

Determinants of Capital Structure: Does Liquidity Matter?

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Abstract: *This paper aims to investigate the effect of liquidity on banks' capital structure using a sample of banks registered in South Africa from 2012 to 2021. The study uses the bank liquidity mismatch index (BLMI), current ratio (CR), and liquidity coverage ratio (LCR) to measure liquidity. Total debt ratio (TDR), long-term debt ratio (LTDR), and short-term debt ratio (STDR) are used to measure capital structure. Despite a large body of literature on the subject, few notable studies have looked into this phenomenon in the banking industry despite banks being the primary creators of liquidity. Using the generalised method of moments (GMM) model, the researchers found positive but significant effects of BLMI and CR on capital structure. The study also reveals a significant positive link between LCR and TDR. Thus, banks' capital structure increased with liquidity. High liquidity gave banks leverage to increase gearing. The findings show a negative but insignificant connection between LCR and LTDR. More studies should interrogate this phenomenon using BLMI as the primary liquidity measure. Furthermore, the cointegration and causality association between liquidity and bank capital structure should be investigated.*

Keywords: Liquidity; Capital structure; Trade-off theory; Pecking order theory

JEL Classification: G3, G32, M400

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1. Introduction

Researchers have long debated the effect of the liquidity of a company's assets on optimal leverage. According to Williamson (1988) and Shleifer and Vishny (1992), asset liquidity improves ideal leverage, whereas Morellec (2001) and Myers and Rajan (1998) contend that it has a negative or curvilinear impact. The justification for the positive influence of asset liquidity with leverage is based on the notion that lower liquid assets trade at greater rates, thereby raising the costs of liquidation, insolvency, as well as borrowing (Sibilkov, 2009). Reducing asset liquidity necessitates lowering leverage to decrease the likelihood of costly bankruptcy. However, models that anticipate a negative impact assert that lower asset liquidity renders it more expensive for managers to take away worth from the owners of bonds. As a result of lower asset liquidity, debt costs are lower, and firms employ greater levels of debt.

Liquidity may be a crucial indicator of a bank's capital since, to some extent, the liquidity ratio and the proportion of capital may serve as alternatives to each other (Yu, 2000). This is because excess funds can serve as independent insurance. Banks with smaller equity ratios could self-insure by keeping larger amounts of liquid assets on their balance sheets. Due to capital acting as a buffer stock towards the value of asset expenses, managers of banks may successfully minimise the probability of potential asset harm and will thus require equity to deal with this through retaining assets with greater liquidity. As a result, we anticipate that banks with greater liquidity will possess fewer capital proportions than their less-liquid rivals.

This paper investigates the effect of liquidity on the capital structure of banks in South Africa. Umar et al. (2016) argue that banks are critical financial counterparties. Since they play an essential part in providing liquidity while also financing long-term illiquid assets to short-term liquid liabilities, in other words, they create liquidity by holding illiquid assets and providing funds to the overall economy (Umar et al., 2016). As a result, examining the effect of liquidity on the capital structure is critical, as the need to retain liquid assets and liabilities appears contradictory to holding long-term debt. Similarly, the Basel III obligation that banks preserve the lowest Tier 1 capital hinders banks from expanding gearing ratios (Marozva & Makina, 2020). So even though banks handle depositors' funds, the minimum capital is needed, bringing up the fiduciary duty issue of fiduciary obligations.

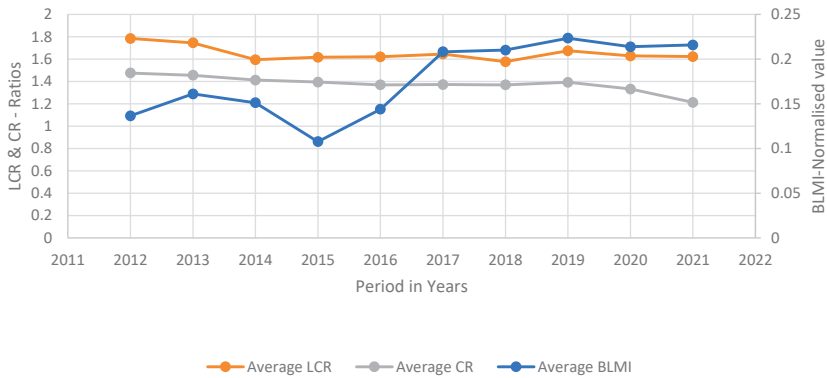
The debate over the ideal capital structure of financial and non-financial companies in academic research has yet to be addressed (Khan et al., 2021). Several empirical capital structure studies, for example, Ahmed-Sheikh and Wang (2013), Saif-Alyousfi et al. (2020), and Kritofk et al. (2022), exclude financial companies, particularly the banking sector. They contended that such financial companies, as lenders and consumers of capital, have a distinct business model influenced by various governing bodies, such as the capital adequacy ratio. Similarly, banks are deemed highly dependent compared to other firms as deposit recipients. As a result, the factors that influence capital structure in the banking industry, particularly banks, should be reconsidered. Despite distinctions regarding business dynamics and regulation limitations, banks serve a crucial part in a country's economic system (Khan et al., 2021). Bank capital requires scrutiny and oversight as it serves as a buffer against contagion risk, unforeseen liquidity spirals, and other unanticipated changes. Several researchers argue that the capital structure of banks illustrates their capability to deal with spikes (see, for instance, McDonough, 1999; BIS, 2022; IMF, 2022).

Although significant progress has been made in portraying the link between asset liquidity and leverage, research on this relationship remains scarce due to the challenge of gathering an accurate measure of asset liquidity (Sibilkov, 2009). However, existing studies that investigate the connection between asset liquidity and leverage tend to focus on small and samples of companies or assets (see, for example, Benmelech et al., 2005; Kim, 1998; & Alderson & Betker, 1995). On the other hand, Naik (2020) finds a positive but significant connection between bank size, liquidity, tangibility, and debt. The current study differs from Naik (2020) in two ways. The present study uses the bank liquidity mismatches index (BLMI) to measure liquidity. For robustness, the study also uses the current ratio (CR) and liquidity coverage ratio (LCR) to measure liquidity. Secondly, the present study also accounts for the pandemic period, where liquidity decreased as measured by CR. Thus, the paper seeks to ascertain the impact of liquidity on the capital structure of South African banks. The Covid-19 dummy was used to account for this period in the analysis.

The following figure discusses the trends in the average banks' liquidity ratios. Focusing on the period under investigation, Figure 1 shows that, on average, South African banks' LCR decreased from 1.78 in 2012 to 1.62 in 2021. Comparatively, the CR also reduced from 1.48 in 2012 to 1.21 in

2021. A decrease in the above liquidity measures, which are LCR and CR, especially from 2019 to 2021, may be caused by the Covid-19 pandemic. On the other hand, the BLMI increased from 0.14 in 2012 to 0.16 in 2013. In 2013, the BLMI decreased from 1.16 to 0.11 in 2015. Furthermore, the BLMI, on average, started to increase from 0.11 in 2015 to 0.22 in 2021. The finance industry’s desire for liquidity becomes essentially intrinsic throughout the pandemic. The Basel III framework also calls for substantial changes in liquidity requirements (Marozva, 2017). The framework imposed stricter liquidity needs, sorted over several years. According to Marozva (2017), despite implementing the net stable funding ratio (NSFR) and the LCR, banks believe keeping more significant liquid asset buffers is prudent.

Figure 1: RSA Banks’ Liquidity Ratios



Although the impact of liquidity on banks’ capital structure has been extensively studied in developed countries (Barry et al., 2018; Chaabouni et al., 2018; Horváth et al., 2014) however, little is known about the issue in emerging markets (Fuad et al., 2021). The primary reason is a lack of data on emerging markets and their underdeveloped capital markets (Udomsirikul et al., 2011). On the other hand, the liquidity issue is commonly framed incorrectly from the standpoint of asset liquidity. Dencic-Mihajlvo et al. (2015) contend that capital adequacy and the capacity of an asset to be easily dissolved are the main liquidity indicators. They unquestionably do not address the issue of whether a company is liquid. Hence, this study investigates the effect of liquidity on bank capital structure in South Africa from 2012 to 2021.

This paper adds to the existing literature in several ways. Earlier research on the impact of liquidity on corporate capital structure relied on standard liquidity proxies to test liquidity (Paramita et al., 2021; Zafar et al., 2019 & Dencic-Mihajlvo et al., 2015). However, the present paper utilises three liquidity proxies to test liquidity: CR, LCR, and BLMI. The liquidity mismatch index was the principal liquidity indicator that had not been tested on capital structure. It is an accurate measure of liquidity since it integrates both assets and liabilities of the statement of financial position while considering the liquidity spirals that account for systemic or contagion risk.

BLMI was chosen as the main proxy because it considers both sides of the financial position statement, assets, and liabilities. Second, little attention has been paid in the theoretical and empirical finance literature to improving a liquidity proxy in the context of asset-liability mismatches. Notably, no previous scholars have investigated the impact of the liquidity mismatch index on capital structure regarding asset-liability mismatches (Bai et al., 2018; Marozva & Makina, 2020). Contrary to other studies, the study reveals a significant but positive link between BLMI and capital structure. Thirdly, South Africa is essential for many reasons. It is regarded as a connection to Africa and a far more influential and flourishing than many other countries in the region. Finally, as this research occurred during the Covid-19 crisis, it provided a unique opportunity to investigate the effect of the pandemic on a financial firm's capital structure. Thus, the current research sought to add to the expanding body of literature investigating the impact of Covid-19 on firm capital structure.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews the existing literature on the effect of liquidity on firms' capital structure. This is followed by the methodology in Section 3, which details our econometric approach. The findings are presented and discussed in Section 4, with a conclusion and recommendations in Section 5.

2. Literature Review

The primary goal of this section is to discuss the contradiction in Modigliani and Miller's (1958) relevant and irrelevant capital structure theories. These theories include trade-off and pecking order and are made up of two propositions: one without tax and the other with tax. Second, there is proposition two without and with tax. Considering these theories, banks'

capital structure is put into perspective. Banks' capital structures relate to how banks finance their balance sheets, and their drivers are still unclear despite receiving a lot of attention in recent empirical research (Mohammad, 2021). Nevertheless, non-financial companies' choices regarding capital structures have been thoroughly examined in corporate finance literature. Capital structure hypotheses such as trade-off and pecking have been empirically investigated, with evidence in favour of both approaches (Obadire et al., 2023; Tamara et al. 2022; Tran et al., 2020).

On the other hand, liquidity is significantly and positively associated with bank equity ratios (Yu, 2000). This contradicts the hypothesis that liquidity is an alternative to funds and that banks employ liquidity for self-insurance. Yet, this general positive link hides an observation that liquidity is negatively associated with the equity ratio for medium-sized banks, implying that these banks might utilise liquidity for self-insurance (Yu, 2000). However, the positive association for small banks suggests some individuals serve cautiously and have higher liquidity ratios when their equity ratios are higher (Yu, 2000). Because liquidity has a positive link, smaller companies with inadequate capital ratios are inclined to possess little liquidity. As a result, it appears that some small banks are attempting to take advantage of the deposit insurance service by maintaining low liquidity as well as ratios of capital.

The impact of liquidity on banks' capital structure has been widely investigated in advanced countries (e.g., Barry et al., 2018; Chaabouni et al., 2018; Horváth et al., 2014; Diamond & Rajan, 2000). However, not much has been done on the abovementioned matter in emerging economies (e.g., Fuad et al., 2021; Guizani & Ajmi, 2021). Barry et al. (2018) examines the impact of market liquidity shortages on bank capital structure and balance sheet adjustment from 2004 to 2014, utilising an unbalanced panel database of the United States (US) banking sector. Their research demonstrates that severe liquidity shortfalls cause small US banks, but not large ones, to alter their capital ratio positively. They assert that small banks typically limit their total capital ratio by justifying, restricting dividend payments, lessening the share of assets to significant risk weights, and tend to range lesser lending. Moreover, the findings of their study reveal that a positive impact on total capital ratios is robust for banks which depend so much on market liquidity and small banks operating below their target capital ratio.

Chaabouni et al. (2018) investigate the association between bank capital and liquidity creation and argue that earlier studies on the impact of bank

capital and liquidity creation were limited to using traditional ordinary least squares (OLS). The OLS explains the minimal influence of bank capital on liquidity creation but does not present a clear overview of the linkage, as mentioned earlier (Chaabouni et al., 2018). The authors utilise quantile regression (QR), semi-parametric QR, and panel regression to fill the abovementioned gap. The findings of their study revealed a negative link between bank capital and liquidity creation, which would be coherent with the risk absorption assumption that tries to envisage a negative relation.

Horváth et al. (2014) look at the link between bank capital and liquidity creation from 2000 to 2010, utilising a large sample of Czech banks. They examined the link between those mentioned earlier by incorporating the Granger causality test into a dynamic generalised method of moments (GMM) assessment approach. They discovered a negative association between bank capital as well as the creation of liquidity. They also notice that Granger's liquidity creation results in a drop in capital. Such developments offer credence to the notion that Basel III can lower liquidity creation, while increasing liquidity creation can minimise bank capital structure. As a result, the authors demonstrate that this confounding situation creates a trade-off between the reimbursements of improved liquidity creation and the advantages of greater financial stability. An earlier study by Diamond and Rajan (2000) found that increasing bank capital reduces the likelihood of financial distress while decreasing liquidity creation. The amount of capital affects the amount that banks can charge lenders. Furthermore, the best possible bank capital structure balances the impacts of liquidity.

Regarding developing countries on the issue mentioned above, using a sample of 96 banks from a population of 114 banks, Fuad et al. (2021) study the impact of liquidity creation on bank capital in Indonesia from 2008 to 2018. The authors employ panel regression analysis methods using the Hayes approach. Their analysis shows the negative impact of liquidity creation on bank capital on the competition. Fuad et al. (2021) contend that their findings align with the notion that banks may enhance their capital in reaction to banking sector development, which might reduce the amount of bank liquidity produced.

However, Guizani and Ajmi (2021) examine how Islamic banks and conventional banks in Malaysia select their financial leverage and what variables affect their financing decisions. Their findings indicate a positive

but not statistically significant effect on liquidity and Islamic banks' capital structure. However, their study reveals a negative link between liquidity and conventional banks' capital structure. This outcome could be due to the lower information asymmetry experienced by much more liquid conventional banks, which results in a more remarkable ability to raise equity (Belkhir et al., 2016). Moreover, Siaf-Alyousfi et al. (2020) contend that the negative relationship between liquidity and conventional bank capital structure might be due to their incapacity to meet short-term debts, attempting to force them to look for alternative funding sources.

Several studies looked at the determinants of capital structure for non-financial institutions in South Africa (e.g., Elomo, 2014; Gwatidzo et al., 2016; Tazvivinga et al., 2021). In South Africa, studies that have investigated the bank capital structure include Sibindi and Makina (2018) and Sibindi (2018). Sibindi and Makina's (2018) findings reveal that the standard firm-level determinants of banks' capital structure are like those observed for non-financial firms. Furthermore, they observed that the 2007–2009 global financial crisis had a negative impact on capital structures of banks, with the implication that banks reduced their gearing during the crises. On the other hand, Sibindi (2018) reveals that South African banks have a target capital structure that they strive for, as well as adjust to this target at a speed of adjustment of 44% or a half-life of 2.4 years, relatively quick when compared to non-financial companies. However, these studies have not added liquidity to their econometric models, hence this article puts liquidity into perspective. Specifically, the effects of BLMI on capital structure is tested empirically. The research hypothesis in this paper is explained as follows:

H_0 *Bank liquidity does not affect its capital structure*

H_a *Bank liquidity affects its capital structure*

The following section provides a discussion of the data and methodology employed to test the identified hypothesis.

3. Data and Methodology

3.1 Sample description and data sources

The population in the present study consists of South Africa's 16 licensed

domestic banks. Nevertheless, sample consists of 11 registered banks in South Africa from 2012 to 2021, with five small banks omitted due to challenges in obtaining financial data for the duration of the study. These firms are deemed adequately representative of the licensed bank population in South Africa from 2012 to 2021. These are registered South African banks under the Bank Act 94 of 1990 as of December 31, 2020, and listed on the South African Reserve Bank (SARB) website. The monthly and annual financial and economic data was also extracted from SARB. The sample size is 11 banks over ten years, resulting in 110 observations. Although licensed banks in South Africa were chosen for this paper, it is affirmed that there were discrepancies in the sampled licensed banks' practices, as stated previously.

Following previous studies, this paper uses three proxies of capital structure—total debt ratio (TDR), long-term debt ratio (LTDR), and short-term debt ratio (STDR)—as dependent variables (Siaf-Alyousfi et al., 2020). According to Rajan and Zingales (1995), the ratios of short-term, long-term, and total debt over total assets are more appropriate measures of financial leverage than the ratio of liabilities to total assets, as they provide a more concise perception as to whether the corporation is likely to decline soon and display a more rational view of preceding sources of funding. In contrast, liquidity was used as an independent variable. Liquidity is essential to the activities of the banking sector (Nguyen & Vo, 2021). High liquidity improves the bank's capacity to raise capital, providing more options for bank loans and other securities. Nguyen and Vo (2021) argue, however, that a bank subjected to liquidity risks could diminish its sources of funds and harm its investments. Table 1 below shows details of the dependent and independent variables and data sources.

Table 1: Summary of Variables and Proxies

| Variables | Proxies and definitions | Proxied by | Expected sign of coefficient |
|---|---|---|------------------------------|
| Capital structure proxies (dependent variable) | | | |
| Total debt ratio at book value (TDRB) | The ratio of total debt book value to total assets book value | Siaf-Alyousfi et al. (2020) | |
| Long-term debt ratio (LTDR) | The ratio of long-term liabilities over total assets | Palacin-Sancez et al. (2013) Handoo & Sharma (2014) | |

| Variables | Proxies and definitions | Proxied by | Expected sign of coefficient |
|--|---|--|------------------------------|
| Short-term debt ratio (STDR) | The ratio of short-term debts divided by total assets | Vo (2017) Siaf-Alyousfi et al. (2020) | |
| Independent variables | | | |
| Bank liquidity mismatches index (BLMI) | The mismatch between the market liquidity of assets as well as the funding liquidity of liabilities | Marozva & Makina (2020) | Negative |
| Current ratio (CR) | Current assets divided by current liabilities | Rao et al. (2017) Bursaitiene & Draugele (2018) | Negative or positive |
| Liquidity coverage ratio (LCR) | $LCR = \frac{\text{High quality liquid assets}}{\text{Cash outflows}-\text{Cash inflows}}$ | Roberts et al. (2018) | Negative or positive |
| Control variables | | | |
| Gross domestic product (GDP) | The growth rate of real domestic product | Joeveer (2013) Dincergok et al. (2017) | Positive or negative |
| Interest rates | Effective interest rate | Karpavicius & Yu (2017) | Negative |
| Inflation rates | Annual consumer price index (CPI) | Harris and Roark (2019) Khan et al. (2020) Saif-Alyousfi et al. (2020) | Positive or negative |
| Size | The natural logarithm of total assets | Joeveer (2013) Bandyopadhyay & Barua (2016) | Positive or negative |

3.2 *Model specification*

This paper utilises generalised GMM. The generic GMM dynamic approach has the following form:

$$y_{it} = \alpha y_{i,t-1} + \beta x_{it} + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

where:

y_{it} represents the book value of the leverage measures for banks i in time t ; x_{it} is the vector of the independent variable for banks i for time t , representing the banks' firms-specific variable; α_0 denotes a constant term; β is the elasticity of the explanatory variables, i. e., slope of variables; μ_i denotes

fixed effects in banks and assets managers firms; ε_{it} is a random error term; and the subscript i denotes the cross-section t represents the time-series dimension.

The two-step GMM system forecasting model of Arellano and Bover (1995) and Blundell and Bond (1998) was used in this paper, of scale as well as lagged parameters serving as tools. Arellano and Bond's (1991) GMM estimation method is presumed to be improved by the one-step GMM system prediction model. The association between liquidity and capital structure was then examined using panel data regression analysis. Because our paper focuses on South Africa, we only used data from that country. This study aims to investigate the essential factors influencing leverage in the South African banking sector by regressing leverage (TDR, STDR, and LTDR) against the elements in the following equations. In particular, for empirical analysis, the association between capital structure and independent variable of bank-specific factors, macroeconomic factors, was commonly measured in (2) to (4).

$$\Delta TDR_{it} = (\alpha - 1)\Delta TDR_{it-1} + \beta_1 \Delta LIQ_{it} + \beta_j \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta X_{ij} + \Delta \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta LTDR_{it} = (\alpha - 1)\Delta LTDR_{it-1} + \beta_1 \Delta LIQ_{it} + \beta_j \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta X_{ij} + \Delta \varepsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta STDR_{it} = (\alpha - 1)\Delta STDR_{it-1} + \beta_1 \Delta LIQ_{it} + \beta_j \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta X_{ij} + \Delta \varepsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

where

$TDR_{B_{it}}$ indicates total debt ratio at book value for banks i in time t , measured by the ratio of the book value of total debt/book value of total assets;

$STDR_{it}$ represents the total debt ratio for banks i in time t , measured by short-term/book total assets;

$LTDR_{it}$ represents the long-term debt ratio for banks i in time t , measured by long-term/total assets;

LIQ_{it} is bank liquidity as measured by $BLMI_{it}$, CR_{it} , and LCR_{it} ;

$BLMI_{it}$ is the bank liquidity mismatch index for bank i banks t ;

CR_{it} represents the current ratio measured by the current assets over current liabilities;

LCR_{it} is the liquidity coverage ratio for bank i banks t ;

X_{ij} is a panel of macroeconomic control variables measurements at the end,

including size, growth rate (GDP), interest and inflation rates; *GDP* economic growth is measured by gross domestic product; *IR* represents interest rate as measured by the effective interest rate; *INF* indicates the inflation rate as measured by the consumer price index; and *size* is measured by the natural logarithm of total assets.

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

This section provides descriptive statistics for independent and dependent variables utilised during estimations. Table 2 shows an overview of statistics for the panel of chosen banks from 2012 to 2021. The foremost descriptive statistics for the metrics used in this paper are presented in Table 2. The mean for the banks' TDR capital structure measure was 2.19, implying the average proportion of the banks' assets funded by reserves and non-deposit debts, with a standard deviation of 13.81. The minimum TDR was 0.56, and the maximum TDR was 145.7, for a total range of 145.14. In contrast, the average for LTDR was 0.48, with a standard deviation of 3.18. The lowest LTDR was 0, and the highest was 33.57. The STDR had a mean of 0.75 and a standard deviation of 2.4. The lowest STDR was 0.02, and the highest STDR was 25.7. This implies that some banks might very well keep as little as 2% of their liabilities as short-term debt. However, banks may keep up to 26% of their liabilities as short-term debt.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

| Variables | Mean | Median | Maximum | Minimum | Std. Dev. | Skewness | Kurtosis | Jarque-Bera |
|------------|-------------|------------|---------------|-----------|-------------|----------|----------|-------------|
| TDR | 2.190 | 0.920 | 145.700 | 0.560 | 13.810 | 10.340 | 108.000 | 52,493.330 |
| LTDR | 0.480 | 0.210 | 33.570 | 0.000 | 3.180 | 10.330 | 107.830 | 52,319.880 |
| STDR | 0.750 | 0.530 | 25.700 | 0.020 | 2.400 | 10.300 | 107.350 | 51,851.470 |
| CR | 1.380 | 1.410 | 2.560 | 0.000 | 0.270 | -0.020 | 12.250 | 391.810 |
| LCR | 1.670 | 1.610 | 3.910 | 1.040 | 0.400 | 2.370 | 12.660 | 530.740 |
| BLMI | -0.180 | 0.170 | 0.850 | -39.610 | 3.800 | -10.310 | 107.520 | 52,017.690 |
| Size (000) | 424,000.000 | 66,849.693 | 1,660,000.000 | 2,997.923 | 508,000.000 | 0.770 | 2.120 | 14.410 |
| INF | 4.600 | 4.700 | 5.600 | 3.100 | 0.850 | -0.420 | 1.920 | 8.680 |
| IR | 3.890 | 3.710 | 5.890 | 2.310 | 1.090 | 0.390 | 2.270 | 5.260 |
| GDPG | 0.950 | 1.370 | 4.900 | -6.430 | 2.770 | -1.600 | 5.580 | 77.240 |

The mean CR was 1.38, and the standard was 0.27. A lower standard deviation than the mean result indicates that the banks' liquidity variable data has changed less. The average percentage suggests that the banks have a current ratio of 132%. Nonetheless, the minimal CR of 0.02 signifies those South African banks had at least a CR of 1% over the study period. The maximum CR was 2.56, implying that banks can pay up to 2.56% of their short-term debt. The higher the banks' total CR, the lower its short-term obligations on its current assets. The average LCR was 1.67. Although the financing gap was assumed to be positive, banks maintained a substantial number of high-quality liquidity assets based on the average LCR ratio. However, other banks were risk-averse, holding more than 333% high-quality liquid assets (HQLA) after foreseeing a negative asymmetry in their funding source.

The mean value of the BLMI was -0.18, implying that the banks are in bad shape. However, the standard deviation was 3.8. The BLMI assesses the funding and asset liquidity of a bank, the higher the ratio, the stronger the bank, and *vice versa*. The lowest BLMI was -39.61, and the highest BLMI was 0.85. The average inflation rate (INF) was 4.600, with a standard deviation of 0.850. Inflation shows the country's ability to keep prices competitive. A larger scale implies consumer price volatility, particularly damaging to the poor and small businesses because they lack a hedging strategy against economic shocks. The IR had a mean value of 3.89 and a standard deviation of 1.09. The minimum IR was 2.31, while the maximum was 5.89. The average rate of GDP growth (GDPG) was 0.95. The standard deviation was 2.77 in comparison. Yet, the minimum GDPG was -6.43 and the maximum GDPG was 4.9.

4.2 Correlation matrix

The correlation analysis depicts the correlations between dependent and independent variables employed in the banking industry, as shown in Table 3. The TDR is positively correlated with LTDR. In contrast, the INF was found to be negatively but significantly related to the TDR. However, the INF is found to be negatively correlated with LTDR, and the correlation was significant. Regarding liquidity, the findings reveal a positive but statistically insignificant link between BLMI and STDTR. Since the correlation coefficients are less than 0.7, the potential multicollinearity issue was ruled out (Siddik et al., 2017). Furthermore, none of the independent variables employed in

the same equation are highly correlated. Other variables were not addressed because their results were insignificant. The test for autocorrelation was done using AR(1) and AR(2). Both statistics were insignificant implying the absence of autocorrelation. All models exhibited the problem of non-constant variance (heteroscedasticity) and to correct for this problem, the models were run with Driscoll-Kraay robust standard errors. The Sargan test and Hansen test statistics were both insignificant for all the models, implying that the models were robust and were not weakened by many instruments. Moreover, the number of instruments were more than the number of groups supporting the fact that models were not weakened by many instruments.

Table 3: Correlation Matrix

| Probability | TDR | LTDR | STDR | CR | LCR | BLMI | SIZE | INF | IR | GDGP |
|-------------|----------|---------|----------|----------|--------|--------|---------|---------|----------|-------|
| TDR | 1.000 | | | | | | | | | |
| LTDR | 0.999*** | 1.000 | | | | | | | | |
| STDR | -0.020 | -0.0218 | 1.000 | | | | | | | |
| CR | 0.004 | 0.0604 | -0.0350 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| LCR | -0.0176 | 0.004 | -0.076 | 0.783*** | 1.000 | | | | | |
| BLMI | 0.011 | 0.015 | 0.998*** | 0.028 | 0.076 | 1.000 | | | | |
| SIZE | -0.007 | -0.064 | -0.070 | -0.0241 | 0.073 | 0.100 | 1.000 | | | |
| INF | -0.170* | -0.169* | 0.117 | 0.169* | 0.003 | 0.121 | -0.157* | 1.000 | | |
| IR | -0.012 | -0.011 | -0.026 | -0.007 | -0.034 | 0.032 | 0.028 | -0.134 | 1.000 | |
| GDGP | 0.137 | 0.137 | 0.022 | -0.074 | 0.023 | -0.018 | 0.064 | 0.196** | 0.297*** | 1.000 |

4.3 Empirical results

The results in Table 4 reveal a negative and significant association between TDR and STDR and their lagged values. Yet, there is a negative but insignificant link between the LTDR and its lag value. The negative connection between capital structure and the lag value indicates that the banks' capital structure is negatively tenacious. According to descriptive statistics, banks are massively geared on average; thus, they would benefit from reducing their debt ratios. The findings are in line with those of an earlier study by Gropp and Heider (2010), who reveal a negative but statistically significant impact on a bank's capital structure and its lagged values. The findings do not agree with those of Abbas and Masood (2020). They find a positive but statistically significant link between bank capital structure and lagged values in the US.

Table 4: Determinants of Capital Structure: Effects of BLMI

| Variables | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM |
|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | TDR | LTDR | STDR |
| L.TDR | -0.622* (0.254) | | |
| L.LTDR | | -0.603 (0.276) | |
| L.STDR | | | -1.090* (0.429) |
| EV | -4.500 (2.850) | -5.836 (3.638) | -4.635 (2.949) |
| GO | -0.263 (0.124) | -0.345 (0.168) | -0.180 (0.114) |
| TGB | 80.160** (23.050) | 99.370** (27.800) | 91.220** (26.070) |
| BLMI | 5.749** (1.751) | 7.227** (2.047) | 6.545** (1.639) |
| LSIZE | -107.000** (31.390) | -133.400** (36.560) | -123.600** (32.320) |
| GDPG | -0.323* (0.121) | -0.426* (0.162) | -0.340* (0.127) |
| IR | 1.867 (0.865) | 2.504 (1.192) | 1.863* (0.755) |
| INF | 2.497 (1.317) | 3.250 (1.497) | 2.048*** (0.365) |
| COVID_19 | 2.379 (2.767) | 3.445 (3.505) | 1.679 (2.254) |
| <i>N</i> | 88 | 88 | 88 |
| <i>Groups</i> | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| <i>Instrument</i> | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| AR(1) | -1.190 | -0.190 | -1.110 |
| Pr (z) | 0.058 | 0.097 | 0.068 |
| AR(2) | -0.660 | -0.880 | -0.870 |
| Pr (z) | 0.533 | 0.385 | 0.382 |
| Sargan Test | 13.040 | 16.04 | 18.04 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.417 | 0.313 | 0.453 |
| Hansen test | 17.130 | 14.140 | 17.140 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.314 | 0.415 | 0.514 |
| Heteroscedasticity | 0.160 | 0.080 | 0.070 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.685 | 0.775 | 0.789 |

Notes: Driscoll and Kraay robust standard errors in parentheses. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

In this study, we find a positive and significant relationship between BLMI and capital structure. The positive relationship might mean that banks borrow both long-term and short-term to finance highly liquid assets. This is not surprising given that banks' primary objective is to create liquidity. In the context of asset-liability mismatches, the theoretical and empirical finance literature has paid little attention to developing a liquidity proxy. This is in contradiction with the narrative that liquidity is seen as an insurance buffer for banks' self-protection. Furthermore, these findings are contrary to the risk absorption hypothesis that envisages a negative relation. Consequently, these results confirm a complementary relationship between liquidity creation and the pros of greater financial stability. No earlier work has examined the impact of liquidity on capital structure in the context of asset-liability mismatches (Bai et al., 2018; Marozva & Makina, 2020). Banks in emerging markets are encouraged to improve their liquidity creation capabilities in a bid to gain the much-desired financial flexibility.

There was a significant and negative connection between size and capital structure. The findings back up the pecking order assumption, which contends that capital structure has a negative relation. The link between GDPG and capital structure was negative but significant. This implies that as the economy grows, banks are encouraged to strengthen their cash reserves instead of borrowing (Guizani, 2020). The negative association is in line with the results of Guizani (2020), who reveals an adverse connection between GDP growth and the capital structure of banking institutions.

The link between IR and STDR is positive and significant (Table 5). The capital structure becomes more complex as interest rates rise. A positive effect on IR and STDR implies that firms borrow more, expecting in the short term than in the long term, expecting interest rates to drop in the long term (Callaghan, 2019). The findings contrast with those of Muthee et al. (2016), who find a negative link between interest expense and firm gearing ratio. The positive link between IR and STDR could imply that firms borrow in the short term rather than the long term, as inflation is a sticky downturn. As a result, short-term lending is financially viable. The findings are in line with those of Phooi M'ng et al. (2017), who find a positive but not significant link between the inflation rate and capital structure.

Table 5: Determinants of Capital Structure: Effects of CR

| Variables | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| | TDR | LTDR | STDR |
| L.TDR | 1.690* (0.315) | | |
| L.LTDR | | 1.660* (0.349) | |
| L.STDR | | | 1.701** (0.324) |
| EV | 16.540* (6.148) | 5.346 (3.823) | 16.340* (6.107) |
| GO | 0.190* (0.076) | 0.071 (0.075) | 0.196* (0.085) |
| TGB | 11.300 (10.700) | 18.980 (16.000) | 12.490 (10.860) |
| CR | 61.630*** (2.150) | 57.670*** (5.120) | 60.890*** (1.950) |
| LSIZE | -1.648 (7.731) | 1.121 (9.239) | -2.358 (7.573) |
| GDPG | 1.783*** (0.300) | 1.574* (0.294) | 1.803*** (0.302) |
| IR | -0.940 (0.733) | 0.740 (0.706) | -1.120 (0.788) |
| INF | 2.441* (0.911) | 4.304* (1.698) | 2.158* (0.843) |
| COVID_19 | 7.620*** (1.681) | 10.68*** (3.073) | 6.831*** (1.562) |
| <i>N</i> | 88 | 88 | 88 |
| <i>Groups</i> | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| <i>Instrument</i> | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| AR(1) | -1.290 | -1.000 | -1.280 |
| Pr (z) | 0.196 | 0.145 | 0.202 |
| AR(2) | -0.870 | 0.66 | -0.920 |
| Pr (z) | 0.383 | 0.509 | 0.359 |
| Sargan Test | 0.870 | 0.770 | 0.450 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.998 | 0.996 | 0.989 |
| Hansen test | 0.070 | 3.210 | 0.040 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.999 | 0.955 | 0.998 |
| Heteroscedasticity | 0.010 | 0.450 | 0.070 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.914 | 0.503 | 0.789 |

Notes: Driscoll and Kraay robust standard errors in parentheses. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

TDR, LTDR, and STDR have a positive and significant link with their lagged capital structure values. Furthermore, a negative but insignificant connection exists between the IR and TDR. Yet, a positive but non-significant association exists between IR and LTDR and STDR. Furthermore, TDR and STDR show a negative but insignificant link between size and capital structure. The results contradict with results of Sibindi and Makina (2018) and Sibindi (2018) who find a positive connection between size and bank capital structure in South Africa. The results of the study also show a positive and significant connection between CR and capital structure. According to Rao et al. (2017), corporations with higher liquid assets may need to boost their debt ratio to improve corporate liquidity. The findings are consistent with Rao et al. (2017), who discovered a positive association between debt and CR.

Regarding the macroeconomic variable GDPG, there was a positive and significant link between GDPG and capital structure. The findings are in line with the trade-off theory, which states that rapid economic growth is affiliated with a more influential bank's propensity to use debt to fund capital spending. Due to the greater tax benefits of debt financing (Guizani, 2020), the findings support the pecking order hypothesis, which contends that economic growth and capital structure have a positive relationship. A positive and significant connection existed between INF and capital structure. These findings contradict Almanaseer's (2019) claim that during periods of high inflation, banks tighten their policies to avoid the impact of inflation on interest rates, thereby lessening lending.

Lastly, the study results show a negative and significant relationship between Covid-19 and capital structure (Table 6). This implies that the pandemic had an adverse effect on capital structure. Due to the uncertainty, banks may have resorted to safer capital. The findings are in line with Mohammad (2021), who discovered a negative relationship between Covid-19 and capital structure.

There is a negative and significant link between TDR, LTDR, and STDR and their legged values. The findings contradict Aremu et al. (2013), who reveals a positive but insignificant link between all bank capital structure measures. Yet, earnings volatility (EV) and capital structure have a negative and significant association. This implies that when EV is high, banks are generally unable to issue debt or stock since banks and investors are hesitant to invest in a bank with an increased risk of failure or insolvency (Moradi & Paulet, 2019).

Table 6: Determinants of Capital Structure: Effects of LCR

| Variables | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM | 2-step system GMM |
|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | TDR | LTDR | STDR |
| L.TDR | -0.780*** (0.188) | | |
| L.LTDR | | -0.440* (0.200) | |
| L.STDR | | | -1.031* (0.492) |
| EV | -16.950*** (4.226) | -23.000** (7.272) | -17.340** (6.520) |
| GO | -0.214 (0.108) | -0.161 (0.128) | -0.929* (0.437) |
| TGB | 2.324 (5.183) | 36.19** (13.800) | -191.700* (94.550) |
| LCR | 13.890* (5.651) | -17.670 (14.240) | 46.770 (34.070) |
| LSIZE | 1.9420 (3.861) | -4.099 (4.342) | 76.790* (36.430) |
| GDPG | -0.381*** (0.038) | -0.0734* (0.035) | -4.543* (2.224) |
| IR | 4.134* (1.513) | -0.207 (1.783) | 19.820* (9.539) |
| INF | 3.523* (1.420) | -1.631 (2.723) | 24.89* (12.70) |
| COVID_19 | 10.740* (4.052) | -9.332 (8.180) | 105.900* (52.270) |
| _cons | 17.870 (28.810) | | |
| <i>N</i> | 99 | 88 | 88 |
| <i>Groups</i> | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| <i>Instrument</i> | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| AR(1) | -1.420 | -0.32 | -1.220 |
| Pr (z) | 0.151 | 0.255 | 0.221 |
| AR(2) | -1.560 | -1.440 | -0.790 |
| Pr (z) | 0.119 | 0.149 | 0.427 |
| Sargan Test | 0.880 | 30.570 | 14.630 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.899 | 0.002 | 0.146 |
| Hansen test | 0.00 | 0.850 | 4.010 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.999 | 0.998 | 0.947 |
| Heteroscedasticity | 0.020 | 0.870 | 0.050 |
| Pr (chi ²) | 0.883 | 0.350 | 0.829 |

Notes: Driscoll and Kraay robust standard errors in parentheses. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Moreover, the results indicate a negative and significant link between growth opportunity (GO) and capital structure. In addition, there is a positive and significant link between LCR and capital structure. The study found a positive and significant link between capital structure. The results are in line with the results of Sibindi and Makina (2018) and Sibindi (2018), who find a positive connection between South African bank size and capital structure. However, the findings contradict those of Abeysekera (2020), who reveal a negative association between bank size and capital structure.

The research reveals a negative and significant connection between GDPG, and capital structure measured by TDR, LTDR, and STDR. According to Guizani (2020), adverse economic indicators can significantly alter an industries and banks' financial position, limiting sources of financing. The findings are consistent with Abeysekera (2020), who finds a negative link between economic growth and capital structure. There is a positive and significant effect on IR with TDR and STDR. This implies that a higher interest rate increases TDR and STDR by 0.04134 and 0.1982. The finding is inconsistent with Karpavicius and Yu (2017), who find a negative influence on IR with capital structure. However, the study reveals a negative but insignificant link between IR and LTDR. In terms of INF, the study finds a positive significant connection between INF and the capital structure measured by TDR and STDR. A positive inflation ratio raises the TDR and STDR by 0.04 and 0.25 percent, respectively. The findings contradict those of Almanaseer (2019), who discover a negative link between INF and bank capital structure. Finally, the study found a positive and significant link between Covid-19 and capital structure measured by TDR and STDR. The findings contradict the findings of Mohammad (2021) who finds a negative association between Covid-19 and capital structure. However, a negative but not significant link exists between Covid-19 and capital structure as measured by LTDR.

5. Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate the effects of liquidity on banks' capital structure from 2012 to 2021. Using the generalised method of moments model, the researchers found a positive but significant effect on the liquidity mismatches index, current ratios, and capital structure. The study also reveals a positive and significant link between liquidity coverage

ratio and capital structure. Thus, the banks' capital structure increased with liquidity. High liquidity meant banks had sufficient cashflows to pay their obligations as they were due, giving them the leverage to increase gearing. Yet, the study reveals a negative but insignificant connection between liquidity coverage ratio and capital structure. This implies that the nexus between liquidity and capital structure depends on the liquidity measure used. Future studies should interrogate this phenomenon using the bank liquidity mismatch index as the primary liquidity measure, since this is a multidimensional measure of liquidity which has been empirically proven to capture bank liquidity better. Furthermore, the cointegration and causality association between liquidity and bank capital structure should be investigated, as the deterministic relationship may be misleading.

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