

Asymmetric cost behavior and earnings forecast precision: A cross-country study of Iraq and Jordan

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Abstract

This study explores the impact of cost stickiness and its signaling effect on the accuracy of earnings per share (EPS) forecasts in the capital markets of developing countries, with a focus on Iraq and Jordan. Cost stickiness, defined as the asymmetric response of costs to revenue fluctuations, particularly their slower reduction during sales declines, challenges traditional forecasting models that assume cost symmetry. Drawing on panel data from 30 publicly listed firms between 2014 and 2023, the study tests six regression-based hypotheses. The results indicate that higher levels of total and operational cost stickiness significantly impair EPS forecast accuracy. In Iraq, operational and wage-related stickiness exert the strongest effects, while in Jordan, service and depreciation costs play a more prominent role. These findings are interpreted through agency theory, signaling, and information asymmetry, emphasizing how weaker institutional quality and disclosure, as in Iraq, intensify the adverse effects. The study contributes to the cost behavior literature and offers practical insights for analysts, regulators, and managers in emerging markets.

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1. Introduction

Understanding cost behavior is a central issue in management accounting, as it directly affects financial forecasting and decision-making. Traditional models classify costs as fixed or variable, assuming that changes in activity levels produce proportional cost adjustments regardless of direction. Under this view, costs are expected to rise and fall symmetrically with sales, depending solely on the magnitude of the change [1, 2].

However, evidence from the past two decades challenges this assumption, showing that costs often decrease less during sales downturns than they increase during upturns, a phenomenon known as cost stickiness [3, 4]. This asymmetric behavior reflects managerial and organizational decisions, such as retaining resources in anticipation of future demand. While much of the literature has concentrated on cost behavior during sales declines, less attention has been paid to cost responses during sales growth [5, 6]. Yet, positive cost signals accompanying sales expansion can provide important insights into future performance and forecast reliability.

Banker and Chen [2], for example, demonstrated that forecasting models incorporating both cost stickiness and positive signals outperform those relying solely on segmented earnings information.

Another important dimension is the classification of costs. Aggregated analysis of total costs obscures the heterogeneous behavior of individual categories. Costs may differ substantially by function, such as cost of goods sold versus operating expenses, or by nature, including wages, services, and depreciation. Disaggregating costs, therefore, provides a more accurate picture of how each component responds to revenue changes and how these responses affect earnings predictions [7, 8].

Accurate earnings per share (EPS) forecasts are crucial for investors, analysts, and regulators, particularly in developing capital markets where transparency and institutional quality are limited. Failure to account for cost stickiness and positive cost signals may reduce the reliability of such forecasts. Consequently, this study examines the influence of both aggregate and disaggregated cost behavior by function and by nature on EPS forecast accuracy in firms listed on the Iraq and Jordan stock exchanges [9, 10].

The study addresses the following research question: How does cost behavior, in terms of both function and nature, affect the accuracy of EPS forecasts in developing market contexts such as Iraq and Jordan?

2. Theoretical foundations of the study

This study investigates how stickiness costs and its positive signals on the accuracy of earnings per share (EPS) forecasts in developing markets. Several theories provide the conceptual foundation. Agency cost theory links cost stickiness to conflicts between managers and shareholders, as managers may retain resources during downturns to safeguard their control [11, 12]. Information asymmetry theory emphasizes that managers possess superior knowledge of cost structures, while investors face limited disclosure, leading to greater forecast errors.

The cost stickiness theory demonstrates that costs decrease more slowly when sales decline than they increase when sales rise, producing asymmetric behavior that undermines forecasting models that assume symmetry. Signaling theory suggests that managers use cost behavior as a market signal, which may mislead investors if costs are not reduced during downturns [1, 13]. Managerial behavior theory highlights psychological and organizational factors, such as reluctance to cut staff, that reinforce cost stickiness and distort financial information [14, 15].

These theories jointly explain why sticky costs reduce EPS forecast accuracy, especially in weak institutional environments such as Iraq and Jordan. Prior researches [1, 4] confirm that both cost stickiness and positive cost signals increase analyst forecast errors, and that effects differ across cost categories.

Accordingly, the study develops the following hypotheses:

H1: The stickiness of costs (the combined total of cost of goods sold and operating expenses) has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share (EPS) forecasts in the Iraq Stock Exchange.

H2: The stickiness of costs (the combined total of cost of goods sold and operating expenses) has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share (EPS) forecasts in the Jordan Stock Exchange.

H3: The stickiness of operating expenses has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share forecasts in the Iraq Stock Exchange.

H4: The stickiness of operating expenses has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share forecasts in the Jordan Stock Exchange.

H5: The stickiness of wage expenses, service costs, and depreciation costs has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share forecasts in the Iraq Stock Exchange.

H6: The stickiness of wage expenses, service costs, and depreciation costs has an inverse effect on the accuracy of earnings per share forecasts in the Jordan Stock Exchange.

3. Methodology

This research is applied in terms of its purpose and is analytical (causal) in nature. Philosophically, it belongs to the positive accounting paradigm. From the implementation perspective, it follows a quantitative approach, and in terms of reasoning, it employs a deductive–inductive methodology. Regarding the time dimension, it is classified as a longitudinal and retrospective study, using historical data of sample firms.

The statistical population consists of companies listed on the Iraq and Jordan Stock Exchanges over the period 2014 to 2023.

The final sample size will be determined after the screening process. Companies are selected based on the following criteria:

1. Companies listed on the Iraq and Jordan Stock Exchanges with accessible financial data for the 2014–2023 period;
2. Companies whose shares were actively traded during the 2014–2023 period and were not delisted by the end of the fiscal year 2014;
3. To ensure comparability, companies whose fiscal year ends in December each year;
4. Companies that did not report losses in any of the years under study;
5. Excluding banks, financial institutions, insurance firms, holding companies, investment firms, and similar entities.

4. Variables and measurement

Dependent variable: Accuracy of EPS forecasts

The forecast error of EPS (FE_{it}) is used, measured using the model proposed by Cheng and Firth (2000):

$$FE_{i,t} = \frac{(AP_{i,t} - FP_{i,t})}{FP_{i,t}}$$

FE_{it}: The absolute value of the earnings per share (EPS) forecast error by the managers of company i in year t .

AP_{it}: The actual net earnings per share of the company i in year t .

FP_{it}: The forecasted net earnings per share by the managers (calculated using the weighted moving average method).

The smaller the value of this ratio, the higher the accuracy in estimating the earnings per share.

Independent variable: Cost stickiness

Cost stickiness is measured based on the model developed by Anderson et al.:

$$\text{Cost Signal}^- = \frac{\text{COST}_{i,t}}{\text{SALES}_{i,t}} - \frac{\text{COST}_{i,t-1}}{\text{SALES}_{i,t-1}}$$

In periods of declining sales, the value obtained from the above model indicates cost stickiness. Under other conditions, the value of this variable is considered to be zero [16, 17].

This ratio, during periods of declining sales, is referred to as the negative cost stickiness signal. According to this model, when sales decrease, the calculated figure reflects cost stickiness; otherwise (in cases of increasing or unchanged sales), it is assigned a value of zero [18, 19].

Based on this model, during periods of increasing sales, it is expected that the ratio of costs to sales will decrease due to the presence of fixed costs. This change in the cost-to-sales ratio is recognized as a positive cost stickiness signal. The method of calculating the positive cost signal is as follows:

$$\text{Cost Signal}^+ = \frac{\text{COST}_{i,t}}{\text{SALES}_{i,t}} - \frac{\text{COST}_{i,t-1}}{\text{SALES}_{i,t-1}}$$

In periods of increasing sales, the value obtained from the above model indicates cost stickiness. Otherwise, it is assigned a value of zero.

This ratio, during periods of increasing sales, is referred to as the positive cost stickiness signal. According to this model, when sales increase, the calculated figure reflects the positive cost signal; otherwise (in cases of decreasing or unchanged sales), it is assigned a value of zero.

COST_{i,t}: Current period costs (including total costs, cost of goods sold, operating expenses, salaries and wages, services, and depreciation)

SALES_{i,t}: Current period sales

COST_{i,t-1}: Prior period costs (including total costs, cost of goods sold, operating expenses, salaries and wages, services, and depreciation)

SALES_{i,t-1}: Prior period sales

5. Empirical models

To test the research hypotheses, regression models adapted from [4, 6] are used.

The regression model for Hypotheses 1 & 2 is based on:

$$FE_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{TotalCost Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_2 \text{TotalCost Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_3 MV_{i,t} + \beta_4 \text{LOSS}_{i,t} + \beta_5 \text{DOWN}_{i,t} + \beta_6 \text{VSALE}_{i,t} + \beta_7 \text{MARGIN}_{i,t} + \beta_8 \Delta \text{NINCOME}_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

If coefficients β_1 and β_2 are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level, the first and second hypotheses will not be rejected.

Regression model for Hypotheses 3 and 4:

$$FE_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{COGS Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_2 \text{SG\&A Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_3 \text{COGS Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_4 \text{SG\&A Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_5 MV_{i,t} + \beta_6 \text{LOSS}_{i,t} + \beta_7 \text{DOWN}_{i,t} + \beta_8 \text{VSALE}_{i,t} + \beta_9 \text{MARGIN}_{i,t} + \beta_{10} \Delta \text{NINCOME}_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (5)$$

If the coefficients β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , and β_4 are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level, the third and fourth hypotheses of the research will not be rejected.

The regression model for testing the fifth and sixth hypotheses is presented in:

$$FE_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Wage Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_2 \text{Serv Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_3 \text{Dep Signal}^-_{i,t} + \beta_4 \text{Wage Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_5 \text{Serv Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_6 \text{Dep Signal}^+_{i,t} + \beta_7 MV_{i,t} + \beta_8 \text{LOSS}_{i,t} + \beta_9 \text{DOWN}_{i,t} + \beta_{10} \text{VSALE}_{i,t} + \beta_{11} \text{MARGIN}_{i,t} + \beta_{12} \Delta \text{NINCOME}_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

If the coefficients β_1 through β_6 are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level, the fifth and sixth hypotheses of the research will not be rejected.

Table 1. Variables

Variable Name	Description
$FE_{i,t}$	Forecast error of earnings per share (EPS)
$MV_{i,t}$	Natural logarithm of the market value of equity
$LOSS_{i,t}$	Dummy variable: equals 1 if the firm reports a loss in period t , 0 otherwise
$DOWN_{i,t}$	Dummy variable: equals 1 if the firm forecasts a loss in period t , 0 otherwise
$VSALE_{i,t}$	Percentage change in sales
$MARGIN_{i,t}$	Gross profit margin (gross profit divided by sales)
$\Delta \text{NINCOME}_{i,t}$	Change in net income compared to the same period of the previous year; equals 1 if positive, 0 otherwise.
TotalCost Signal ⁻	Cost stickiness of total costs during periods of sales decrease
TotalCost Signal ⁺	Positive cost signal of total costs during periods of sales increase

Variable Name	Description
COGS Signal–	Cost stickiness of the cost of goods sold (COGS) during periods of sales decrease
SG&A Signal–	Cost stickiness of selling, general, and administrative (SG&A) expenses during periods of sales decrease
COGS Signal+	Positive cost signal of the cost of goods sold during periods of sales increase
SG&A Signal+	Positive cost signal of SG&A expenses during periods of sales increase
Wage Signal–	Cost stickiness of wage expenses during periods of sales decrease
Serv Signal–	Cost stickiness of service expenses during periods of sales decrease
Dep Signal–	Cost stickiness of depreciation expenses during periods of sales decrease
Wage Signal+	Positive cost signal of wage expenses during periods of sales increase
Serv Signal+	Positive cost signal of service expenses during periods of sales increase
Dep Signal+	Positive cost signal of depreciation expenses during periods of sales increase

6. Results and discussion

This study employs a multiple regression model to examine the impact of cost stickiness on earnings forecast accuracy, comparing active firms in Iraq and Jordan. The dataset includes 15 firms from each country between 2014 and 2023. Tables 1 and 2 present descriptive statistics, such as observations, mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum, for the research variables.

The dependent variable is the forecast error of earnings per share (FE), with a mean of 0.119, a standard deviation of 0.564, a minimum of -1.143, and a maximum of 1.603. The key explanatory variables are measures of cost stickiness and their positive signals.

Cost stickiness captures expense behavior during sales declines and generally shows a positive mean. Among its indicators, total cost stickiness records the highest mean and dispersion, while service expenses show the lowest. Positive signals reflect sales growth; their means vary, with total costs showing the lowest (-4.242) and service costs the highest (0.116).

Among control variables, the percentage change in sales has the lowest mean, while the logarithm of equity market value has the highest. Dispersion is assessed mainly by standard deviation.

As shown in Table 4-2, total cost stickiness and its positive signal display the greatest variability, while service cost signals show the lowest (2.274). The maximum observed value also appears in total cost stickiness (193.848). Additional descriptive statistics for Iraqi firms are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of research variables in Iraq

Variable name (English)	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Abbreviation
Earnings Per Share Forecast Error	150	0.119	0.564	-1.143	1.603	FE
Total Cost Stickiness	150	11.435	41.395	-0.086	193.848	Totalcosts~1
Positive Signal of Total Costs	150	-4.242	22.283	-92.912	38.797	Totalcosts~2
COGS Stickiness	150	0.431	1.755	-1.673	8.199	Cogssignal1
Positive Signal of COGS	150	-1.013	4.657	-19.903	6.685	Cogssignal2
SG&A Expense Stickiness	150	1.908	6.935	-0.161	33.449	Sgasignal1
Positive Signal of SG&A Expenses	150	-0.504	6.877	-27.165	25.434	Sgasignal2
Wage Expense Stickiness	150	0.362	3.578	-29.634	14.114	Wagesignal1
Positive Signal of Wage Expenses	150	-1.405	6.828	-33.854	6.805	Wagesignal2
Service Expense Stickiness	150	0.116	0.480	-0.039	2.699	Servsignal1

Variable name (English)	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Abbreviation
Positive Signal of Service Expenses	150	-0.473	2.274	-21.913	1.035	Servsignal2
Depreciation Expense Stickiness	150	1.301	4.523	0	22.712	Depsignal1
Positive Signal of Depreciation Expenses	150	-0.849	5.384	-28.309	8.446	Depsignal2
Log of Market Value of Equity	150	32.691	1.703	27.391	36.201	MV
Loss Indicator	150	0.347	0.478	0	1	LOSS
Forecasted Loss Indicator	150	0.380	0.487	0	1	DOWN
Sales Growth Rate (%)	150	7.428	87.875	-0.997	1076.378	VSALE
Gross Profit Margin	150	29.625	103.149	-1.444	496.281	MARGIN
Change in Net Income Compared to the Previous Period	150	0.613	0.489	0	1	Δ NINCOME

For Jordan, the mean forecast error of earnings per share is -0.247, with a standard deviation of 2.292, ranging from -15.736 to 6.430. Cost stickiness generally shows a positive average, with total cost stickiness recording the highest mean and variation, while wage cost stickiness has the lowest mean and least dispersion.

Positive cost signals display both positive and negative averages. Service costs show the lowest mean (-0.251), whereas depreciation costs have the highest (0.979). Among control variables, the gross profit margin records the lowest mean, while the logarithm of the market value of equity holds the highest. In terms of variability, the positive signal of total costs shows the widest dispersion ($SD = 7.438$), while wage costs show the narrowest ($SD = 0.204$). The maximum observed value across variables is total cost stickiness (41.277)

Additional descriptive statistics for Jordan are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of Jordan's data

Abbreviation	Variable Name	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Fe	Forecast Error of Earnings per Share	150	-0.247	2.292	-15.736	6.430
Totalcosts~1	Total Cost Stickiness	150	2.922	8.592	-0.148	41.277
Totalcosts~2	Positive Signal of Total Costs	150	0.147	7.438	-27.921	38.131
Cogssignal1	Cost of Goods Sold Stickiness	150	0.011	0.592	-0.579	5.487
Cogssignal2	Positive Signal of Cost of Goods Sold	150	-0.121	0.578	-5.358	1.103
Sgasignal1	Operating Cost Stickiness	150	0.141	0.644	-0.041	5.915
Sgasignal2	Positive Signal of Operating Costs	150	-0.082	0.652	-5.900	3.258
Wagesignal1	Wage Cost Stickiness	150	0.004	0.032	-0.079	0.337
Wagesignal2	Positive Signal of Wage Costs	150	-0.023	0.204	-2.326	0.388

Abbreviation	Variable Name	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Servsignal1	Service Cost Stickiness	150	0.167	0.974	-0.391	6.933
Servsignal2	Positive Signal of Service Costs	150	-0.251	1.329	-9.303	0.249
Depsignal1	Depreciation Cost Stickiness	150	2.247	7.195	0	38.778
Depsignal2	Positive Signal of Depreciation Costs	150	0.979	5.973	-8.255	38.568
Mv	Logarithm of Market Value of Equity	150	32.643	0.464	31.252	33.166
Loss	Loss Indicator	150	0.627	0.485	0	1
Down	Loss Prediction Indicator	150	0.693	0.463	0	1
Vsale	Percentage Change in Sales	150	0.046	0.193	-0.413	0.58
Margin	Gross Profit Margin	150	-0.005	0.113	-0.749	0.066
Δincome	Change in Income Compared to the Previous Period	150	0.046	0.050	0	1

In order to make the comparisons more substantiated, the means of the two country groups were compared using the t-test, as shown in Table 4. The average earnings per share forecast error for Iraq is positive, while for Jordan, it is negative. Therefore, based on the calculation formula for the earnings per share forecast error presented in the previous chapter, in Iraq, on average, the net profit forecasted by managers is less than the actual net profit per share ($AP > FP$). In contrast, in Jordan, on average, the net profit forecasted by managers is greater than the actual net profit per share ($FP > AP$). This discrepancy may arise due to different managerial strategies. For instance, Iraqi companies may, due to high conservatism, refrain from revealing positive news about the company. As a result, the forecasted profit in these companies is lower than the actual value. On the other hand, in Jordan, managers may, in an attempt to attract investors or raise the share price of the company, overstate their profit figures, leading to the forecasted profit being higher than the actual profit. Consequently, the average earnings per share forecast error in the two countries is significantly different at the 99% confidence level.

Table 4. Comparison of means for data from two countries

Abbreviation	Variable Name	Iraq Mean	Jordan Mean
Fe	Earnings per Share Forecast Error	0.119***	-0.247***
Totalcosts~1	Total Cost Stickiness	11.435***	2.922***
Totalcosts~2	Positive Total Cost Signal	-4.242***	0.147***
Cogssignal1	Cost of Goods Sold Stickiness	0.431***	0.111***
Cogssignal2	Positive Cost of Goods Sold Signal	-1.013***	-0.121***
Sgasignal1	Operating Expense Stickiness	1.908***	0.141***
Sgasignal2	Positive Operating Expense Signal	-0.504***	-0.082***
Wagesignal1	Wage Expense Stickiness	0.362***	0.004***
Wagesignal2	Positive Wage Expense Signal	-1.405***	-0.023***
Servsignal1	Service Expense Stickiness	0.116	0.157
Servsignal2	Positive Service Expense Signal	-0.473***	-0.251***

Abbreviation	Variable Name	Iraq Mean	Jordan Mean
Depsignal1	Depreciation Expense Stickiness	1.301***	2.247***
Depsignal2	Positive Depreciation Expense Signal	-0.849***	0.979***
Mv	Logarithm of Market Value of Equity	32.691	32.643
Loss	Loss-Making Status	0.327***	0.627***
Down	Predicted Loss-Making Status	0.38***	0.693***
Vsale	Sales Growth Percentage	0.003	0.000
Margin	Non-operating Profit to Sales Ratio	29.625***	-0.05***
Δincome	Income Change Compared to the Previous Period	0.613***	0.46***

It must be noted that *** indicates significance at the 99% level. During times of sales decline, the stickiness of total costs, cost of goods sold, operating costs, and wages is significantly higher in Iraq compared to Jordan. This suggests that the reduction in these costs during a downturn in Iraqi companies is less, leading to greater stickiness. Additionally, the stickiness of depreciation costs in Jordan indicates less variation in depreciation costs relative to activity levels in Jordanian companies, which results in greater stickiness. There is no significant difference in the stickiness of service costs between the two countries, meaning that the behavior of these costs during sales decline is similar in both Iraq and Jordan.

All positive stickiness signals in Iraq are lower than those in Jordan at the 99% confidence level, indicating that during sales increases, the changes in costs in Iraq are less than the changes in costs in Jordan. Moreover, the non-operating profit to sales ratio and income changes compared to the previous period are significantly higher in Iraqi companies.

In the present study, the F-Limer test has been used to examine whether the data are panel or pooled. The results indicate that the panel data model should be used for estimating the coefficients in Iraq, while the pooled data model should be used for Jordan. The results indicate that the panel data model should be used for estimating coefficients in Iraq, while the pooled data model is more suitable for Jordan. To determine the appropriate estimation method for panel data, the Hausman test was applied. Since the Hausman test is only applicable to panel data, it was conducted solely for the regression models of Iraq. The result of the Hausman test indicates that the random effects model is a more appropriate model for Iraq.

According to the results of the model merging test, the first regression model for Iraq should be estimated using the panel data method. Furthermore, after conducting the Hausman test, it was determined that for the best regression estimation, the random effects method should be used. This model for Jordan should be estimated using the pooled data method. Additionally, based on the results in Table 5, the first model in both countries exhibits heteroscedasticity of residuals at the 99% confidence level. The test statistics for this test were 6.87 for Iraq and 75.09 for Jordan, indicating that the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity of residuals is rejected. In contrast, the residuals of the first model for Iraq and Jordan do not exhibit serial correlation. The test statistic for this test was 0.963 for Iraq and 3.282 for Jordan, where the null hypothesis of no serial correlation is confirmed. It is confirmed that there is no serial correlation. By applying the model specification test, it was also determined that the specified model based on the data of companies from both countries does not have any important omitted variables. The test statistic for this test was 0.803 for Iraq and 0.178 for Jordan.

Table 5. Results of diagnostic tests for regression models

Country	Test Name	Chi2 or F	P-Value
Iraq	Breusch-Pagan Test	6.87	0.009
	Wooldridge Test	0.963	0.343
	Ramsey Reset Test	0.33	0.803
Jordan	Breusch-Pagan Test	75.09	0.000
	Wooldridge Test	3.283	0.092
	Ramsey Reset Test	1.66	0.178

The null hypotheses for the three tests are as follows: Homoscedasticity, no serial correlation, and no omitted variables. Based on the presence of heteroscedasticity in the first model of panel data for Iraq, the regression for this country was estimated using the generalized method of moments (GMM). Additionally, due to heteroscedasticity in the first model of pooled data for Jordan, the regression for this country was fitted using the feasible generalized least squares (FGLS) method. The estimation results for the first model for both countries are presented in Table 6. The coefficients of the variables for total cost stickiness and positive signals of total costs for Iraq and Jordan were calculated as 0.008, 0.002, and 0.018, 0.032, respectively. Therefore, as the positive signals and total cost stickiness increase in both countries, the earnings forecast error increases, and the accuracy of the forecast decreases. Consequently, the first and second hypotheses of the research, which suggest that higher cost stickiness (total cost and operating costs) reduces the accuracy of earnings per share forecasts in the stock markets of Iraq and Jordan, are accepted at the 95% confidence level [20, 21].

In Iraq, contrary to Jordan, the intensity of the effect of total cost stickiness on the earnings' forecast error is greater than the positive signal of total cost stickiness. However, the intensity and significance level of the effect of both positive signals and total cost stickiness are higher in Jordan than in Iraq. Among the control variables in Iraq, the company's loss-making status significantly increases the earnings forecast error. Conversely, the prediction of the company's loss-making status and the percentage change in sales significantly reduces the earnings forecast error, thereby increasing the prediction accuracy in this country. In Jordan, the prediction of the company's loss-making status also significantly increases the earnings forecast error at the 95% confidence level.

Table 6. Empirical findings related to hypotheses 1 and 2

Variable Name	Latin Equivalent	Iraq Coefficient	Iraq P-Value	Jordan Coefficient	Jordan P-Value
Total Cost Stickiness	Totalcostsignal1	0.008**	0.026	0.018***	0.000
Positive Signal of Total Costs	Totalcostsignal2	0.002**	0.044	0.032**	0.018
Market Value of Equity (Log)	Mv	0.011	0.627	0.155	0.720
Loss-making Status	Loss	1.329***	0.000	-0.584	0.262
Prediction of Loss-making Status	Down	-1.239***	0.000	1.209**	0.032
Percentage of Sales Change	Vsale	-0.002***	0.000	-0.642	0.549
Gross Profit Margin to Sales Ratio	Margin	0.0002	0.377	-0.403	0.796
Change in Profit Relative to the Previous Period	Δ income	-0.012	0.895	-0.121	0.747
Constant	Constant	-0.208	0.784	-5.776	0.680
Obs		150		150	
Adjusted R ²		10.24%		8.12%	
Wald Test		77.1491	0.000	18.36	0.000
Normality of Residuals		0.750		0.188	

The first model in both countries is statistically significant at the 99% confidence level. However, the explanatory power of the first model is higher in Iraq, with an adjusted R² of 24.10.

Finally, the normality of the regression model residuals in both countries was tested. According to the results of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the normality statistics for the residuals of the first model in Iraq and Jordan

were calculated as 0.75 and 0.188, respectively. Therefore, the residuals of the first model in both countries follow a normal distribution.

Based on the results of the model integration test, the second regression model for Iraq should be estimated using the panel data method. Also, after conducting the Hausman test, it was determined that the best regression estimation method for Iraq is the random effects model. For Jordan, this model should be estimated using the pooled data method. Additionally, according to the results in Table 7, the second model for both countries exhibits heteroscedasticity at the 99% confidence level. The test statistics for this test for the two countries were calculated to be 7.23 and 87.61, respectively, which shows that the null hypothesis of homoscedastic residuals is not confirmed.

Table 7. Results of diagnostic tests for the second regression

Country	Test Name	Chi2 or F	P-Value
Iraq	Breusch-Pagan Test	7.23	0.007
	Woodridge Test	1.03	0.334
	Ramsey RESET Test	0.14	0.936
Jordan	Breusch-Pagan Test	87.61	0.000
	Woodridge Test	3.19	0.096
	Ramsey RESET Test	0.25	0.859

The null hypotheses of the three tests are: homoscedasticity, no serial correlation, and no omitted variables.

For Jordan, the mean forecast error of earnings per share is -0.247. The residuals of the second model for both Iraq and Jordan show no serial correlation, with test statistics of 1.03 and 3.19, confirming the null hypothesis. Model specification tests also indicate no significant omitted variables, with statistics of 0.14 for Iraq and 0.25 for Jordan.

Due to heteroscedasticity, the second model was estimated using GMM for Iraq and FGLS for Jordan. Results (Table 8) show that in Iraq, total cost stickiness and positive cost signals were insignificant, while operating cost stickiness (0.006) and positive operating cost signals (0.002) significantly increased EPS forecast error, confirming Hypothesis 3 at the 95% level.

In Jordan, total cost stickiness (0.028) and positive cost signals (0.012) significantly increased EPS forecast error, while operating cost variables were insignificant, meaning Hypothesis 4 is not supported. The second model is significant at the 99% level in both countries, with Iraq's explanatory power (Adj. $R^2 = 23.65\%$) exceeding the first model. Finally, Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics (0.269 for Iraq, 0.142 for Jordan) confirm residuals follow a normal distribution. Null hypotheses for the three tests: homoscedasticity, no serial correlation, and no omitted variable.

Table 8. Empirical findings related to Hypotheses 3 and 4

Variable Name	Latin Equivalent	Iraq	P-Value	Jordan	P-Value
Cost Stickiness	Cogssignal1	0.003**	0.082	0.028**	0.020
Operating Cost Stickiness	Sgasignal1	0.006**	0.028	0.550*	0.056
Positive Cost Signal	Cogssignal2	0.009*	0.080	0.012***	0.000
Positive Operating Cost Signal	Sgasignal2	0.002***	0.007	0.216*	0.061
Log Market Value of Equity	Mv	0.007	0.768	0.150	0.728
Loss	Loss	1.342***	0.000	-0.430	0.403
Forecast of Loss	Down	-1.233***	0.000	0.996*	0.077
Sales Change Percentage	Vsale	-0.002***	0.000	-0.833	0.422

Variable Name	Latin Equivalent	Iraq	P-Value	Jordan	P-Value
Profit Margin to Sales Ratio	Margin	0.000	0.596	-0.301	0.845
Earnings Change from Previous Period	Δ income	-0.003	0.975	-0.065	0.860
Intercept	Constant	-0.091	0.907	-5.543	0.691
Obs	150		150		
Adjusted R ²	23.65		9.54		
Wald Test	142.89	0.000	115.06	0.000	
Norm of Residual	0.269		0.142		

Based on the results of the model combination test, the third regression model for Iraq should also be estimated using panel data. Furthermore, by performing the Hausman test, it was determined that in order to achieve the best regression estimate, the random effects method should be used. This model for Jordan should be estimated using pooled data. In addition, based on the results in Table 9, the third model in both countries exhibits heteroscedasticity of the residuals at the 99% confidence level. The test statistic for this test for the two countries was calculated as 7.14 and 47.59, respectively, indicating that the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity of the residuals is not confirmed.

In contrast, the residuals of the third model for both countries do not exhibit serial correlation. The test statistic for serial correlation for Iraq and Jordan was calculated as 2.33 and 3.49, respectively, confirming the null hypothesis of no serial correlation. Additionally, by using the model specification test, it was determined that the specified model for both countries does not have any important omitted variables. The test statistic for this test for Iraq and Jordan was calculated as 1.29 and 1.51, respectively.

Table 9. Diagnostic test results of the third regression

Variable Name	Test Name	Chi ² or F (Iraq)	P-Value (Iraq)	Chi ² or F (Jordan)	P-Value (Jordan)
Breusch–Pagan Test	Heteroskedasticity	14.7	0.008	47.59	0.000
Wooldridge Test	Serial Correlation	2.233	0.157	3.490	0.083
Ramsey RESET Test	Model Specification	1.29	0.280	1.51	0.213

The null hypotheses for the three tests are, respectively: homoskedasticity, no serial correlation, and no omitted variables. Given the heteroscedasticity in the third model for Iraq and Jordan, the regression for Iraq was estimated using the GMM method, while for Jordan it was estimated with the FGLS method. Table 10 reports the results.

In Iraq, wage cost stickiness and its positive signal were significant (0.060 and 0.052 at the 95% and 99% levels). Depreciation cost stickiness and its positive signal were also significant (0.019 and 0.010 at the 99% and 95% levels), while service cost variables were insignificant. Thus, wage and depreciation stickiness, along with their positive signals, increase EPS forecast error, whereas service costs do not, leading to rejection of the fifth hypothesis. In Jordan, wage cost stickiness and its positive signal were highly significant (2.058 and 4.018 at the 99% level). Cost of goods sold stickiness and its positive signal were also significant (0.028 and 0.117 at the 95% level), as were depreciation stickiness and its positive signal (0.001 and 0.009). Hence, wage, COGS, and depreciation stickiness, as well as their signals, all increase EPS forecast error, confirming the sixth hypothesis at the 95% level.

Overall, in Iraq, wage stickiness effects dominate those of depreciation, with negative signals stronger than positive ones. In Jordan, wage effects also dominate, but positive wage signals are stronger than negative ones, in contrast to Iraq.

Table 10. Empirical findings related to Hypotheses 5 and 6

Variable Name	Latin Equivalent	Iraq	P-Value	Jordan	P-Value
Wage Cost Stickiness	Wagesignal1	0.060**	0.045	2.058***	0.000
Service Cost Stickiness	Servsignal1	0.100	0.546	0.028**	0.220
Depreciation Cost Stickiness	Depsignal1	0.019***	0.000	0.001***	0.001
Positive Wage Cost Signal	Wagesignal2	0.052***	0.000	4.018***	0.000
Positive Service Cost Signal	Servsignal2	0.016	0.450	0.117**	0.018
Positive Depreciation Cost Signal	Depsignal2	0.010**	0.041	0.009**	0.044
Log of Market Value of Equity	Mv	0.017	0.496	0.340	0.412
Loss	Loss	1.350***	0.000	-0.889*	0.080
Predicted Loss	Down	-1.286***	0.000	1.379**	0.012
Percentage Change in Sales	Vsale	-0.002***	0.000	0.193	0.854
Operating Margin to Sales Ratio	Margin	0.0002	0.274	0.016	0.993
Income Change from Previous Period	Δ income	-0.022	0.810	-0.055	0.877
Constant	Constant	-0.358	0.654	-11.668	0.384
Observations	Obs	150		150	
Adjusted R2	R2 Adj.	34.31%		54.9%	
Wald Test	Wald Test	98.1651	0.000	31.73	0.002
Norm of Residuals	Norm of Resid	0.616		0.385	

Model III in both countries is significant at the 99% confidence level, but the explanatory power of Model III in Iraq, with an adjusted R^2 of 34.31%, is higher. Finally, the normality of the residuals for the regression model in both countries was tested. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the normality statistics for the residuals of Model III in the two countries were 0.616 and 0.385, respectively. Therefore, the residuals of Model III in both countries follow a normal distribution.

7. Conclusion

This study examined how cost stickiness and its signaling effects influence the accuracy of earnings per share (EPS) forecasts in Iraq and Jordan. Evidence shows that higher stickiness—especially in operating expenses, wages, services, and depreciation—reduces forecast precision, with effects stronger in Iraq due to greater market sensitivity to cost rigidity.

The divergence between the two countries reflects differences in institutional and economic structures. Iraq's capital market suffers from limited transparency, weak regulation, and instability, amplifying the impact of sticky costs on earnings forecasts. By contrast, Jordan benefits from stronger disclosure, more developed reporting systems, and relative macroeconomic stability, which partially mitigate these effects. Still, stickiness in categories such as wages, services, and appreciation remains a challenge.

Overall, the findings stress the importance of institutional context in shaping how cost behavior affects forecast accuracy. Weak governance and poor disclosure increase the risk of misinformed decisions, while stronger frameworks can offset some negative effects. The results also highlight the need for disaggregated cost analysis in forecasting models, as overlooking asymmetric cost behavior risks systematic bias, particularly in less efficient markets.

8. Practical implications and recommendations

For analysts and investors, it is crucial to recognize that cost stickiness, particularly in environments with weak oversight and limited transparency, can distort earnings forecasts. Incorporating measures of asymmetric cost behavior into valuation models may reduce estimation error and improve investment decisions.

From a managerial standpoint, addressing cost stickiness should be part of budgeting and cost-control strategies. Rigid cost structures reduce flexibility and erode trust during revenue downturns. Managers are advised to review cost allocation policies and adopt adaptive mechanisms that enable timely adjustments, thereby enhancing transparency and responsiveness.

Regulators also play a key role. Strengthening disclosure on cost structures and enforcing accounting standards can improve reporting quality. More detailed cost breakdowns would allow stakeholders to better assess risks, while frameworks that encourage transparency and penalize excessive rigidity may enhance market efficiency.

For academic researchers, the study highlights the need to explore the multidimensional nature of cost stickiness further. Future work could analyze disaggregated costs across industries and contexts, while also examining psychological and organizational drivers. The use of dynamic panel models combined with qualitative insights may offer a deeper understanding of how cost behavior affects financial outcomes.

Finally, these insights extend beyond Iraq and Jordan to other developing economies with similar institutional characteristics. In such markets, cost stickiness poses a major challenge to earnings forecast accuracy. Policymakers and market participants should therefore focus on improving cost flexibility, enhancing disclosure, and promoting proactive financial management to strengthen confidence, improve forecasts, and support more efficient capital allocation.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known financial or non-financial competing interests in any material discussed in this paper.

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Author contribution

Ali Shaker Dakhel: Conceptualized the study, developed the research framework, and conducted the literature review. He was responsible for drafting the initial manuscript and coordinating revisions.

Naser Izadinia: Contributed to the methodology design and data analysis. He provided critical insights into the application of activity costing in outsourcing decisions and helped refine the manuscript.

Alireza Rahrovi Dastjerdi: Assisted in data collection and interpretation. He contributed to the discussion on sustainable value and its implications for outsourcing decisions, as well as editing the final manuscript for clarity and coherence.

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