Econometrics Analysis of Capital Adequacy Ratios and the Impact on Profitability of Commercial Banks in Nigeria

¹Henry Waleru Akani, ²Lucky Anyike Lucky

^{1,2}Department of Banking and Finance, Rivers State University of Science and Technology Nkpolu- Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.

Abstract: This paper examines the econometrics analysis of capital adequacy ratios and the impact on the profitability of Commercial Banks in Nigeria from 1980 – 2013. The objective is to investigate whether there is a dynamic long run relationship between capital adequacy ratios and the profitability of commercial banks. Time series data were sourced from Stock Exchange factbook and financial statement of quoted commercial banks and the Johansen co-integration techniques in vector error correction model setting (VECM) as well as the granger causality test were employed. The study has Return on Asset (ROA), Return on Investment (ROI) and Return on Equity (ROE) as the dependent variables and the independent variables are Adjusted Capital to Risk Asset Ratio (ACRR), Capital to Deposit Ratio (CTD), Capital to Net Loans and Advances Ratio (CNLAR), Capital to Risk Asset Ratio (CRA) and Capital to Total Asset Ratio (CTAR). The empirical result demonstrated vividly in the models that there is a positive long run dynamic and significant relationship between return on asset and capital to risk asset ratio and capital to deposit ratio while others are negatively correlated. The findings also revealed that there is bi-directional causality running from ROA to ACRR and ROA to CNLAR. We therefore recommend that financial policies should be strengthened to deepen the capital base of Nigerian Commercial banks to enhance bank profitability and sustain economic growth.

Key Words: Capital adequacy ratios, commercial banks, profitability, co-integration, Granger causality test.

I. Introduction

Over the last two decades, both nationally and internationally Banks regulatory authorities and supervisory agencies have put in place policies and programmes aimed at strengthening and tightened capital adequacy requirements for financial institutions with the aim of increasing the stability of National banking system. Abreu & Mendes (2000) also emphasized the need for regulatory cum supervisory agencies to tightened the capital requirement of banks for needed efficiency and effectiveness. The importance attached by the regulators is as a result of the BASEL capital accord which was introduced in 1998 that set common minimum capital for banking in regulatory countries. Banking regulation in its sense is the framework of laws and rules under which banks operate .Bank regulations are a form of government regulation which subject banks to certain requirements, restrictions and guidelines. Hence, supervision refers to the banking agencies monitoring of financial conditions at banks under their jurisdiction and the enforcement of the bank regulation and polices for the purpose of protection of depositors, monetary and financial stability, efficient and competitive financial system and consumers protection.(Akani,2012).The latest capital adequacy framework is commonly known as BASEL 111. The update framework is intended to be more risk- sensitive than BASEL 1 & 11 but it is also lot more complex.

In Nigeria, Central Bank of Nigeria Act of 1959 as amended gives CBN power as regulatory institution to other financial system to achieve set monetary and macroeconomic goals. Section 9 (1) BOFIA states that the bank shall from time to time, determine the minimum paid-up share capital requirement of each category of banks licensed under this Act. The capital requires banks to handle their capital in relation to risk assets. The theory and cornerstone of bank capital adequacy has it focus on the measures and regulations from the apex bank towards ensuring that banks have enough capital to take care of their numerous financial obligations. The absorptive capacity of every bank is a critical function of its capital base. Bank capital is determine by factors such as bank size, the level of risk involved in its operations, the market forces, the lending policy, its management capacity, its portfolio, Central Bank of Nigeria requirement on Reserves and its growth rate (Barrios and Blanco, 2000, Bernauer and Koubi, 2002).

Historically, the issue of bank capital in Nigeria dates back to the banking ordinance of 1952 when banks were for the first time mandated to have a capital base of $\pounds 12,500$ (Onoh, 2002). The regulatory authorities have adopted capital adequacy policy as a regulatory tool and constitute the most proactive measures of repositioning the banking industry to achieve its economic and monetary policy objectives.

Theoretically, banks profitability is a critical function of its internal and external operating environment. Internally bank profit is as a result of capital adequacy, corporate governance, credit structure and management efficiency and effectiveness while at the macro level, bank profits is determine by macroeconomic

and monetary policy variables. However, there has been great debate among bankers, regulators and policy makers on the concept and what constitute bank capital adequacy and its effect with operating efficiency of the banking system. Furthermore, a bank capital is considered adequate if it is enough to cover the banks operational expenses satisfy customer's withdrawal needs and protect depositors against total or partial loss sustained by the banks. In the CAMELS analysis of banking system soundness, capital adequacy is one determinant among other variables. One critics against the BASEL capital adequacy is the neglect of other internal and external factors that can affect the operational efficiency of the banking industry rather than capital adequacy such as management quality and sensitivity to market risk. A bank can be capitally adequate if poorly managed will still collapse. This was the case of Nigerian banking industry less than five years after recapitalization and consolidation of banks from ¥2billion to ¥25billion; some banks were found functioning marginally by Central Bank of Nigeria examination team in 2009 (Ken-Ndubusis & Akani 2015). The outcome of the examination team led doubt on the effect of capital adequacy on the profitability of Nigerian commercial banks which result to the bailed-out of some banks in 2007 to a tune of N620 billion according to the Central Bank of Nigeria Governor Sanusi Lamido Sanusi with this lofty objectives of ensuring sound and adequate capital base for Nigeria banks so as to reposition it for overall efficiency and enhancement of the National Economy, Therefore, it is against this background among others that this study seeks to econometrically analyse the effects of capital adequacy ratios, banking soundness and its impact on bank profitability of quoted commercial banks using evidence from Nigeria.

II. Literature Review

Theories of Banks Capital Adequacy: Buffer Theory of Capital Adequacy

The objective of ensuring that bank capital is adequate is to withstand and absorb monetary and macroeconomic shocks which bank operation is very sensitive. However, banks may prefer to hold a buffer of excess capital to reduce the profitability of falling under the legal capital requirements, especially if their capital adequacy ratio is very volatile (Ikpefan, 2013). Capital adequacy has in recent time gone beyond that of banking supervision instrument and become a monetary policy tool of achieving financial stability. Section 7 (2) of BOFIA states that any banks that fail to comply with the capital adequacy within such period as may be determined by the CBN shall be a ground for revocation of license. Section 13 states that bank shall maintain at all times capital funds unimpaired by losses in such ratio to all or any assets or to all or nay liabilities or both such assets and liabilities of the bank and all its offices in and outside Nigeria as may be specified by CBN. The revocation of some banks license in 2005 after the consolidation and recapitalization reforms were reference to these sections. The buffer theory of Calem and Rob (1996) predicts that a bank approaching the regulatory minimum capital ratio may have an incentive to boost capital and reduce risk in order to avoid the regulatory costs triggered by a breach of the capital requirement. The collapse of some Nigerian Banks has been traced to high risk taking couple with poor capitalization.

Portfolio Regulatory Theory

The operational philosophy of every bank is profit making to maximize shareholders wealth. The theory stated that the regulation of bank is necessary to maintain safety and soundness of the banking system, to the extent which put them in a position to meet its liabilities without difficulties. This made the regulatory authorities to enforce greater solvency and liquidity on individual banks than making it optional (Ikpefan, 2013).

Peltzman (1970) argued that if the asset portfolio is seemed too risky or capital inadequate; the relevant supervisory agency will attempt to enforce a change in negative externalities resulting from bank default that are not reflected in market requirements. It is assumed that unregulated bank will lake excessive portfolio and leverage risks in order to maximize its shareholders value at the expense of deposit insurance, (Benson et al 1986, Furlong and Keeley, (1989). Capital requirement can reduce these moral hazards incentives by forcing banks shareholders to absorb a larger part of the losses, thereby reducing the value of the deposit insurance put option.

Managerial Discretion/ Expenses Theory

The agency theory states that the separation of management from owners can sometimes result in conflict of interest between the management and the owners. Management can sometimes pursue personal interest at the expense of the shareholders. This lead to excessive risk taken, overtrading that affect negatively the capital base of the bank.

Measurement of Bank Capital Adequacy Ratio

Traditionally, bank capital is measured by Capital Assets Ratio (CAR). The banking sector crisis prior to the establishment of Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC) may have been examined using this ratio.

Capital to Deposit Ratio

The banking Act of 1969 provided that the paid-up capital and statutory reserve of banks operating in Nigeria should not fall below 10% of a bank's total deposit. It is expected that for every unit of 10 deposit liabilities there should be at least 1 unit of bank Capital for the protection of the deposit. There has been criticism about this ratio. Opponent of the ratio argued that it will lead to fall in the operating profit of the banks as significant proportion of the bank's capital will held in idle cash or near cash which is low interest income. The principle of striking balance between liquidity, safety and liquidity by banks would not be achieved if higher level of cash or near cash instruments were kept by banks.

Equity Capital- Total Assets Ratio

The ratio of equity capital or primary capital to total assets is another good measure for the capital adequacy of banks. A high ratio position the bank in a better measure to absorb shocks in the operating environment.

Capital to Risk Assets Ratio

Bank operation and the operating environment is characterized with risk, this ratio measures the depth of exposure of a bank to risk assets and the number of times risk assets can be covered by capital, the higher the ratio of risk assets to total capital, the worse the capital adequacy disposition of the bank.

Adjusted Capital to Risk Assets Ratio

This ratio is used to measure the strength of adjusted capital to risk assets of the bank.

-	(55% Bank Premises)
-	(Liquid Assets + 55% Bank premises)
=	TC – (55 BP)
	TA - (LA + 55 BP)
	- - =

Adjusted Equity Capital to Risk Assets Ratio

This is the variant of the adjusted capital to risk assets ratio. It indicates the extent to which a unit of adjusted equity capital is able to cover a unit or units of risk assets at a given period of time. Adjusted equity capital is defined as: Total Capital - (Subordinated notes + debentures + 55% Bank premises).

Capital to Weighted Risk Assets

Bank assets differ and the degree of risk also differs. Appropriate weight can be assigned to match each class of bank assets according to the perceived degree of risk exposure of the assets with the assets quality. This was adopted by the Basle of International settlement to determine the standard of Bank capital adequacy.

Capital – Net Loans and Advances Ratio

This measures bank capital to loans and advances in the banking system. This rating is influence by the monetary and macroeconomic condition of the country.

III. The Basel Capital Accord

Tier 1 Capital

This includes only permanent shareholders' equity (issued and fully paid ordinary shares/common stock and perpetual non-cumulative preference shares) and disclosed reserves (created or increased by appropriations of retained earnings or other surpluses).

In the case of consolidated accounts, this also includes minority interests in the equity of subsidiaries which are not wholly owned. This basic definition of capital excludes revaluation reserves and cumulative preference shares.

There is no limit on the inclusion of Tier 1 capital for the purpose of calculating regulatory capital. For this purpose, the equity shares with the following characteristics are included in Tier 1 capital: Issued directly by the bank;

- > Clearly and separately identified in the balance sheet –
- ➢ Have no maturity (are perpetual);
- ➢ Fully paid;
- Cannot be refunded beyond the possibility of the liquidation of bank or reduction of share capital;
- Do not give to the holder rights to a minimum remuneration nor are there any clauses that require the compulsory payment of dividends.

- > The dividends are paid solely out of distributable profits or retained earnings distributable; classified as equity instruments in accordance with IFRS.
- \triangleright

IV. Tier 2 Capitals

Revaluation Reserve

- Fixed Asset Revaluation Reserve: This relates to revaluation of fixed assets in line with market values reflected on the face of the balance sheet. Prior approval of the CBN must be obtained by any bank before the recognition of the revaluation surplus on fixed assets in its books, which can only be done taking into consideration the following:
- The valuation must be made by qualified professionals and the basis of the revaluation as well as the identities of the valuers must be stated.
- The difference between the market and historic values of the eligible fixed assets being revalued shall be discounted by 55%.
- > The revaluation of fixed assets is applicable to own premises only; and
- The revaluation of fixed assets (own premises only) is permissible within a minimum period of seven years after the date of the purchase of the asset or the last revaluation.

Other revaluation reserves: The inclusion of other revaluation reserves created by the adoption of the international Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) as part of the Tier 2 capital shall be subject to the limitations that will be specified by the CBN from time to time.

General provisions/General loan-loss reserves

For the purpose of the standardized credit risk measurement approach, provisions or loan-loss reserves held against future (presently unidentified), losses are freely available to meet losses which subsequently materialize and therefore qualify for inclusion in Tier 2 capital. Provisions ascribed to specific or identified deterioration of particular assets or known liabilities, whether individual or grouped (collective), are excluded.

Furthermore, general provisions/general loan-loss reserves eligible for inclusion in Tier 2 will be limited to a maximum of 1.25 percentage points of credit risk weighted assets and subject to the approval of the CBN.

Hybrid (Debt/equity) capital instruments

These include financial instruments which combine characteristics of equity and debt capital. Essentially, they should meet the following requirements:

- > They are unsecured, subordinated and hilly paid-up;
- > They are not redeemable at the initiative of the holder or without the prior consent of the CBN.
- They are available to participate in losses without the bank being obliged to cease trading (unlike conventional subordinated debt);
- Although the capital instrument may carry an obligation to pay interest that cannot permanently be reduced or waived (unlike dividends on ordinary shareholders equity), it should allow service obligations to be deferred (as with cumulative preference shares) where the profitability of the bank would not support payment.
- Hybrid capital instruments that are redeemable must have a maturity of at least 10 years. The contract must clearly specify that repayment is subject to authorization by the Central Bank of Nigeria. Cumulative preference shares, having these characteristics, would be eligible for inclusion in this category.

Subordinated term debts

Subordinated debts issued by banks shall form part of the Tier 2 capital provided that the contracts governing their issue expressly envisage that:

- ➢ In the case of the liquidation of the issuer, the debt shall be repaid only after all other creditors not equally subordinated have been satisfied.
- The debt has an original maturity of at least five years; where there is no set maturity; repayment shall be subject to at least five years' prior notice.
- Early repayment of the liabilities may take place only at the initiative of the issuer and shall be subject to approval of the CBN.
- The contracts shall not contain clauses whereby, in cases other than those referred to in points a) and c), the debt may become redeemable prior to maturity.
- During the last five years to maturity, a cumulative discount (or amortization) factor of 20% per year will be applied to reflect the diminishing value of these instruments as a continuing source of strength. Unlike instruments included in hybrid capital above, these instruments are not normally available to

participate in the losses of a bank which continues trading. For this reason, these instruments will be limited to a maximum of 50% of Tier 1 Capital.

Year	Type of Bank	Minimum Capital Requirement
1952	Commercial Banks	£12,500.00
1969	Commercial Banks	£300,000.00
1979	Commercial Banks	₩600,000.00
	Merchant Banks	₩2,000,000.00
1988 (February)	Commercial Banks	₩5,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	N 3,000,000.00
1988 (October)	Commercial Banks	₩10,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	N 6,000,000.00
1989	Commercial Banks	₩20,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	₩12,000,000.00
1991	Commercial Banks	₩50,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	₩40,000,000.00
1997	Commercial Banks	N 500,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	N 500,000,000.00
2000	Commercial Banks	₩1,000,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	₩1,000,000,000.00
2001	Commercial Banks	N 2,000,000,000.00
	Merchant Banks	₩2,000,000.000.00
2005 - till date	Commercial Banks	₩25,000.000.000.00

Table 1 Trend of Minimum Paid-un Capital of Banks in Nigeria (1952 – 2010)

Source:

Odeleye, 2014.

V. **Empirical Review**

Vong and Anna (2009) studied the impact of bank characteristics as well as macro-economic and financial structure variable on the performance the macro banking industry. The result obtained indicates that capital strength of a bank affect positively profitability. A well capitalized bank is perceived to be of lower risk and such an advantage will be translated into higher profitability. On the other hand, assets quality as measured by the loan loss provision affects the performance of banks negatively.

Flamien, Calvin and Lilianna (2000) examined the determinants of bank profitability of 389 banks in 41 SSA countries to study the determinants of bank profitability. They found out that apart from credit risk, higher returns on assets associated with larger bank size, activity diversification, and private ownership. Bank returns are affected macroeconomic variables, suggesting that macroeconomic policies that promote low inflation and stable output growth do boost credit expansion. Their results also indicated moderate persistence in profitability. Causation in the Granger sense from returns on assets to capital occurs with a considerate lag, implying that high results are not immediately retained in the form of equity increases.

John and Oke (2013) examined the effect of the Basle capital standard on the performance of selected commercial banks in Nigeria using the ordinary least square method. The variables examined were Earnings per share and profit after tax as the functioning loans and advances, shareholders funds, total assets and customer's deposit. Findings indicate that capital adequacy standard exerts a major influence on bank performance.

Asikhia and Sokefun (2013) studied the effect of capital adequacy on the profitability of Nigerian banks using both primary and secondary data from 2006 - 2010. The findings from primary data shows no significant relationship but the secondary data results shows positive and significant relationship between capital adequacy and bank profitability.

Ikpefan (2013) examined the impact of capital adequacy, management and performance of Nigerian commercial banks from 1986 - 2006 using time series data obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin and Annual financial statement of sampled banks. The overall capital adequacy ratios of the study shows that shareholders fund/Total Assets which measured capital adequacy of bank (risk of default) have negative impact on ROA. The efficiency of management measured by operating expenses indicates negative impact ROC.

VI. **Methodology and Data**

This section of the paper concentrate on the general methods employed in analyzing the data sourced from Stock Exchange Factbook and Financial statement of Commercial Banks in Nigeria.

Model Specification The models below are specified in this study. Model I ROA = f(ACRR, CTD, CNLAR, CRA, CTAR).....1It is empirically stated as

DOI: 10.9790/5933-06621124

 $=\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 A CRR + \alpha_2 CTD + \alpha_3 CNLAR + \alpha_4 CRA + \alpha_5 CTAR + \mu \qquad \dots 2$ ROA Model II It is empirically stated as $= x_0 + x_1 ACRR + x_2 CTD + x_3 CNLAR + x_4 CRA + x_5 CTAR + \mu \dots 4$ ROI Model III It is empirically stated as $=\beta_0 + \beta_1 ACRR + \beta_2 CTD + \beta_3 CNLAR + \beta_4 CRA + \beta_5 CTAR + \mu \qquad \dots 6$ ROE Where ROA = Return on Assets ROI = Return on Investment ROE = Return on Equity ACRA = Adjusted Capital to Risk Assets Ratio CTD Capital to Total Deposit Ratio = CNLAR =Capital to Net Loans and Advances Ratio Capital to Risk Assets Ratio CRA = CTAR = Capital to Total Assets Ratio β_0 _ **Regression Intercept** $\beta_1 - \beta_6 =$ Coefficient of the independent variables to the dependent variable

 μ = Error term

VII. Estimation Procedure

Unit Root Test

Most of time series have unit root as demonstrated by many studies including Johansen (1991), Kutosoyiannis, (1997) and Campbell and Peron (1991). Therefore, their means of variance of such time series are not independent of time. Conventional regression technique based on non-stationary time series produce spurious regression and statistic may simply indicate only correlated trends rather true relationship Granger, (1969). Spurious regression can be detected in regression model by low Durbin Watson and relatively moderate R^2 .

Therefore, to distinguish between correlation that arises from share trend and one associated with an underlying causal relationship; we use both the Augmented Dickey fuller (Dickey and Fuller, 1979, 1981)

 $X_t = \mu + \Theta X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \dots7$

The null hypotheses for the ADF statistic test are H₀.

Non stationary (unit root) and H₀: Stationary respectively

Co-integration

To search for possible long run relationship amongst the variables, we employ the Johansen and Juselius (1990) approach. Thus, the study constructed a p-dimensional (4x1) vector auto regression model with Gaussian errors that can be expressed by its first differenced error correction form as

Where Y_t are the data series studied, \mathcal{E}_t is i. i. d, $N(0,\sum)$ $\Gamma_i + -1 + A_1 + A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \dots + A_i$ for $i = 1,2,3,\dots,k-1$, $\Pi = I - A_1 - A_2 - \dots - A_k$. The Π matrix conveys information about the long term relationship among the Y_t variables studied. Hence, testing the cointegration entails testing for the rank r of matrix Π by examine whether the eigenvalues of Π are significantly different from zero.

Johansen and Juselius (1990) proposed two tests statistics to determine the number of cointegrating vectors (or the rank of Π), namely the trace and the maximum eigen-value (λ -trace) is computed as;

$$\lambda trace = -T \sum_{i=r+1}^{n} In(1 - \lambda_j) \dots 9$$

The trace tests the null hypothesis that at most r cointegration vector, with more than r vectors being the alternative hypothesis. The maximum eigenvalue test is given as:

$$\lambda_{\max} = -TIn(1 - \lambda_{r+1})$$

It tests the null hypothesis of r cointegrating vectors against the alternative hypothesis of r + 1 cointegration vectors. In the equation (3) and (4), is the sample size and λ is the largest canonical correlation.

Granger Causality

In case we do not find any evidence for cointegration among the variables, the specification of the Granger causality will be a vector autoregression (VAR) in the first difference form. However, if will find evidence of cointegration, there is the need to augment the Granger-type causality test model with a one period lagged error term. This is a crucial step because as noted by Engel and Granger (1987).

Error Correction Model (ECM)

Co-integration is a prerequisite for the error correction mechanism. Since co-integration has been established, it is pertinent to proceed to the error correction model.

A-priori Expectation of the Result

The a-priori expectation of the variables proposes that an increase in the explanatory variables lead to increase in the dependent variables (ROA = α_1 , α_2 , α_3 , α_4 , $\alpha_5 > 0$ ROI = x_1 , x_{2} , x_3 , x_4 , $x_5 > 0$., and ROE = β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , β_4 , $\beta_5 > 0$

Presentation of Data and Analysis of Results

Our adopted Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression approach used cointegration, unit root, Granger Causality Test and Vector Error Correction Models to ascertain the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the models.

MODE	VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	STANDARD	T-STATISTICS	PROBABILIT
L			ERROR		Y
1.	Intercept	-238.1116	203.5605	-1.169733	0.2520
	ACRR	6.426764	2.925835	2.196557	0.0365
ROA	CTD	4.479738	2.455054	1.824700	0.0787
	CNLAR	4.305221	4.033909	1.067258	0.2950
	CRA	0.282239	0.267923	1.053434	0.3011
	CTAR	5.914733	3.320010	1.781541	0.0857
	\mathbb{R}^2	0.589595	-	-	-
	ADJR ²	0.516308	-	-	-
2.	Intercept	387.5133	2693.215	0.143885	0.8866
	ACRR	-17.51493	38.71036	-0.452461	0.6544
	CTD	-12.37557	32.48161	-0.381002	0.7061
ROI	CNLAR	9.332170	53.37077	0.174855	0.8625
	CRA	0.031640	3.544762	0.008926	0.9926
	CTAR	33.34960	43.92551	0.759231	0.4541
	\mathbb{R}^2	0.023852	-	-	-
	ADJR ²	-0.150460	-	-	-
3.	Intercept	-376.7139	866.5797	-0.434714	0.6671
	ACRR	12.16268	12.45560	0.976483	0.3372
ROE	CTD	18.42310	10.45144	1.762734	0.0889
	CNLAR	-3.953650	17.17280	-0.230228	0.8196
	CRA	-0.512167	1.140577	-0.449042	0.6569
	CTAR	-3.796889	14.13365	-0.268642	0.7902
	\mathbb{R}^2	0.249922	-	-	-
	ADJR ²	0.115979	-	-	-

Table 2: Results of Static OLS Regression of Model 1-3

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

From the above table, the result shows that 58.9% and 51.6% variation in return on assets of the quoted commercial banks can be traced to variation in the independent variable. 2.3% and -1.5% variations in return on investment can be traced to the independent variable while 2.4% and 1.1% variation in Return on Equity can also be traced to the independent variables. The regression intersect indicates negative effect of the independent variables on the dependent at constant except ROI. However, the probability values shows that the overall fits of the regression is not significantly significance and hence not good .This shows the needs for rigorous analysis of the time series properties

AUTOCORRELATION	MODEL	DURBIN WATSON	AUTOCORRELATION	TYPE
		STATISTICS	PRESENCE	
Test	1	1.150546	Presence	Positive
	2	1.70999	Presence	Positive
	3	2.675402	Presence	Negative
	Model	F-Statistics	Probability	Remark
Model Overall	1	8.045048	0.000084	Very high
Significant F-Test	2	0.136836	0.982338	Very low
	3	1.865889	0.132417	Very low

Table 3: Autocorrelation and overall significance of Regression Model

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The result presented in the above table, shows the positive presence of serial auto correlation in the models except model 3, the overall significance shows that the models are insignificant except model 1,with an F-statistics value of 8.045048 and an auto correlation presence of 0.000084 very high.

Table 4: Unit Root Test							
VARIABLE	CRITICAL 1%	5%	10%	ADF STATISTICS	LAG	REMARK	
At Level							
ROA	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-1.470927	2	Non-stationary	
ROI	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-3.731362	2	Non-stationary	
ROE	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-1.897567	2	Non-stationary	
ACRR	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-1.954931	2	Non-stationary	
CTD	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-2.432367	2	Non-stationary	
CNLAR	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-4.256205	2	Non-stationary	
CRA	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164	-0.942772	2	Non-stationary	
CTAR	-3.6496	-2.9558	-2.6164		2	Non-stationary	
At Difference							
ROA	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-6.423502	2	Stationary	
ROI	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-9.821765	2	Stationary	
ROE	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-5.740112	2	Stationary	
ACRR	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-4.476269	2	Stationary	
CTD	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-4.246440	2	Stationary	
CNLAR	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-6.561444	2	Stationary	
CRA	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-4.674357	2	Stationary	
CTAR	-3.6576	-2.9591	-2.6181	-4.062893	2	Stationary	

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The Unit Root test result shows that the variables are non-stationary at levels but stationary at first difference as proved by ADF statistics and the Mackinnon critical values at 1%, 5% and 10%. This means the acceptance of H0 at level and rejection of H0 at first difference.

Table 5: Johensen Co-integration Test MODE HYPOTHIZED LIKELIHOOD CRITICAL EIGEN CRITICAL REMARK VALUE AT 5% NULL VALUE VALUE AT 1% L RATIO 0.674001 110.3051 94.15 103.18 1. $r \leq 0$ Significant 74.43759 68.52 Significant $r \leq 1$ 0.636175 76.07 ROA 0.458904 42.08297 47.21 54.46 Significant $r \leq 2$ 35.65 Significant $r \leq 3$ 0.309556 22.42989 29.68 0.268407 10.57646 15.41 20.04 Significant $r \leq 4$ <u>r ≤ 5</u> 0.017823 0.575480 3.76 6.65 Significant 2. r <u>≤</u>0 0.658396 98.01114 94.15 103.18 Significant r ≤ 1 0.586020 63.63982 68.52 76.07 Significant ROI $r \leq 2$ 0.416816 35.41784 47.21 54.46 Significant r ≤ 3 0.321686 18.16176 29.68 35.65 Not Significant $r \le 4$ 0.157077 5.741131 15.41 20.04 Significant 0.008495 0.272991 $r \leq 5$ 3.76 Not Significant 6.65 $r \leq 0$ 0.831241 150.5834 94.15 103.18 Significant 3. ROE 0.770606 93.64628 68.52 76.07 r ≤ 1 Significant $r \leq 2$ 0.482412 46.53225 47.21 54.46 Significant r ≤ 3 0.383104 25.45781 29.68 35.65 Significant $r \leq 4$ 0.245994 10.00007 15.41 20.04 Significant r ≤ 5 0.029697 0.964690 3.76 6.65 Not Significant

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The results presented in the above table choose the stable and long run relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the models.

MODEI	VARIARIE	COFFFICIENT	STANDARD	TVPF	REMARK
MODEL	VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	ERROR	IIIE	REMARK
1.	ROA	1.000000	Linkok		
	INTERCEPT	1633.382	-	positive	Expected
	ACRR	-40.62043	12.3888	negative	Not expected
	CTD	4.112973	4.59127	positive	Expected
	CNLAR	-20.39480	10.2994	negative	Not expected
	CRA	2.809383	1.19436	positive	Expected
	CTAR	-5.017786	7.65356	negative	Not expected
	LOG	-655.3835	-	-	-
	LIKELIHOOD				
2.	ROI	1.000000			
	INTERCEPT	-2086.768		Negative	Not expected
	ACRR	-69.35457	37.5032	Negative	Not expected
	CTD	138.3753	34.6023	Positive	Expected
	CNLAR	83.02660	56.9245	Positive	Expected
	CRA	-1.349252	3.95319	Negative	Not expected
	CTAR	-106.5648	54.6902	Negative	Not expected
	LOG	-744.6391	-	-	-
	LIKELIHOOD				
3.	ROE	1.000000			
	INTERCEPT	-281.6523		Negative	Not expected
	ACRR	-22.90771	4.73459	Negative	Not expected
	CTD	-11.65479	3.54564	Negative	Not expected
	CNLAR	18.42263	6.90917	Positive	Expected
	CRA	2.163054	0.51784	Positive	Expected
	CTAR	-3.88578	1.45485	Negative	Not expected
	LOG			-	-
	LIKELIHOOD				

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The table above reveals the long run relationship between the dependent and the independent variables in the models.

Pairwise Granger Causality Tests Sample: 1980 2013 Lags: 2	-		
Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Probability
ACRR does not Granger Cause ROA	32	2.01188	0.15330
ROA does not Granger Cause ACRR		8.57628	0.00131
CTD does not Granger Cause ROA	32	1.04961	0.36392
ROA does not Granger Cause CTD		2.73121	0.08313
CNLAR does not Granger Cause ROA	32	0.28276	0.75590
ROA does not Granger Cause CNLAR		2.63429	0.09013
CRA does not Granger Cause ROA	32	1.03221	0.36985
ROA does not Granger Cause CRA		1.04329	0.36607
CTAR does not Granger Cause ROA	32	4.50762	0.02046
ROA does not Granger Cause CTAR		1.66549	0.20794

 Table 7: Pair wise Granger Causality Test: Model I

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

From the VEC result above, the casual relationship running through ACRR and ROA is uni-directional running from ROA to ACRR. There is no causal relationship running through CTD and ROA. There is causal uni-directional relationship running ROA to CNLAR. There is no causal relationship running through CRA, CTAR and ROA.

Table 8 Tah wise Granger Ca	ausanty	I csts. Mouel	11
Pairwise Granger Causality Tests Sample: 1980 2013			
Lags: 2			
Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Probability
ACRR does not Granger Cause ROI	32	1.46073	0.24983
ROI does not Granger Cause ACRR		2.26862	0.12283
CTD does not Granger Cause ROI	32	0.22232	0.80211
ROI does not Granger Cause CTD		0.22564	0.79949
CNLAR does not Granger Cause ROI	32	0.31881	0.72971
ROI does not Granger Cause CNLAR		0.18810	0.82961
CRA does not Granger Cause ROI	32	21.8839	2.2E-06
ROI does not Granger Cause CRA		0.01081	0.98925
CTAR does not Granger Cause ROI	32	0.05453	0.94704
ROI does not Granger Cause CTAR		0.61787	0.54654

Table 8 Pair wise Granger Causality Tests: Model II

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The above VEC shows no causal relationship running through the variables

Table 7. Tall wise Granger (Causanty 1	Color Mouel	111
Pairwise Granger Causality Tests Sample: 1980 2013 Lags: 2			
Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Probability
ACRR does not Granger Cause ROE	32	3.38260	0.04887
ROE does not Granger Cause ACRR		1.94977	0.16183
CTD does not Granger Cause ROE	32	7.75001	0.00219
ROE does not Granger Cause CTD		15.9686	2.6E-05
CNLAR does not Granger Cause ROE	32	3.03218	0.06487
ROE does not Granger Cause CNLAR		0.85715	0.43560
CRA does not Granger Cause ROE	32	1.96829	0.15923
ROE does not Granger Cause CRA		0.00287	0.99714
CTAR does not Granger Cause ROE	32	2.31227	0.11833
ROE does not Granger Cause CTAR		0.63402	0.53817

Table 7. Tall wise Granger Causanty rests. Model III	Table 9:	Pair wise Granger Causality Tests: Model III
------------------------------------------------------	----------	----------------------------------------------

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

From the VEC result above, there is uni-directional relationship running from ACRR and CTD to ROE while other variables have no causal relationship.

	Т	able 10: Vect	tor Error Cor	rection :Model	I	
Sample(adjusted): 19 Included observation Standard errors & t-s	983 2013 as: 31 after adjust statistics in paren	ing endpoints theses				
Cointegrating Eq:	CointEq1					
Error Correction:	D(ROA)	D(ACRR)	D(CTD)	D(CNLAR)	D(CRA)	D(CTAR)
CointEq1	0.028702 (0.14152) (0.20281)	0.050103 (0.01419) (3.53142)	-0.041011 (0.01543) (-2.65752)	-0.004180 (0.01156) (-0.36154)	0.132503 (0.20073) (0.66010)	0.001864 (0.01357) (0.13740)
С	7.974492 (8.37177) (0.95255)	0.794473 (0.83931) (0.94658)	0.263053 (0.91291) (0.28815)	-0.208429 (0.68389) (-0.30477)	-0.745918 (11.8747) (-0.06282)	0.442187 (0.80259) (0.55095)
R-squared Adj. R-squared Sum sq. resids S.E. equation F-statistic Log likelihood Akaike AIC Schwarz SC Mean dependent S.D. dependent	0.455009 0.038251 29844.77 41.89958 1.091783 -150.4686 10.61088 11.25849 11.89313 42.72468	0.753661 0.565284 299.9726 4.200648 4.000816 -79.16750 6.010807 6.658414 0.630968 6.371088	0.522560 0.157458 354.8860 4.568988 1.431272 -81.77314 6.178912 6.826519 0.468065 4.977648	0.411662 -0.038244 199.1607 3.422767 0.914995 -72.81903 5.601228 6.248835 0.000000 3.359136	0.640000 0.364707 60045.29 59.43127 2.324791 -161.3045 11.30997 11.95758 0.436452 74.56378	0.239111 -0.342746 274.3000 4.016876 0.410944 -77.78074 5.921338 6.568945 0.601613 3.466503

Econometrics Analysis of Capital Adequacy Ratios and the Impact on Profitability of Commercial...

Determinant Residual Covariance	2.16E+09
Log Likelihood	-597.0572
Akaike Information Criteria	44.32627
Schwarz Criteria	48.48946

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The objective of the Vector Error Correction Model is to ascertain the speed of adjustment from equilibrium. From the table above, the model shows a positive sign which is contrary to the rule of vector error correction.

Sample(adjusted): 1983 2013 Included observations: 31 after adjusting endpoints Standard errors & t-statistics in parentheses																
										Cointegrating Eq:	CointEq1					
										Error Correction:	D(ROI)	D(ACRR)	D(CTD)	D(CNLAR)	D(CRA)	D(CTAR)
CointEq1	-0.284522	0.001197	0.000885	0.000359	-0.008313	0.000756										
	(0.07769)	(0.00076)	(0.00078)	(0.00064)	(0.01041)	(0.00066)										
	(-3.66247)	(1.57537)	(1.12932)	(0.56015)	(-0.79897)	(1.13783)										
С	27.20491	1.028938	0.820843	-0.156465	1.326003	0.679558										
	(83.8974)	(0.82044)	(0.84594)	(0.69172)	(11.2371)	(0.71794)										
	(0.32426)	(1.25414)	(0.97033)	(-0.22620)	(0.11800)	(0.94654)										
R-squared	0.921639	0.730073	0.529872	0.309782	0.630310	0.301812										
Adj. R-squared	0.861716	0.523658	0.170362	-0.218031	0.347606	-0.232096										
Sum sq. resids	3437189.	328.6962	349.4506	233.6482	61661.63	251.6961										
S.E. equation	449.6527	4.397166	4.533863	3.707292	60.22586	3.847812										
F-statistic	15.38038	3.536924	1.473875	0.586916	2.229573	0.565289										
Log likelihood	-224.0378	-80.58487	-81.53390	-75.29445	-161.7163	-76.44774										
Akaike AIC	15.35728	6.102250	6.163478	5.760932	11.33653	5.835338										
Schwarz SC	16.00489	6.749857	6.811085	6.408539	11.98414	6.482945										
Mean dependent	22.26484	0.630968	0.468065	0.000000	0.436452	0.601613										
S.D. dependent	1209.181	6.371088	4.977648	3.359136	74.56378	3.466503										
Determinant Residual Covariance		2.98E+11														
Log Likelihood		-673.4317														
Akaike Information Criteria		49.25366														
Schwarz Criteria		53.41685														

Table 11: Vector Error Correction :Model Ii

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The above model shows the radical shift from equilibrium with the negative sign of -0.284522 and the T-statistics of -3.66247, this means that it will take 7.7 years (-0.284522 / -3.66247) to adjust to equilibrium.

Sample(adjusted): 1983 2013 Included observations: 31 after adjusting endpoints Standard errors & t-statistics in parentheses																
										Cointegrating Eq:	CointEq1					
										Error Correction:	D(ROE)	D(ACRR)	D(CTD)	D(CNLAR)	D(CRA)	D(CTAR)
CointEq1	-0.279991	-0.001030	-0.005670	0.001305	0.039408	-0.003300										
	(0.11495)	(0.00252)	(0.00109)	(0.00193)	(0.02784)	(0.00184)										
	(-2.43574)	(-0.40837)	(-5.19057)	(0.67626)	(1.41531)	(-1.79023)										
С	50.44757	0.910739	0.833191	-0.292432	-5.174322	0.927383										
	(43.2975)	(0.95041)	(0.41148)	(0.72683)	(10.4878)	(0.69430)										
	(1.16514)	(0.95826)	(2.02484)	(-0.40234)	(-0.49336)	(1.33571)										
R-squared	0.864926	0.673322	0.899681	0.312708	0.709569	0.411104										
Adj. R-squared	0.761634	0.423510	0.822966	-0.212869	0.487475	-0.039228										
Sum sq. resids	825605.6	397.8030	74.56829	232.6579	48441.74	212.2964										
S.E. equation	220.3748	4.837373	2.094366	3.699427	53.38084	3.533840										
F-statistic	8.373601	2.695312	11.72761	0.594981	3.194903	0.912892										
Log likelihood	-201.9303	-83.54262	-57.59188	-75.22861	-157.9761	-73.80904										
Akaike AIC	13.93099	6.293072	4.618831	5.756685	11.09523	5.665099										
Schwarz SC	14.57860	6.940680	5.266438	6.404292	11.74284	6.312706										
Mean dependent	11.76194	0.630968	0.468065	0.000000	0.436452	0.601613										
S.D. dependent	451.3772	6.371088	4.977648	3.359136	74.56378	3.466503										
Determinant Residual Covariance		1.13E+10														
Log Likelihood		-622.7813														
Akaike Information Criteria		45.98589														
Schwarz Criteria		50.14908														

Table 12: Vector Error Correction :Model Iii

Source: Author's computation as extracted from E-View

The model also shows the negative coefficient of the equation which will take approximately on year (-0.279991 / -2.43574) to adjust equilibrium. Also the R² is given as 0.864926 making 86 percent of variations in the explained variable which shows a strong relationship and it is also supported with a higher adjusted R² of 0.761634 accounting for 76 percent change in the variables

VIII. Discussion Of Findings

One of the proactive measures by Nigerian government to leverage Nigerian banks from shocks and reposition it to serve its purpose has been the frequent review of bank capital such as the last recapitalization that increase capital base of the banks from N2billion to N25billion and reduce the number of banks from 89 to 25 immediately after the consolidation and now to 21 as a result of the mergers and acquisitions of some the banks. The objective of this study was to examine the effects of capital adequacy on the profitability of commercial banks and the bank Profitability was proxied by ROA, ROI and ROE while capital adequacy were proxied by adjusted capital to risk ratio, capital to total deposit ratio, capital to net loans and advance ratio, capital to risk assets and capital to total assets ratio.

Findings revealed that the independent variables have positive effects on Return on Assets, capital to loans and advances ratio, capital to risk assets and capital to total assets have positive effects on Return on Investment, Adjusted capital to risk assets ratio and capital to total deposit have positive effect on Return on Equity. The positive effects of the variables confirm the a-priori expectation of the result and the objective of the review of bank capital. It confirms the innovative theory of profit and the managerial efficiency of capital theory of investment. The finding of banks determines the profitability. It also confirms other empirical findings such as Nwobloji (2013), Kosmidou (2008), Dermergue Kunt and Huizinga (1999).

The insignificant relationship of the variables on the profitability of the commercial banks confirms the findings of Olalekan and Addeyinka (2013). This is contrary to the findings of Jamam (2011), Pasiouras and Kosmidu (2007) and Ben Nacuer (2003). The insignificant effect can be traced to management shocks for instance the withdrawal of all government funds from the banking sector in 1992 to check excess liquidity in the economy that led to banking crisis of the 1990s and external monetary policy shocks such as the global financial crisis of 2007.

However, adjusted capital to risk ratio and capital to total deposit have negative effects on Return on Investment, capital net loans and advances ratio, capital to risk assets ratio and capital to total assets ratio have negative effect on Return on Equity. This finding contradicts the expectation of the result and other empirical finding such as Crouhy, Galai and Mark (2006) and Mpuga (2002). The negative effect can also be traced to poor intermediation and high operational cost of Nigerian banks as well as high volatility of the banking sector to credit risk.

IX. Conclusion And Recommendations

Adjusted capital to risk assets was found to be positively related to Return on Assets and Return on Equity but negatively related to Return on Investment. Capital to deposit ratio was found to be positively related to Return on Assets and Return on Equity but negatively related to Return on Investment.

Capital to net loans and advances ratio was found to be positively related to return on assets, Return on Investment but negatively related to Return on Equity. Capital to risk assets was found to be positively related to Return on assets, Return on Investment but negatively related to Return on Equity. Capital to total assets ratio was found to have positive effect on Return on assets, Return on Investment but negative effect on Return on Equity.

Adjusted capital to risk assets is positively related to Return on Assets and Return on Equity but negatively related to Return on Investment. Capital to deposit ratio is positively related to Return on Assets and Return on Equity but negatively related to Return on Investment. Capital to Net Ioans and advances ratio is positively related to return on assets, Return on Investment but negatively related to Return on Equity. Capital to return on assets, Return on Investment but negatively related to Return on Equity. Capital to Return on Equity. Capital to Return on Equity. Capital to total assets ratio have positive effect on Return on assets, Return on Investment but negative effect on Return on Equity. This study focused on effect of capital adequacy on the profitability of quoted deposit money banks from the findings, the study makes the following recommendations;

That banking sector capital base should further be reviewed and increase to enhance the operational efficiency of the banks for better profitability performance, there should be full compliance to all capital adequacy reforms by the deposit money banks to ledge and protect the banks against shocks and losses that will affect negatively the profitability performance of the banks. The management of deposit money banks should inbuilt the habit efficiency and effectiveness in bank management to reduce operational and administrative lost of the banking sector to enhance profitability. There should be effective risk management mechanism in the banking sector to leverage banks the negative effect of risk assets on the profitability of the banks. Monetary policy should be integrated with the profitability objectives of the banks to leverage the banks the effective of monetary policy shocks on the profitability of the deposit money banks. Banks operating environment should be reformed and made investible to enhance profitability. There should be effective intermediation mechanism from the deposit money banks to enhance deposit mobilization for better performance. The capital market should be deepened to enhance mobilization of Tier 1 and Tier 2 equity capital for the banking sector.

References

- Abreu, M. & Mendes, V.(2000). Commercial Bank Interest Margins and Profitability: Evidence for Some EU Countries. Paper presented on the 50th International Atlantic Economic Conference.
- [2]. Akani, W.H., (2013). Analysis of Macroeconomic Aggregates on Stock Price in Nigeria: An Application of co-integration and causality Test. International Journal of Academic Research. 1 (3)56-79.
- [3]. Akani, H.W., & Lucky, A.L., (2014). Money supply and aggregate stock prices in Nigeria: An analysis of Cointegration and Causality Tests: Research journal of Finance, 2(10), 1 – 24.
- [4]. Asikhia, O., & Sokefun, A., (2013). Capital adequacy and banks profitability: An empirical evidence from Nigeria. American International Journal of comptemporary research 3 (10).
- [5]. Barrios, V. E., & Blanco, J. M., (2000). The Effectiveness of Bank Capital Adequacy. Requirements: A Theoretical and Empirical Approach, University of Valencia.
- [6]. Bernauer, & Koubi (2005). Regulating Bank Capital: Can Market Discipline Facilitate or Replace Capital Adequacy Rules? Working Paper Centre for International Studies (CIS). ETH Zentrum, Swiss Federation Institute Technology.
- [7]. Benson, G. J., Eisenbeis, R., Horvitz, P., Kane, E. J., & Kaufman, G., (1986). Perspective on Safe and Sound Banking: Past, Present, Future, MIT Press Cambridge, MA.
- [8]. BOFIA(1991).Law of Federal Republic Nigeria.
- [9]. Calem, P. S., & Rob, R., (1996). The impact of Capital Based Regulations on Bank Risk Taking. A Dynamic Model. Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, Finance and Economic Discussions Series 96.
- [10]. Demirguc-Kunt, A., & Huizinga,H., (1999). Determinants of Commercial Bank Interest Margins andProfitability: Some International Evidence. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper Series, No.1900.
- [11]. Crouhy, M., Galai, D., & Mark, R., (2006). The Essentials of Risk Management. Toronto, Ontario McGraw-Hill.
- [12]. Dickey, D., & Fuller, W., (1981). Likelihood Ratio statistics for Autoregressive time series with a unit root. Econometrica 49, 1057 1072.
- [13]. Engel, R.F., & Granger. W.J., (1987). Cointegration and Error correction models in Econometrica 17,1062 1356.
- [14]. Flamini, V., Calvin, M., & Liliana, S., (2009). The Determinants of Commercial Bank Profitability in Sub-Saharan Africa. International Monetary Fund Working Paper 15, 1-33.
- [15]. Furlong, F. T., & Keeley, M. C., (1989).Capital Regulation and Bank Risk Taking: A Note. Journal of Banking and Finance 13,883-891.

- [16]. Granger, C.N.J., (1969) Investigating casual relationship by Econometrics models and cross-spectral methods. Econometrica, 37, 424-438.
- [17]. Ikpefan, O.A., (2013). Capital adequacy, management and performance in the Nigerian Commercial bank. African Journal of Business Management 7 (30), 2938 – 2950.
- [18]. Johansen, S., & Juselius, C., (1990). Maximum Likelihood Estimation and interference on cointegration with application to demand for money. Oxford Bulletin of Economics on statistic 52,169 210.
- [19]. Johansen, S., (1991). Estimation and hypothesis testing of cointegration vectors in Gaussian vector Auto regressive model. Econometrica 59, 1551-1580.
- [20]. John, E.E., & Oke, M.O., (2013). Capital Adequacy standard Bable accord and bank performance. The Nigerian experience (A case study of selected banks). Asian Economic and Financial Review, 3 (2) 146 – 159.
- [21]. Ken-Ndubuisi, J.I and Akani, H.W (2015). Effects of the Capitalization of Commercial Banks Survival in Nigeria: Pre and Post CAMEL analysis. European Journal of Accounting, Auditing and Finance Research, 3(9); 12-30
- [22]. Kutpsoyiannis, A., (1997). Theory of Econometrics. Hampshire Macmillan Press Ltd.
- [23]. Kosmidou, K.,(2008). The Determinants of Bank Profit in Greece During the period of EU Financial Integration. Managerial Finance 34(3),146-159.
- [24]. Mpuga, P.,(2002). The 1998-99 Banking Crisis in Uganda: What was the role of the new Capital Requirement. Managerial Finance, 34(4),146-159.
- [25]. Naceur, S. B., (2003). The Determinants of the Tunisian Banking Industry Profitability: Panel Evidence, Universite Libre de Tunis Working Papers. 11(3), 317-319.
- [26]. Nwokoji, C. T., (2013). Sound Banks. Nigeria Banks very Healthy. Retrieved fromsurnneonline.com/new/business/sound-banks.
- [27]. Odeleye, T.A., (2004). Pre and Post Consolidation of Nigeria Banking Sector: A Dynamic Comparison. International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues, 4(1),27-34.
- [28]. Olalekan, A., & Adeyinka, S., (2013).Capital Adequacy and Bank Profitability: An Empirical Evidence from Nigeria. American International Journal of Contemporary Research,3(10),87-93.
- [29]. Onoh, J. K. (2002). Dynamics of Money Banking and Finance in Nigeria an emerging market. Astra Meridian Publishers, Aba, Nigeria.
- [30]. Pasiouras, F., & Kosmidou, K., (2007).Factors Influencing the Profitability of domestic and Foreign Commercialbanks in the European Union. Research in International Business and Finance, 21(2),222-237.
- [31]. Peltzman, S.,(1970). Capital Investment in Commercial Banking and its Relationship to Portfolio Regulation. Journal of Finance 78(2),1-26.
- [32]. Vong, A. P. I. & Anna, P. I. 2009. Determinants of Bank Profitability in Macao. Macao: University of Macao Press.