future of sustainability in the hospitality industry. Retrieved from <https://www.bluecart.com/blog/the-future-of-sustainability-in-the-hospitality-industry>.
26. Hepper, E. L., O. T. de Souza, M. D. C. Petrini, and C. E. L. E. Silva. (2017). “Proposing a Maturity Model for Corporate Sustainability.” *Acta Scientiarum. Human and Social Sciences* 39 (1): 43–53.
27. Hogrefe, R.; Bohnet-Joschko, S. (2022). The Social Dimension of Corporate Sustainability: Review of an Evolving Research Field. *Sustainability*, 15, 3248.
28. Hossein Olya, Levent Altinay, Anna Farmaki, Ainur Kenebayeva & Dogan Gursoy (2020): Hotels' sustainability practices and guests' familiarity, attitudes and behaviours, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*.
29. Hristov, I., and A. Chirico. (2019). “The Role of Sustainability Key Performance Indicators (Kpis) in Implementing Sustainable Strategies.” *Sustainability*.
30. Huang, K.T.; Wang, J.C.; Wang, Y.C. (2015). Analysis and benchmarking of greenhouse gas emissions of luxury hotels. *Int. J. Hosp. Manag.*, 51, 56–66.
31. Hull, (2022). Competitive Sustainability: The Intersection of Sustainability and Business Success. *Sustainability*, 14, 16420.
32. Hussain, M., A. Alameeri, and M. M. Ajmal. (2017). “Prioritizing Sustainable Practices of Service Organizations.” *International Journal of Information Systems in the Service Sector* 9 (1): 22–36.
33. Hutchins, M. J., J. S. Richter, M. L. Henry, and J. W. Sutherland. (2019). “Development of Indicators for the Social Dimension of Sustainability in a U.S. Business Context.” *Journal of Cleaner Production* 212: 687– 697.
34. Jones, P., Hillier, D., & Comfort, D. (2016). Sustainability in the hospitality industry: Some personal reflections on corporate challenges and research agendas. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 36–67.
35. Kabir, M. H. (2011). Corporate social responsibility by Swaziland hotel industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 25, 73 –79
36. Kaftan, V.; Kandalov, W.; Molodtsov, I.; Sherstobitova, A.; Strielkowski, W. (2023). Socio-Economic Stability and Sustainable Development in the Post-COVID Era: Lessons for the Business and Economic Leaders. *Sustainability*, 15, 2876.
37. Kanchana Wickramasinghe (2019). Measuring environmental orientation in hotels: empirical evidence from Sri Lanka, *Anatolia*, 30:3, 420-430.
38. Kasemsap, K. (2018). Mastering employee turnover intention in the modern workforce. In *Social issues in the workplace: Breakthroughs in research and practice* (pp. 261–281). IGI Publishing/IGI Global.
39. Kassinis, G. I., & Soteriou, A. C. (2009). Greening the service profit chain: the impact of environmental management practices. *Production and Operations Management*, 12(3), 386–403.
40. Kim, Y.H.; Barber, N.; Kim, D.K. (2015). Sustainability research in the hotel industry: Past, present, and future. *J. Hosp. Mark. Manag.* 2015, 28, 576–620.
41. Kim, Woo & Lim, Hyunjung & Brymer, Robert. (2015). The effectiveness of managing social media on hotel performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 44. 165-171.
42. Kim, Y. H., Barber, N., & Kim, D.-K. (2019). Sustainability research in the hotel industry: Past, present, and future. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 28(5), 576-620.
43. Kularatne, Thamarasi & Wilson, Clevo & Måansson, Jonas & Hoang, Vincent & Lee,

- Boon. (2019). Do environmentally sustainable practices make hotels more efficient? A study of major hotels in Sri Lanka. *Tourism Management*, 71, 213-225.
44. Leonidou, E., Christofi, M., Vrontis, D., & Thrassou, A. (2020). An integrative framework of stakeholder engagement for innovation management and entrepreneurship development. *Journal of Business Research*, 119, 245-258.
45. Madan Shankar, K., D. Kannan, and P. Udhaya Kumar. (2017). "Analyzing Sustainable Manufacturing Practices – A Case Study in Indian Context [Article]." *Journal of Cleaner Production* 164: 1332–1343.
46. Modica, P. D., Altinay, L., Farmaki, A., Gursoy, D., & Zenga, M. (2020). Consumer perceptions towards sustainable supply chain practices in the hospitality industry. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(3), 358–375.
47. Montilla, M. I., Galindo-Villardón, P., Nieto-Librero, A. B., Vicente Galindo, M. P., & García-Sánchez, I. M. (2020). What companies do not disclose about their environmental policy and what institutional pressures may do to respect. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 27(3), 1181-1197.
48. Muthuri, J.N., & Gilbert,V.(2011). An institutional-analysisofcorporatesocial responsibility inKenya. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98(3), 467–483.
49. Nagendrakumar, N.; Alwis, K.N.N.; Eshani, U.A.K.; Kaushalya, S.B.U. ( 2022). The Impact of Sustainability Practices on the Going Concern of the Travel and Tourism Industry: Evidence from Developed and Developing Countries. *Sustainability*, 14, 17046.
50. Nallusamy, S., M. Ganesan, K. Balakannan, and C. Shankar. (2015). "Environmental Sustainability Evaluation for an Automobile Manufacturing Industry Using Multi-Grade Fuzzy Approach." *International Journal of Engineering Research in Africa* 19: 123–129.
51. Nikolaou, I. E., T. A. Tsallis, and K. I. Evangelinos. (2019). "A Framework to Measure Corporate Sustainability Performance: A Strong Sustainability-based View of Firm." *Sustainable Production and Consumption* 18: 1–18
52. Ottaviani, D.; Demiröz, M.; Szemző, H.; De Luca, C. (2023). Adapting Methods and Tools for Participatory Heritage-Based Tourism Planning to Embrace the Four Pillars of Sustainability. *Sustainability*, 15, 4741.
53. Paloma R. S. Bezerra, Fernando Schramm & Vanessa B. Schramm (2021) A literature review on models for assessing corporate sustainability, *International Journal of Sustainable Engineering*, 14:6, 1306-1318.
54. Paredes-Gazquez, J. D., J. M. Rodriguez-Fernandez, and M. de La Cuesta-gonzalez. (2016). "Measuring Corporate Social Responsibility Using Composite Indices: Mission Impossible? the Case of the Electricity Utility Industry." *Revista de Contabilidad* 19 (1): 142–153.
55. Pereira, V., Silva, G. M., & Dias, Á. (2021). Sustainability practices in hospitality: Case study of a luxury hotel in Arrábida Natural Park. *Sustainability*, 13(6), 3164.
56. Petri, L., & Mikuli, D. (2012). Protected areas and tourism development on Croatian islands: Coexistence or divergence? *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, 166, 29-40.
57. Runtuk, J.K.; Ng, P.K.; Ooi, S.Y.; Purwanto, R.; Nur Chairat, A.S.; Ng, Y.J. (2023). Sustainable Growth for Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises: Interpretive Structural Modeling Approach. *Sustainability*, 15, 4555.
58. Schrippe, P., and J. L. D. Ribeiro. (2019). "Preponderant Criteria for the Definition of Corporate Sustainability Based on Brazilian Sustainable Companies." *Journal of Cleaner Production* 209: 10–19.
59. Schwartz, K., Tapper, R., & Font, X. (2008). A sustainable supply chain management framework for tour operator. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(3), 298–314.
60. Siddique, M.N.-E.-A.; Nor, S.M.; Senik, Z.C.; Omar, N.A. (2022). Corporate Social Responsibility as the Pathway to Sustainable Banking: A Systematic Literature Review. *Sustainability*, 15, 1807.
61. Silva, E., O. Freire, and F. Silva. (2014). "Indicadores de Sustentabilidade Como

- Instrumentos de Gestão: Uma Análise Da GRI, Ethos E ISE.” Revista de Gestão Ambiental E Sustentabilidade 3 (2): 130–148.
62. Smith, Allan & de Grosbois, Danuta. (2011). The adoption of corporate social responsibility practices in the airline industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. 19. 59-77.
63. Stefan Seuring, Martin Müller (2008). From a literature review to a conceptual framework for sustainable supply chain management, *Journal of Cleaner Production*.
64. Swarnapali, R.M.N.C, (2017). Corporate sustainability: A Literature review, *Journal for Accounting Researchers and Educators (JARE)*.
65. Tsai, W. H., Chen, H. C., Liu, J. Y., Chen, S. P., & Shen, Y. S. (2011). Using activity-based costing to evaluate capital investments for green manufacturing systems. *International Journal of Production Research*, 49(24), 7275–7292.
66. Ulrike Ehgartner (2020). The discursive framework of sustainability in UK food policy: the marginalised environmental dimension, *Journal of Environmental Policy & Planning*, 22:4, 473485.
67. Verma, V. K., & Chandra, B. (2018). Sustainability and customers' hotel choice behaviour: A choice-based conjoint analysis approach. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 20(3), 1347-1363.
68. Wang, C., L. Wang, and S. Dai. (2018). “An Indicator Approach to Industrial Sustainability Assessment: The Case of China's Capital Economic Circle.” *Journal of Cleaner Production* 194: 473–482.
69. Vachon, S. (2007). Green supply chain practices and the selection of environmental technologies. *International Journal of Production Research*, 45(18-19), 4357–4379.
70. Webster, A., & Courtnell, J. (2019). Economic sustainability for success: What it is and how to implement it: Process street: Checklist, workflow and SOP software.
71. Wu, L.; Jin, S. (2022). Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainability: From a Corporate Governance Perspective. *Sustainability*, 14, 15457.
72. Yu, Y., Li, X., & Jai, T. (2017). The impact of green experience on consumer satisfaction: evidence from TripAdvisor. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(5), 1340–1361.

*This page is intentionally left blank*



Scan to know paper details and  
author's profile

# Disadvantages and Stimulants of Mobility in a Shared Bicycle System in Guayaquil, Ecuador

*Cristian Roosevelt Sáenz De Viteri Anzules*

*Universidad de Guayaquil*

## ABSTRACT

Interest in urban cycling is increasing and the number of bike share programs has grown rapidly in recent years. Therefore, the objective that is intended to be achieved in this study is to know if factors such as seasons, routes and altitudes affect the project of a shared bicycle system in the city of Guayaquil, Ecuador. A quantitative and longitudinal study has been designed with the collection and analysis of data from the bicycle-sharing system (BSS) of the city of Guayaquil, registering a total of 84,183 observations (Men n=59,159; Women n=25,024).

**Keywords:** bicycle, guayaquil, transportation, cycling, mobility, tourism, environment, agenda 2030.

**Classification:** LCC Code: HE5736.G83, HE336.C65

**Language:** English



Great Britain  
Journals Press

LJP Copyright ID: 146464  
Print ISSN: 2633-2299  
Online ISSN: 2633-2302

London Journal of Research in Management and Business

Volume 23 | Issue 5 | Compilation 1.0



© 2023. Cristian Roosevelt Sáenz De Viteri Anzules. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution- Noncom-mercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>, permitting all noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

# Disadvantages and Stimulants of Mobility in a Shared Bicycle System in Guayaquil, Ecuador

Cristian Roosevelt Sáenz De Viteri Anzules<sup>123</sup>

## ABSTRACT

*Interest in urban cycling is increasing and the number of bike share programs has grown rapidly in recent years. Therefore, the objective that is intended to be achieved in this study is to know if factors such as seasons, routes and altitudes affect the project of a shared bicycle system in the city of Guayaquil, Ecuador. A quantitative and longitudinal study has been designed with the collection and analysis of data from the bicycle-sharing system (BSS) of the city of Guayaquil, registering a total of 84,183 observations (Men n=59,159; Women n=25,024).*

*The data extracted from the Iguana Bike Tours organization was collected and statistically analyzed through the IBM SPSS version 21.0 program. A significance value of  $p < 0.05$  has been established. The most used station was the one located in the center of the city, representing a total of 39% of the observations. The neutral elevation, that is, leaving a station and depositing the bicycle in another with the same altitude, represented 65.5% of the total records.*

*The city of Guayaquil has some favorable topographical characteristics to create a profitable service that promotes healthy habits as a means of active transportation in the urban environment, as well as an improvement in urban mobility and a less polluted environment.*

**Keywords:** bicycle, guayaquil, transportation, cycling, mobility, tourism, environment, agenda 2030.

<sup>1</sup> Research professor at Universidad de Guayaquil, Ecuador, cristian.saenzdeviteria@ug.edu.ec

<sup>2</sup> Professor at Universidad Espíritu Santo (UEES), Guayaquil, Ecuador, crsaenz@uees.edu.ec

<sup>3</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3502-5737>

## I. INTRODUCTION

Interest in urban cycling is on the rise and the number of bicycle-sharing system (BSS) has grown rapidly over the last 10 years or so. The BSS have existed for almost 50 years, but the recent change in the technology used and the interest in promoting the practice of physical activity among the population can make cities more sustainable, habitable places and change the activity habits of the local population (Nieuwenhuijsen and Rojas-Rueda, 2020; Soriguera and Jiménez-Meroño, 2020). In this same way, the BSS have been implemented in several cities around the world as policies to mitigate climate change, reduce traffic congestion, promote physical activity, public health (Bauman et al., 2017; Clockston and Rojas-Rueda, 2021; Munkácsy and Monzón, 2017; Nieuwenhuijsen and Rojas-Rueda, 2020; Otero et al., 2018; Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, 2015; Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, 2019; Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, 2020; Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, 2022; Sanmiguel- Rodríguez y Arufe Giráldez, 2019; Soriguera and Jiménez-Meroño, 2020; Zhang et al., 2015), are economically profitable and sometimes promote healthy and enjoyable social factors (Munkácsy and Monzón, 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). For Bauman et al. (2017) the most important health objective is to increase cycling levels in the population, thus contributing to a greater proportion of the population meeting physical activity guidelines and improving population health.

Bike sharing is also an emerging topic of research related to urban transport and sustainable mobility. In this way, the BSS acquire a great dimension and relevance as a healthy and economic means of transport that favors a change of approach in the choice of trips within the urban nucleus, in order to develop new policies that promote the development of mobility urban and physical activity as a means of transportation (Munkácsy and Monzón, 2017). In Europe, the urban environment offers options and possibilities to reduce the use of private vehicles (Dekoster and Schollaert, 2000). The bicycle is generally associated with certain countries such as

Holland or Denmark. The Netherlands has the highest level of cycling in the developed world.

However, the bicycle requires physical effort and it is, therefore, in the flat countries where it is easier to use. In general, the bicycle is used in many European countries regardless of their topography (Dekoster and Schollaert, 2000; DeMaio, 2009). Its less use in southern countries is due, in large part, to the social image of this vehicle, often considered an old-fashioned and uncomfortable means of transport (Dekoster and Schollaert, 2000; Ogilvie and Goodman, 2012; Scheiner, 2010; Unwin, 1995). Switzerland is not a flat country and, even so, the bicycle is used in 23% of all journeys in Basel and 15% in Bern, where many streets have slopes of 7% (Dekoster and Schollaert, 2000). The slopes constitute an obstacle to be taken into account by untrained cyclists or those with bicycles in poor condition.

But even in such circumstances, there is potential for cycling, as shown in some cities with steep slopes: Trondheim in Norway or San Francisco in the United States (Dekoster and Schollaert, 2000, Pucher, Buehler et al., 2011; Pucher et al., 1999; Tin et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the flat topography facilitates cycling, as well as the absence of steep slopes and the availability of cycling routes, which encourage residents of an urban area to cycle (Beenackers et al., 2012; Hunt and Abraham, 2007; Menghini et al., 2010; Pucher, Buehler et al., 2011; Rietveld and Daniel, 2004; Vandenbulcke et al., 2011).

Therefore, there is a need to analyze the factors that affect the demand for shared bicycles to promote the creation of infrastructures within the urban environment that can favor active displacement, the practice of physical activity, and health to combat in a more efficient way against climate change and the sedentary lifestyle of the population. For all these reasons, the main objective to be achieved with this study was to analyze whether the location of the stations, the routes and the altitudes of the city of Guayaquil have been factors that affect the use of active displacement by its users within the city of Guayaquil of the urban environment.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 Participants and design

A quantitative and longitudinal study has been designed with the collection and analysis of data from the BSS of Guayaquil (Ecuador). These data included the uses of the 3,268 users registered in the Guayaquil BSS. The user's identification is associated with a numerical value, maintaining their anonymity at all times. The number of uses of the Iguana Bike Tours bicycle system of the Guayaquil City Council was counted daily and a total of 84,183 observations were recorded (Men n=59,159; Women n=25,024). The data was provided and authorized by the Guayaquil City Council.

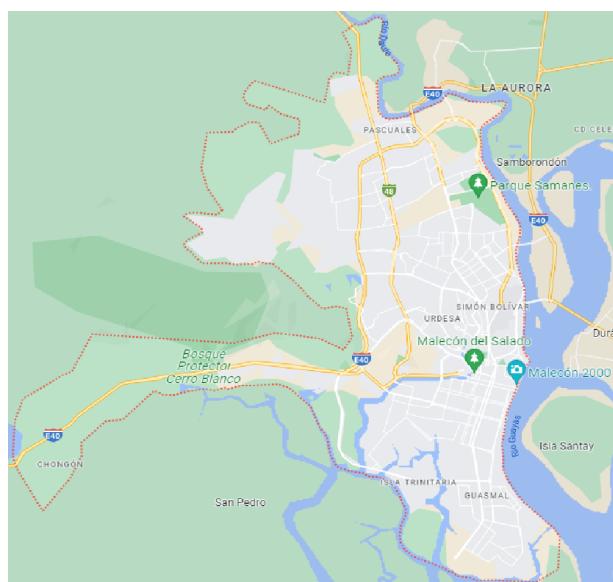
### 2.2 Process

The variable studied was the minutes of use, whose behavior was determined according to blocks of age, sex and minutes of use. From this information, other variables have been derived that were also the object of study, which were: the journeys between the five stations and the

minutes of use (calculated from the start and end dates of the trips). The data was encoded according to the use records by means of the bicycles that are at the five stations, so it was decided to decode the stations of origin and destination to establish the routes and slopes according to a numerical value through a formula from the spreadsheet. Excel calculation so that the statistical program SPSS could correctly identify it. The stations of the system have been categorized as follows (Figure 1):

1. Malecón 2000, in the city center: 4 meters above sea level.
2. Malecón del Salado: 11 meters above sea level.
3. Samanes Park (outskirts): 2 meters above sea level.
4. Santay Island (outskirts): 4 meters high.
5. Chongón (periphery): 19 meters.

The difference in altitude of the Iguana Bike Tours stations (in meters) was determined with Google Maps.



*Fig. 1:* Location of bicycle service stations in Guayaquil (Made with the Google Maps)

Iguana Bike Tours has, scattered throughout Guayaquil, five stations with bicycles so that they can be used by users previously registered in the system. The bicycles are anchored in the stations and to use them you need a magnetic card. When the user uses this magnetic card to release the

bicycle, a computer system records their data and the starting point of the journey. When the user leaves the bicycle, the computer system records the user's data and the place of destination. In this way, we categorize the service stations as follows: 1= Malecón 2000 (Center), 2= Malecón del

Salado, 3= Parque Samanes, 4= Isla Santay and 5= Chongón. Combining the routes between Iguana Bike Tours stations, we have 25 travel possibilities.

### 2.3 Data Analysis and Ethical Aspects

First, the Guayaquil City Council was contacted to obtain an anonymized database of the system and the consent for the transfer of data was signed.

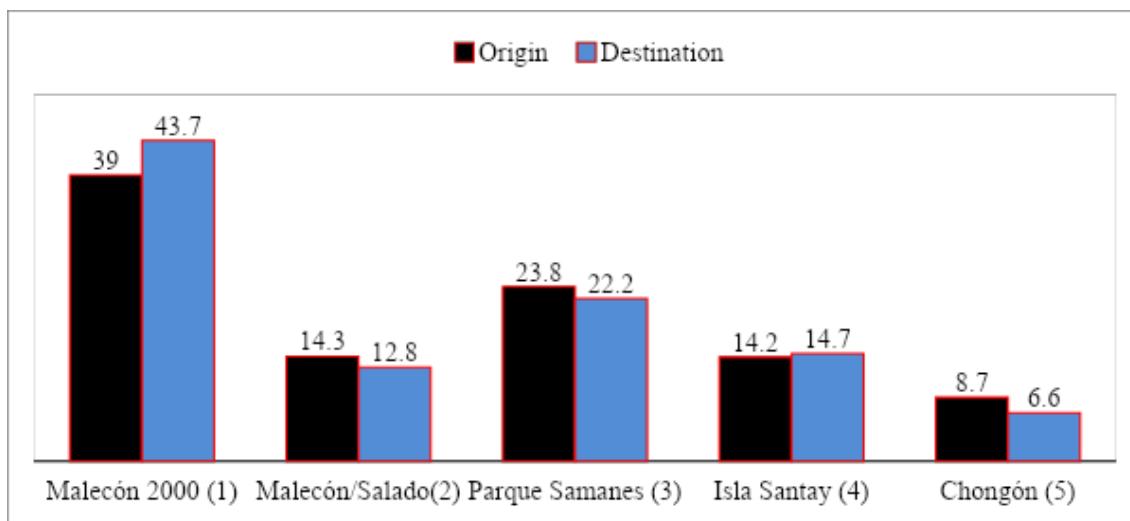
Subsequently, the data extracted from the system was collected and statistically analyzed through the IBM SPSS version 21.0 program. A significance value of  $p < 0.05$  has been established. The code of ethics for research in general has been complied with, as well as the commitment to data confidentiality and good research practices. The research conducted is not related to human or animal use. All procedures performed in this manuscript were performed in accordance with ethical research standards. On the other hand, the informed consent of the administration that governs Iguana Bike Tours was obtained.

## III. RESULTS

The most used station of origin of Iguana Bike Tours was that of the Malecón 2000, downtown, representing a total of 39% of the observations,

followed by that of the Malecón del Salado (outskirts) with 23.8% (Figure 2 and Table 1). In terms of gender, men used the downtown station with 40.2%, followed by Parque Samanes (21.2%), Isla Santay (15.2%), Malecón del Salado (14.1%) and Chongón (9.3%) as shown in Table 1. For their part, women have made use of most of the downtown station (36%), followed closely by the Parque Samanes station (29 .9%), as can be seen in Table 1.

Regarding the destination station, the most represented station was the one in the center, with a total of 43.7%, followed by Parque Samanes with 22.2% (Figure 2 and Table 1). Considering the gender according to the destination stations, the downtown station in Guayaquil was the most represented of all, with 43.6% in men and 43.8% of the observations in women. Regarding the rest of the stations, Parque Samanes remained second with a representation of 21.1% in men and 25% in women (Table 1).



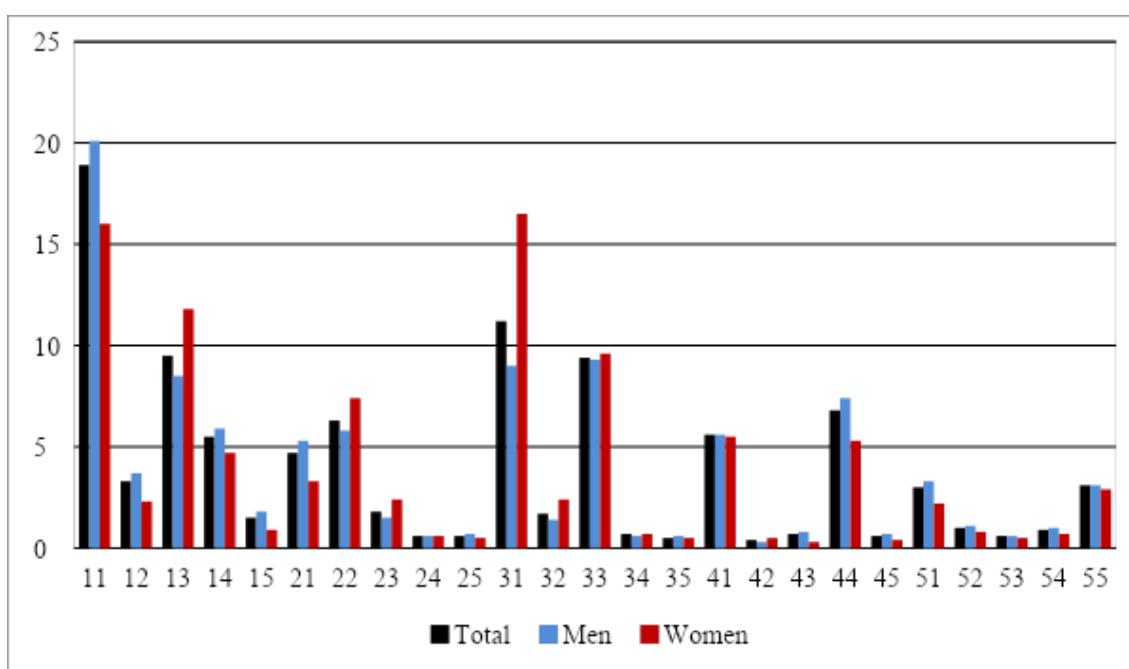
*Fig. 2:* Total observations of origin and destination at Iguana Bike Tours stations

*Table 1:* Total percentages by genre of stations according to origin and destination

| Variable            | All (n=84183) |            |           | Men (n=59159) |            |           | Women (n=25024) |            |           |
|---------------------|---------------|------------|-----------|---------------|------------|-----------|-----------------|------------|-----------|
| Station_Origin      | %             | Stat error | (95% IC)  | %             | Stat error | (95% IC)  | %               | Stat error | (95% IC)  |
| 1                   | 39,0          | 0,16       | 38,6-39,2 | 40,2          | 0,20       | 39,7-40,5 | 36,0            | 0,30       | 35,3-36,5 |
| 2                   | 14,3          | 0,12       | 14,0-14,5 | 14,1          | 0,14       | 13,9-14,4 | 14,6            | 0,22       | 14,1-15,0 |
| 3                   | 23,8          | 0,14       | 23,4-24,0 | 21,2          | 0,16       | 20,8-21,4 | 29,9            | 0,28       | 29,3-30,4 |
| 4                   | 14,2          | 0,12       | 14,0-14,4 | 15,2          | 0,14       | 14,8-15,3 | 12,2            | 0,20       | 11,8-12,6 |
| 5                   | 8,7           | 0,09       | 8,5-8,9   | 9,3           | 0,11       | 9,1-9,6   | 7,3             | 0,16       | 7,0-7,6   |
| Station Destination | %             | Stat error | (95% IC)  | %             | Stat error | (95% IC)  | %               | Stat error | (95% IC)  |
| 1                   | 43,7          | 0,17       | 43,2-43,9 | 43,6          | 0,20       | 43,1-43,9 | 43,8            | 0,31       | 43,1-44,3 |
| 2                   | 12,8          | 0,11       | 12,5-13,0 | 12,4          | 0,13       | 12,2-12,7 | 13,6            | 0,21       | 13,1-13,9 |
| 3                   | 22,2          | 0,14       | 21,9-22,4 | 21,1          | 0,16       | 20,6-21,3 | 25,0            | 0,27       | 24,4-25,5 |
| 4                   | 14,7          | 0,12       | 14,4-14,9 | 15,8          | 0,15       | 15,5-16,1 | 12,2            | 0,20       | 11,7-12,6 |
| 5                   | 6,6           | 0,08       | 6,4-6,8   | 7,1           | 0,10       | 6,9-7,3   | 5,4             | 0,14       | 5,2-5,7   |

Of the 25 available among the five stations distributed around the town, the most represented route, both in men and women, was the one that corresponds to the downtown station in Malecón 2000 (Figure 3 and Table 2), in other words, it was picks up the bike and deposits it at that station. Therefore, route 11, which corresponds to the central station, has had 19% of the total observations. The path between station 3 (Parque Samanes) and 1 (center), that is, path 31, is quantified with 11.3% of the total observations, followed by path 13 (which corresponds to the stations in the center and Parque Samanes) with 9.6%. With respect to gender, routes 11 (Malecón

2000-Malecón 2000), 33 (Parque Samanes-Parque Samanes), 31 (Parque Samanes-Malecón 2000) and 13 (Malecón 2000-Parque Samanes) were the most representative in the male gender, with the percentages being 20.2%, 9.4%, 9.1% and 8.6%, respectively (Figure 3 and Table 2). On the other hand, routes 31 (Parque Samanes-Malecón 2000), 11 (Malecón 2000-Malecón 2000), 13 (Malecón 2000-Parque Samanes) and 33 (Parque Samanes-Parque Samanes) were the most representative in the female gender, with percentages of 16.6%, 16.1%, 11.9% and 9.7% respectively (Figure 3 and Table 2).



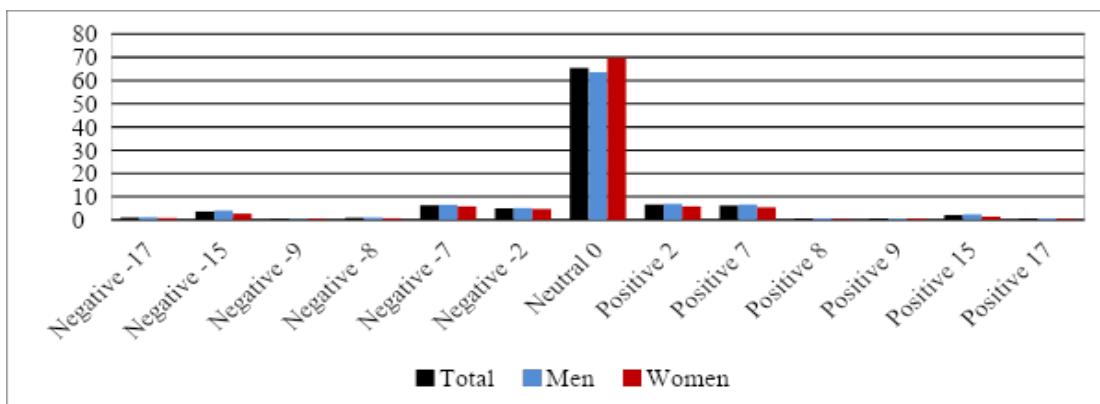
*Fig. 3:* Percentage of observations according to routes and gender

**Table 2:** Percentage of observations according to routes and gender

| Variable | All (n=84183) |      |            | Men (n=59159) |      |            | Women (n=25024) |      |            |
|----------|---------------|------|------------|---------------|------|------------|-----------------|------|------------|
|          | Journey       | %    | Stat error | (95% IC)      | %    | Stat error | (95% IC)        | %    | Stat error |
| 11       | 19,0          | 0,13 | 18,6-19,2  | 20,2          | 0,16 | 19,8-20,4  | 16,1            | 0,23 | 15,6-16,5  |
| 12       | 3,4           | 0,06 | 3,1-3,4    | 3,8           | 0,07 | 3,5-3,8    | 2,4             | 0,09 | 2,1-2,5    |
| 13       | 9,6           | 0,10 | 9,3-9,7    | 8,6           | 0,11 | 8,2-8,7    | 11,9            | 0,20 | 11,4-12,2  |
| 14       | 5,6           | 0,07 | 5,4-5,7    | 6,0           | 0,09 | 5,7-6,1    | 4,8             | 0,13 | 4,4-4,9    |
| 15       | 1,5           | 0,04 | 1,4-1,6    | 1,9           | 0,05 | 1,7-1,9    | 0,9             | 0,06 | 0,8-1,0    |
| 21       | 4,8           | 0,07 | 4,6-4,9    | 5,4           | 0,09 | 5,1-5,5    | 3,4             | 0,11 | 3,1-3,6    |
| 22       | 6,4           | 0,08 | 6,1-6,4    | 5,9           | 0,09 | 5,6-6,0    | 7,5             | 0,16 | 7,1-7,7    |
| 23       | 1,8           | 0,04 | 1,7-1,9    | 1,5           | 0,05 | 1,4-1,6    | 2,5             | 0,09 | 2,3-2,6    |
| 24       | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6             | 0,05 | 0,5-0,7    |
| 25       | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,7           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,8    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,6    |
| 31       | 11,3          | 0,10 | 11,0-11,4  | 9,1           | 0,11 | 8,8-9,2    | 16,6            | 0,23 | 16,1-17,0  |
| 32       | 1,7           | 0,04 | 1,6-1,7    | 1,4           | 0,04 | 1,3-1,5    | 2,5             | 0,09 | 2,2-2,6    |
| 33       | 9,5           | 0,10 | 9,2-9,6    | 9,4           | 0,11 | 9,1-9,5    | 9,7             | 0,18 | 9,2-10,0   |
| 34       | 0,7           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,7             | 0,05 | 0,6-0,8    |
| 35       | 0,5           | 0,02 | 0,5-0,6    | 0,6           | 0,03 | 0,5-0,6    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,6    |
| 41       | 5,7           | 0,07 | 5,4-5,7    | 5,7           | 0,09 | 5,5-5,8    | 5,6             | 0,14 | 5,2-5,7    |
| 42       | 0,4           | 0,02 | 0,3-0,4    | 0,3           | 0,02 | 0,3-0,4    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,6    |
| 43       | 0,7           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,8           | 0,03 | 0,7-0,9    | 0,3             | 0,03 | 0,3-0,4    |
| 44       | 6,9           | 0,08 | 6,6-6,9    | 7,5           | 0,10 | 7,2-7,6    | 5,4             | 0,14 | 5,0-5,5    |
| 45       | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,5-0,7    | 0,7           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,4             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,5    |
| 51       | 3,0           | 0,05 | 2,8-3,1    | 3,4           | 0,07 | 3,1-3,4    | 2,2             | 0,09 | 2,0-2,3    |
| 52       | 1,0           | 0,03 | 0,9-1,1    | 1,1           | 0,04 | 1,0-1,2    | 0,8             | 0,05 | 0,7-0,9    |
| 53       | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,5-0,6    |
| 54       | 0,9           | 0,03 | 0,8-1,0    | 1,0           | 0,04 | 0,9-1,0    | 0,7             | 0,05 | 0,6-0,8    |
| 55       | 3,2           | 0,05 | 3,0-3,2    | 3,2           | 0,07 | 3,0-3,3    | 3,0             | 0,10 | 2,7-3,1    |

In relation to the altitudes between the routes, no great differences were analyzed between the observations made. The neutral elevation, that is, leaving a station and depositing the bicycle in another with the same altitude, represented 65.5% of the total records. On the other hand, the decreasing elevation, that is, starting from a higher station of origin to one that is at a lower altitude, has been 17.5%, while the increasing elevation, that is, leaving a station of departure of

lower altitude than in which the journey ends, has been 17% (Figure 4 and Table 3). Regarding gender, men made 63.6% of trips between stations of the same altitude, 18.3% with decreasing elevation and 18.1% with increasing altitude (Figure 4 and Table 3). For their part, women performed 69.9% of the neutral altitude, 15.7% of the decreasing altitude and 14.4% of the increasing altitude (Figure 4 and Table 3).

**Fig. 4:** Percentage of observations between the different stations and the elevations that occur between them

**Table 3:** Percentage of observations according to the altitude of the paths between stations

| Variable | All (n=84183) |      |            | Men (n=59159) |      |            | Women (n=25024) |      |            |
|----------|---------------|------|------------|---------------|------|------------|-----------------|------|------------|
|          | Altitude      | %    | Stat error | (95% IC)      | %    | Stat error | (95% IC)        | %    | Stat error |
| -17      | 1,0           | 0,03 | 0,9-1,1    | 1,1           | 0,04 | 1,0-1,2    | 0,9             | 0,05 | 0,7-0,9    |
| -15      | 3,7           | 0,06 | 3,5-3,7    | 4,1           | 0,08 | 3,8-4,1    | 2,8             | 0,10 | 2,5-3,0    |
| -9       | 0,4           | 0,02 | 0,3-0,4    | 0,3           | 0,02 | 0,3-0,4    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,6    |
| -8       | 0,9           | 0,03 | 0,8-1,0    | 1,0           | 0,04 | 0,9-1,0    | 0,8             | 0,05 | 0,6-0,8    |
| -7       | 6,4           | 0,08 | 6,1-6,5    | 6,6           | 0,10 | 6,3-6,7    | 5,9             | 0,14 | 5,6-6,1    |
| -2       | 5,1           | 0,07 | 4,8-5,1    | 5,2           | 0,09 | 4,9-5,3    | 4,8             | 0,13 | 4,4-5,0    |
| 0        | 65,5          | 0,16 | 65,1-65,7  | 63,6          | 0,19 | 63,1-63,9  | 69,9            | 0,29 | 69,2-70,4  |
| 2        | 6,7           | 0,08 | 6,4-6,7    | 7,0           | 0,10 | 6,7-7,1    | 5,9             | 0,14 | 5,5-6,1    |
| 7        | 6,3           | 0,08 | 6,1-6,4    | 6,7           | 0,10 | 6,4-6,8    | 5,5             | 0,14 | 5,1-5,7    |
| 8        | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,5-0,7    | 0,7           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,4             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,5    |
| 9        | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,6             | 0,05 | 0,5-0,7    |
| 15       | 2,2           | 0,05 | 2,0-2,2    | 2,4           | 0,06 | 2,3-2,5    | 1,5             | 0,07 | 1,3-1,6    |
| 17       | 0,6           | 0,02 | 0,6-0,7    | 0,7           | 0,03 | 0,6-0,8    | 0,5             | 0,04 | 0,4-0,6    |

#### IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this investigation showed that most of the records of use of Iguana Bike Tours both at origin and destination were at the station located in the center of the town at the same altitude. In the same way, Sanmiguel-Rodríguez (2015, 2019) pointed out that the greatest number of trips have their origin and end in the city center and on the routes that run along the coast with hardly any slopes. Following these findings, Contardo et al. (2012) pointed out that most of the journeys recorded on the Bixi in Montreal (Canada) were made in the city center for labor reasons. Garrard et al. (2008) have indicated, in the same way, that 78% of the journeys in the morning in Australia have been made to go to workplaces in the urban center, with 69.7% of the journeys made during the afternoons outside from the urban center.

According to Pucher, Garrard et al. (2011) rates of cycling were higher in urban areas of central Melbourne and Sydney, Australia.

For their part, Talavera-García et al. (2021) indicated that the cycling flow of frequent users on the BiciMAD in Madrid (Spain) is dispersed, covering more areas than that of occasional users who tend to concentrate their trips in the most touristic areas such as the city center. As for frequent users, they observed that the cyclist flow grows on weekdays around the northern districts of Madrid, which are prominent workplaces.

Instead, weekends tend to travel more on the north-south axis, which connects residential areas in the north with tourist and entertainment spots in the south. According to Chen et al. (2020) the characteristics of the built environment: such as population density, bicycle infrastructure and having public transport nearby play a fundamental role in the use of the BSS and the stations of the urban center when it comes to active commuting.

The results of Mix et al. (2022) in the BSS of Santiago de Chile (Chile) showed a relationship between the urban environment, the presence of bicycle lanes near the stations of the system and the use of public bicycles. This study (Mix et al., 2022) confirmed the benefit of integrated commuting modeling and station location in encouraging greater use of public bicycles and promoting more sustainable and active mobility among the population. Following these lines, Buck and Buehler (2012) analyzed the Capital Bikeshare system in Washington DC (United States) and found a significant positive correlation between bicycle lanes, population density and the use of shared bicycles. Similar results have been found by Rixey (2013), who examined three US BSSs and identified significant positive associations between population density, labor density, and the presence of bike lanes in the urban environment. For Sun et al. (2018), users tend to use shared bicycles more in stations that are closer to bus stops or other public transport.

The demand for shared bicycles is mainly concentrated in the six central districts of the city, with more than 80% of the total demand (Hu et al., 2022). The advantages of bicycle sharing can be better exploited to promote the sustainable development of active transport in the future (Hu et al., 2022).

On the other hand, in relation to altitudes, the results of this study have shown that the greatest number of routes between stations have been made at the same altitude. In other words, it has been observed that a large part of the paths has occurred between stations at the same level or between the stations themselves. Likewise, the data indicated that more trips have been made to destinations with stations located in the lower areas, that is, with decreasing slopes. Following these contributions, DeMaio (2009) pointed out that in Vélib de Paris (France) in high-elevation stations there are more trip initiations than returns, because people avoid traveling uphill. As it takes more physical effort and more time to reach the higher altitude stations, the Vélib system successfully offered an extra 15 minutes to access about 100 of these designated uphill stations. Altitudes and elevations could be an impediment to the use of public bicycles, since users normally avoid traveling uphill as much as possible (DeMaio, 2009).

Other researchers (Contardo et al., 2012; Midgley, 2009) have indicated that the topography enhances this effect, since the stations located at higher altitudes are the ones that have the greatest demand at the beginning of the journey, while the stations located in the lower altitude or flat areas were the ones that registered the highest returns. Similarly, the stations that were at a higher altitude have been used less by users (Midgley, 2009). Pucher, Garrard et al. (2011) pointed out that flat topography plays a determining role in the use of BSS in the urban environment in Australia. This pattern of use of the Brisbane CityCycle (Australia) is repeated according to Mateo-Babiano et al. (2016), since the users of the system avoid returning the bicycles to the stations located on the tops of the hills. Talavera-Garcia et al. (2021) analyzed the

impact of the topography of the city of Madrid on the use of the BiciMAD system. These authors (Talavera-García et al., 2021) pointed out that the elevation of the city decreases from north to south, with the areas closest to the river being the ones with the lowest elevation and the greatest presence of steep streets. This could affect the cycling flow by making it asymmetric, with a greater number of users descending towards the south, an imbalance already detected by other research (Faghih-Imani et al., 2017) in cities such as Barcelona (Spain).

Following these lines, Munkácsy and Monzón (2017) pointed out that topographical factors, such as the unevenness and slopes of the urban center, can make it difficult to promote active trips by bicycle and the use of Madrid's BiciMAD.

## V. STUDY LIMITATIONS

One of the main limitations of this study is that it has not been possible to measure the exact routes with GPS. On the other hand, pulse meters could also be used to measure heart rate and pulse oximeters to be able to quantify the intensity of the journeys made by the different users of the system. Each ID could also be studied individually on a daily basis to see if city barriers affect the use of the system. In any case, these results can be very useful for health professionals and public bodies, since they will know the profile of bicycle users and their patterns of use in order to improve the urban environment to encourage the practice of physical activity among the population and develop healthy infrastructures and policies to combat sedentary habits in the population.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

The data analyzed indicated that the station with the most observations of use was the one in the city center (Malecón 2000), followed by the one in Parque Samanes (outskirts). The data showed that the routes between the stations with the same elevation and low altitude with respect to sea level have been the ones that registered the most use in the Iguana Bike Tours system. However, Guayaquil has few elevations and slopes and, therefore, may be ideal for promoting the practice

of physical activity in a healthy way in the population. To do this, different policies that encourage safe spaces and infrastructures should be taken into account, since the largest records of use have occurred in the center (where there are lanes designated for bicycles) and between the center station and the one located in Samanes Park (outskirts) that joins the center of the town by means of a walk separated from motor vehicles. The data indicated that the routes that ran along the coast between the center and Parque Samanes (outskirts) were preferred by women.

Surely this is due to the greater sense of security. In addition, the city of Guayaquil has some favorable topographical characteristics to be a profitable service that promotes healthy habits as a means of active transportation in the urban environment.

## REFERENCIAS (APA 6TA EDICIÓN)

1. Beenackers, M. A., Foster, S., Kamphuis, C., Titze, S., Divitini, M., Knuiman, M., van Lenthe, F. J. and Giles-Corti, B. (2012). Taking up cycling after residential relocation: built environment factors. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 42(6), 610-615. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2012.02.021>
2. Bauman, A., Crane, M., Drayton, B. A. y Titze, S. (2017). The unrealised potential of bike share schemes to influence population physical activity levels—A narrative review. *Preventive Medicine*, 103, S7-S14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2017.02.015>.
3. Buck, D. y Buehler, R. (22-26 de enero de 2012). Bike lanes and other determinants of capital bikeshare trips. In Proceedings of the Transportation Research Board 91st Annual Meeting, Washington, DC, USA. <https://nacto.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/02/Bike-Lanes-and-Other-Determinants-of-Capital-Bikeshare-Trips-Buck-et-al-12-3539.pdf>
4. Chen, Z., van Lierop, D. y Ettema, D. (2020). Dockless bike-sharing systems: what are the implications? *Transport Reviews*, 40(3), 333-353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2019.1710306>.
5. Clockston, R. L. M. y Rojas-Rueda, D. (2021). Health impacts of bike-sharing systems in the US. *Environmental Research*, 202, 111709. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.111709>
6. Contardo, C., Morency, C. y Rousseau, L. M. (2012). Balancing a dynamic public bike-sharing system. *CIRRELT*.
7. Dekoster, J. y Schollaert, U. (2000). En bici, hacia ciudades sin malos humos. Oficina de Publicaciones Oficiales de las Comunidades Europeas.
8. DeMaio, P. (2009). Bike-sharing: History, impacts, models of provision, and future. *Journal of Public Transportation*, 12(4), 41-56. <https://doi.org/10.5038/2375-0901.12.4.3>
9. Faghih - Imani, A., Hampshire, R., Marla, L. y Eluru, N. (2017). An empirical analysis of bike sharing usage and rebalancing: Evidence from Barcelona and Seville. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 97, 177-191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2016.12.007>.
10. Garrard, J., Rose, G. y Lo, S. K. (2008). Promoting transportation cycling for women. The role of bicycle infrastructure. *Preventive Medicine*, 46, 55-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2007.07.010>
11. Hu, B., Zhong, Z., Zhang, Y., Sun, Y., Jiang, L., Dong, X. y Sun, H. (2022). Understanding the influencing factors of bicycle-sharing demand based on residents' trips. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, 586, 126472. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physa.2021.126472>
12. Hunt, J. D. y Abraham, J. E. (2007). Influences on bicycle use. *Transportation*, 34(4), 453-470. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s1116-006-9109-1>.
13. Mateo-Babiano, I., Bean, R., Corcoran, J. y Pojani, D. (2016). How does our natural and built environment affect the use of bicycle sharing? *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 94, 295-307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2016.09.015>.
14. Menghini, G., Carrasco, N., Schüssler, N. y Axhausen, K. W. (2010). Route choice of cyclists in Zurich. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 44(9), 754-765. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2010.07.008>.

15. Midgley, P. (2009). The role of smart bike-sharing systems in urban mobility. *Journeys*, 2, 23-31. <https://www.gtkp.com/assets/uploads/20091127-144837-7443-IS02-p23%20Bike-sharing.pdf>
16. Mix, R., Hurtubia, R. y Raveau, S. (2022). Optimal location of bike-sharing stations: A built environment and accessibility approach. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 160, 126-142. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2022.03.022>.
17. Munkácsy, A. y Monzón, A. (2017). Potential user profiles of innovative bike-sharing systems: the case of BiciMAD (Madrid, Spain). *Asian Transport Studies*, 4(3), 621-638. <https://doi.org/10.11175/eastsats.4.621>.
18. Nieuwenhuijsen, M. J. y Rojas-Rueda, D. (2020). Bike-sharing systems and health (In) MJ, Nieuwenhuijsen and H, Khreis, *Advances in Transportation and Health* (239-250). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-819136-1.00010-3>.
19. Ogilvie, F. y Goodman, A. (2012). Inequalities in usage of a public bicycle sharing scheme: Socio-demographic predictors of uptake and usage of the London (UK) cycle hire scheme. *Preventive Medicine*, 55(1), 40-45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.05.002>.
20. Otero, I., Nieuwenhuijsen, M. J. y Rojas-Rueda, D. (2018). Health impacts of bike sharing systems in Europe. *Environment International*, 115, 387-394. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2018.04.014>.
21. Pucher, J., Buehler, R. y Seinen, M. (2011). Bicycling renaissance in North America? An update and re-appraisal of cycling trends and policies. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 45(6), 451-475. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2011.03.001>.
22. Pucher, J., Garrard, J. y Greaves, S. (2011). Cycling down under: a comparative analysis of bicycling trends and policies in Sydney and Melbourne. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 19(2), 332-345. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2010.02.007>.
23. Pucher, J., Komanoff, C. y Schimek, P. (1999). Bicycling renaissance in North America? Recent trends and alternative policies to promote bicycling. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 33(7), 625-654. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0965-8564\(99\)00010-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0965-8564(99)00010-5).
24. Rietveld, P. y Daniel, V. (2004). Determinants of bicycle use: Do municipal policies matter?. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 38(7), 531-550. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2004.05.003>
25. Rixey, R. A. (2013). Station-level forecasting of bikesharing ridership: Station network effects in three US systems. *Transportation research record*, 2387(1), 46-55. <https://doi.org/10.3141/2387-06>.
26. Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, A. (2015). Ambiente urbano y bicicletas compartidas: efectos sobre la actividad física [Tesis Doctoral]. Universidad de Vigo. <http://www.investigo.biblioteca.uvigo.es/xmlui/handle/11093/381>.
27. Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, A. (2019). Análisis de las edades, trayectos y minutos de uso en la utilización de un sistema de bicicletas compartidas: el caso del VaiBike en Vilagarcía de Arousa (España). *Retos: Nuevas Tendencias en Educación Física, Deporte y Recreación*, 35, 314-319. <https://doi.org/10.47197/retos.voi35.66470>.
28. Sanmiguel-Rodríguez, A. (2020). Cumplimiento de las recomendaciones de actividad física de la OMS por usuarios de bicicletas públicas en un municipio español. *Revista Habanera de Ciencias Médicas*, 19(3) e2955. <http://www.revhabanera.sld.cu/index.php/rhab/article/view/2955>.
29. Sanmiguel-Rodríguez A. (2022). Bike-sharing systems: Effects on physical activity in a Spanish municipality. *Physical Activity Review*, 10(2), 66-76. <https://doi.org/10.16926/par.2022.10.22>.
30. Sanmiguel-Rodríguez A. y Arufe Giráldez V. (2019). Impact of climate on a bike-sharing system. Minutes of use depending on day of the week, month and season of the year. *Cuadernos de Psicología del Deporte*, 19(2), 102-112. <https://doi.org/10.6018/cpd.338441>
31. Scheiner, J. (2010). Interrelations between travel mode choice and trip distance: trends in Germany 1976-2002. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 18(1), 75-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2009.01.001>.

32. Soriguera, F. y Jiménez-Meroño, E. (2020). A continuous approximation model for the optimal design of public bike-sharing systems. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 52, 101826. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2019.101826>.
33. Sun, F., Chen, P. y Jiao, J. (2018). Promoting public bike-sharing: A lesson from the unsuccessful Pronto system. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment*, 63, 533-547. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2018.06.021>.
34. Talavera-García, R., Romanillos, G. y Arias-Molinares, D. (2021). Examining spatio-temporal mobility patterns of bike-sharing systems: the case of BiciMAD (Madrid). *Journal of Maps*, 17(1), 7-13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17445647.2020.1866697>.
35. Tin, S. T., Woodward, A., Robinson, E. y Ameratunga, S. (2012). Temporal, seasonal and weather effects on cycle volume: an ecological study. *Environmental Health*, 11(12), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-069X-11-12>.
36. Unwin, N. C. (1995). Promoting the public health benefits of cycling. *Public Health*, 109(1), 41-46. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0033-3506\(95\)80074-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0033-3506(95)80074-3).
37. Vandenbulcke, G., Dujardin, C., Thomas, I., de Geus, B., Degraeuwe, B., Meeusen, R. y Panis, L. I. (2011). Cycle commuting in Belgium: spatial determinants and ‘re-cycling’ strategies. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 45(2), 118-137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2010.11.004>.
38. Zhang, L., Zhang, J., Duan, Z. Y. y Bryde, D. (2015). Sustainable bike-sharing systems: characteristics and commonalities across cases in urban China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 97, 124-133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.04.006>.

# Great Britain Journal Press Membership

For Authors, subscribers, Boards and organizations



Great Britain Journals Press membership is an elite community of scholars, researchers, scientists, professionals and institutions associated with all the major disciplines. Great Britain memberships are for individuals, research institutions, and universities. Authors, subscribers, Editorial Board members, Advisory Board members, and organizations are all part of member network.

Read more and apply for membership here:  
<https://journalspress.com/journals/membership>



For Authors



For Institutions



For Subscribers

Author Membership provide access to scientific innovation, next generation tools, access to conferences/seminars/symposiums/webinars, networking opportunities, and privileged benefits. Authors may submit research manuscript or paper without being an existing member of GBJP. Once a non-member author submits a research paper he/she becomes a part of "Provisional Author Membership".

Society flourish when two institutions Come together." Organizations, research institutes, and universities can join GBJP Subscription membership or privileged "Fellow Membership" membership facilitating researchers to publish their work with us, become peer reviewers and join us on Advisory Board.

Subscribe to distinguished STM (scientific, technical, and medical) publisher. Subscription membership is available for individuals universities and institutions (print & online). Subscribers can access journals from our libraries, published in different formats like Printed Hardcopy, Interactive PDFs, EPUBs, eBooks, indexable documents and the author managed dynamic live web page articles, LaTeX, PDFs etc.



GO GREEN AND HELP  
SAVE THE ENVIRONMENT

## JOURNAL AVAILABLE IN

PRINTED VERSION, INTERACTIVE PDFS, EPUBS, EBOOKS, INDEXABLE DOCUMENTS AND THE AUTHOR MANAGED DYNAMIC LIVE WEB PAGE ARTICLES, LATEX, PDFS, RESTRUCTURED TEXT, TEXTILE, HTML, DOCBOOK, MEDIAWIKI MARKUP, TWIKI MARKUP, OPML, EMACS ORG-MODE & OTHER



[support@journalspress.com](mailto:support@journalspress.com)  
[www.journalspress.com](http://www.journalspress.com)



\*THIS JOURNAL SUPPORT AUGMENTED REALITY APPS AND SOFTWARES