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**Credit Losses in Australasian Banking**

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### **Abstract**

We analyse determinants of bank credit losses in Australasia. Despite sizeable credit losses over the past two decades, ours is the first systematic study to do so. Analysis is based on a comprehensive dataset retrieved from original financial reports of 32 Australasian banks (1980-2005). Credit losses rise when the macro economy is weak. Asset markets, particularly the equity market, are also important. Larger banks provide more for credit losses while less efficient banks have greater asset quality problems. Strong loan growth translates into significantly higher credit losses with a lag of 2-4 years. Finally, the results show strong evidence of income smoothing activities by banks.

### **Keywords**

banking  
credit risk  
loan loss provisions  
Australia  
New Zealand

### **JEL Codes**

G20, G21

## I Introduction

Over the past two decades, Australasian banks have been beset with episodes of major credit losses. Yet little is known about the systematic determinants of these losses. We analyse the nature of these determinants, providing the first comprehensive study of the drivers of credit losses in Australasian banking.

The stability of the banking sector is of major importance for economic outcomes. Banks form the backbone of modern economies and instability in the banking sector can pose problems to the economic system as a whole. Credit losses, or more generally, asset quality problems have repeatedly been identified as the ultimate trigger of bank failures, e.g. in Graham & Horner (1988), Caprio & Klingebiel (1996). Agencies in charge of prudential supervision of the financial system as well as macroeconomic policymakers thus take a keen interest into the determinants of such losses.

Research with data on the credit loss experience (CLE) of banks, in particular loan loss provisions, has traditionally focused on discretionary aspects when a bank's management uses its discretion to set loan loss reserves. Seminal papers by Schreiner (1981) and Greenawalt & Sinkey (1988) have explored income smoothing activities of US banks by means of their loan-loss provisions. The hypothesis is that banks engage in earnings management by reserving more in good times as a precaution for use in potentially leaner times ahead. Besides income smoothing, Lobo & Yang (2001) review evidence in the literature for three additional behavioural factors which influence the setting of loan loss reserves. These include signalling when a bank increases the loan loss provision to signal it is strong enough to absorb future potential losses, capital management in the context of meeting minimum capital requirements<sup>1</sup> and, finally, taxation aspects when loan loss provisions become a tax deductible expense.

Most of the research above has focused on US banks but the development of the new Basel capital regime (Basel II) has motivated studies for other markets which take a more macroprudential perspective on credit losses.<sup>2</sup> This paper analyses drivers of credit losses in

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<sup>1</sup> Basel I capital adequacy rules allowed loan loss provisions, subject to certain upper limits, to be counted as a component of regulatory capital (BCBS, 1988, items 18-21, p. 5-6). Seminal work on this subject is by Moyer (1990, 3.1, p. 129-131) who explicitly posits capital management through loan loss provisions.

<sup>2</sup> Cavallo & Majnoni (2001) and Bikker & Metzmakers (2003) use global samples and Valckx (2004) looks at loan loss provisioning in the EU. Country-specific research includes Arpa, Giulini, Ittner, &

Australasia. Our analysis is based on a comprehensive sample of bank specific credit loss data of 32 Australasian banks for 1980 to 2005. Unlike most other studies, these data have been retrieved from original bank financial reports and not from external data providers (e.g. Bankscope). This has the advantage of more credit loss specific data items<sup>3</sup> and, more importantly, it allows for extended time series covering the major crises which occurred in the Australian and New Zealand banking systems during the early 1990s. Parameter estimates gained with such long time series are more comprehensive than research studying the risk characteristics of the loan portfolio in the ‘normal’ course of business. In the words of Danielsson (2002), “market data are endogenous to market behaviour so statistical analysis made in times of stability does not provide much guidance in times of crisis”.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 defines the sample and provides some background information on the development of the Australasian banking system during the observation period. Section 3 introduces the methodology including the modelling approach and a discussion of the aggregate macro and bank-specific factors considered. Section 4 presents the empirical results for the overall sample as well as country-specific samples. Section 5 concludes.

## **II Background on Banks in Sample**

Results of this paper are based on a database of financial and credit loss information retrieved from original bank reports. The sample includes 23 Australian and 10 New Zealand banks (listed in Table 1 and Table 2) for the period 1980 to 2005. It essentially contains all registered banking firms operating during this time with activities in retail and/or rural banking but excludes (1) institutions that are predominantly wholesale and/or merchant banks and (2) non-bank financial institutions.

Both the Australian and New Zealand banking systems have undergone major structural changes during this time span. The 1980s saw the initiation of major sector reforms (Campbell Inquiry, 1981 in Australia; Financial Policy Reform starting 1984 in New Zealand). The various types of financial institutions such as trading banks, savings banks, state banks, trust banks and building societies were initially subject to carefully delineated sets of legislation, but a substantial blurring between their activities had occurred. The liberalization of the financial

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Pauer (2001) for Austria, Salas & Saurina (2002) for Spain, Pain (2003) for UK commercial and mortgage banks, Kearns (2004) for the leading Irish banks and Quagliariello (2004) for a comprehensive sample of Italian banks.

<sup>3</sup> The database relies on approximately 55 raw data elements per institution, of which 12 are specifically related to the CLE of the bank.

system saw the creation of common rules for bank registration. The regulatory regime in the later half of the period is relatively ‘hands-off’ compared with a considerably more interventionist system early in the period.<sup>4</sup>

The observation period covers the major banking system crises in both New Zealand and Australia which occurred in 1990/1991. In New Zealand, it culminated with the 1990 near collapse and subsequent government bail-out for Bank of New Zealand, the leading bank at the time. In Australia, the state banking system was affected by the 1991 demise of both the State Bank of South Australia (later absorbed into a predecessor of St. George Bank) and State Bank of Victoria (amalgamated into Commonwealth Bank of Australia). Other Australian banking firms also suffered greatly during these years, most notably market leader Westpac which paid the price for its involvement in some high profile commercial real estate projects.<sup>5</sup>

The fallout of the system crises led to a substantial re-shaping of the banking scene. Central and state government owned institutions were all privatized and in most cases later absorbed into other banks. Australia’s banking market concentration saw the emergence of four leading banking groups (ANZ, Commonwealth Bank, NAB and Westpac). Similarly, four banking groups ANZ-National, ASB, BNZ and Westpac now hold the bulk of system assets in New Zealand, each of them controlled by one of the major Australian banks.

Table 3 provides supplemental dynamic information on the banks in the sample. The number of banks in the sample varies from 13 for 1980 to 28 banks for 1989 and 1990. The concentration in the banking system has since then led to a decline to just 16 institutions in the sample for the years 2004 and 2005. The asset size information provided in Table 3 moreover illustrates the substantial difference between the largest and smallest bank included in the sample in any particular year. In the case of Australia, for example, the smallest institution typically holds less than 1% of the largest bank’s assets.

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<sup>4</sup> References for a description of this transformation process are Wallis Inquiry (1997, p. 567-597) and Davis (2004, p. 9-15) for Australia; Grimes (1998) for New Zealand.

<sup>5</sup> Westpac’s cumulative write-offs from 1990 to 1993 represented about 8% of loans outstanding. See Carew (1997) and Davidson & Salisbury (2005) for an account of Westpac’s crisis.

**Table 1. Overview of banks in database (Australia)**

Bank identifier	Bank full name	Institution earlier name	Successor	Registered	Data range
AU AdelaideBk	Adelaide Bank	Co-operative Building Society of South Australia		1994 to present	1988-2005
AU AdvanceBk	Advance Bank	NSW Building Society	AU StGeorge	1985 to 1998	1986-1996
AU ANZ	ANZ Banking Group (AUS)			whole period	1979-2005
AU BendigoBk	Bendigo Bank			1995 to present	1991-2005
AU BkMelbourne	Bank of Melbourne	RESI Statewide Building Society	AU Westpac	1989-1998	1998-1996
AU BkWest	Bank West / HBOS Australia	Rural & Industries Bank of Western Australia	HBOS Australia	whole period	1983-2005
AU BoQ	Bank of Queensland			whole period	1980-2005
AU CBC Sydney	Commercial Banking Company of Sydney Limited		AU NAB	to 1982	1979-1981
AU ChallengeBk	Challenge Bank	Hotham Permanent Building Society (Vic)/ Perth Building	AU Westpac	1987 to 1996	1987-1995
AU Colonial*	Colonial / Colonial State Bank	Colonial Mutual Life Assurance Society	AU CoWthBk	1996 to 2001	1996-1999
AU CommBk	Commercial Bank of Australia		AU Westpac	to 1982	1979-1981
AU CoWthBk	Commonwealth Bank			whole period	1979-2005
AU EldersRural	Elders Rural Bank Limited			2000 to present	1999-2005
AU NAB	National Australia Bank	National Bank of Australasia		whole period	1979-2005
AU PIBA	Primary Industry Bank of Australia		Rabobank Australia	1987 to 2003	1979-1993
AU SBNSW*	State Bank of New South Wales	Rural Bank of New South Wales	AU Colonial	to 1995	1980-1995
AU SBSA	State Bank of South Australia	The State Bank of South Australia	AU Advance Bk	to 1994	1980-1994
AU SBVictoria	State Bank of Victoria		AU CoWthBk	to 1991	1979-1990
AU StGeorge	St.George Bank	St.George Building Society		1993 to present	1989-2005
AU SuncorpMet	Suncorp-Metway, Suncorp after 2002	Metway Bank	renamed Suncorp in 2002	1988 to present	1991-2005
AU TasmaniaBk	Tasmania Bank	Statewide Bank (Launceston Bank for Savings), The Tasmanian Permanent Building Society	AU Trustbk TAS	to 1991	1984-1990
AU Trustbk TAS	Trust Bank Tasmania	SBT Bank (The Savings Bank of Tasmania), Hobart Savings Bank	AU CoWthBk	to 1999	1983-1999
AU Westpac	Westpac (AUS)	Bank of New South Wales		whole period	1979-2005



























\* AU SBNSW and successor AU Colonial are treated as one time series in this empirical research.

**Table 2. Overview of banks in database (New Zealand)**



























Bank identifier	Bank full name	Insitution earlier name	Successor	Registered	Data range
NZ ANZ	ANZ National Bank	ANZ Banking Group (New Zealand) until 2004		whole period	1980-2005
NZ ASB	ASB Ltd.	Auckland Savings Bank		1989 to present	1983-2005
NZ BNZ	Bank of New Zealand			whole period	1979-2005
NZ Countrywide	Countrywide Bank	Countrywide Building Society	NZ NBNZ	1987 to 1998	1983-1998
NZ NBNZ	National Bank of New Zealand		NZ ANZ	to 2004	1979-2003
NZ Rural Bank	Rural Bank	Rural Banking and Finance Corporation of New Zealand	NZ NBNZ	1990 to 1994	1984-1992
NZ Trust Bank	Trust Bank NZ	Trustee Bank Group	NZ Westpac	1989 to 1996	1988-1996
NZ TSB Bank	TSB Bank	Taranaki Savings Bank		1989 to present	1987-2005
NZ UnitedBK	United Bank	United Building Society	NZ Countrywide	1990 to 1994	1983-1992
NZ Westpac	Westpac Banking Corp. (NZ)	Bank of New South Wales		whole period	1987-2005

**Table 3. Summary asset size information on banks in sample**

**Australian banks**

Year:	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Total banks																										
Total assets of banks in sample (AUD bil)	75	89	107	122	158	194	245	286	346	420	469	467	488	508	513	571	607	687	786	808	1013	1103	1138	1246	1412	1525
Average assets per bank (AUD bil)	7.5	8.1	10.7	11.1	12.1	12.9	15.3	16.8	20.4	23.3	26.1	27.4	28.7	29.9	32.1	35.7	46.7	57.2	65.5	62.1	92.1	100.3	103.4	113.2	128.4	138.6
Assets smallest bank (AUD bil)	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.21	0.29	0.31	0.35	0.46	0.60	0.71	0.72	1.17	1.33	1.55	1.68	1.80	1.95	2.11	0.40	0.74	1.05	1.31	1.81	2.08	2.62
Assets largest bank (AUD bil)	17.9	20.1	31.3	34.5	40.4	49.1	60.7	70.3	84.6	108.6	107.0	106.0	110.9	118.0	130.4	148.1	173.7	202.0	251.7	254.1	343.7	374.7	377.4	397.5	411.3	419.6

**New Zealand banks**

Year:	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Total banks																										
Total assets of banks in sample (NZD bil)	8.3	9.8	12.9	18.6	23.5	32.9	41.2	49.4	49.2	56.2	62.0	66.9	73.7	78.1	83.8	94.0	104.3	112.1	125.0	131.3	147.4	161.3	165.7	178.9	191.4	215.7
Average assets per bank (NZD bil)	2.8	3.3	2.2	2.3	2.9	3.3	4.1	4.9	4.9	5.6	6.2	6.7	7.4	9.8	10.5	11.8	14.9	16.0	20.8	21.9	24.6	26.9	27.6	29.8	38.3	43.1
Assets smallest bank (NZD bil)	1.81	2.23	0.28	0.33	0.42	0.22	0.23	0.27	0.30	0.34	0.38	0.41	0.45	0.51	0.55	0.61	0.74	0.88	1.10	1.21	1.42	1.63	1.83	2.06	2.34	2.60
Assets largest bank (NZD bil)	4.6	5.3	6.3	6.7	8.6	11.2	13.5	16.7	15.4	18.0	19.6	20.7	19.8	19.0	19.3	22.0	26.4	27.5	29.3	31.0	35.3	38.2	38.9	42.3	74.2	85.3



### III The Model

In line with comparable macro-prudential literature, we adopt a reduced form pooled regression approach to explaining banks' credit losses. We choose impaired asset expense as a percentage of loans (IAE\_LN) as our dependent variable. This variable is the proxy most widely used in literature<sup>6</sup> and is available for most banks throughout the observation period. IAE\_LN may not precisely reflect actual credit losses in an ex-post analysis, i.e. in view of subsequent write-offs and recoveries. It gives, however, a timely indication of credit events without the delays observed for definite asset derecognitions (write-offs). We hypothesise that credit losses will reflect developments in both macroeconomic factors and bank-specific characteristics. We incorporate proxies for each of these sets of developments, but do not model the precise mechanism by which these proxies affect credit losses. One advantage of this approach is the possibility to include a range of explanatory variables whose actions on the dependent variable may be complex and indirect. Aggregate (macro) variables that are included in the study are summarised in Table 4; bank-specific factors are summarised in Table 5. Summary statistics for both categories of factors are shown in Table 6, respectively Table 7.

Aggregate variables comprise state of the economy indicators, GDP growth (GDPGRW) and the level and change in the rate of unemployment (UNEMP and  $\Delta$ UNEMP); movements in these macro variables are likely to affect asset quality and ability of borrowers to service loans. While GDPGRW and changes in unemployment ( $\Delta$ UNEMP) are proxies for economic cycles, UNEMP can provide an indication for the presence of structural problems. GDPGRW and  $\Delta$ UNEMP are highly negatively correlated for both the Australian and New Zealand series and thus measure similar effects;<sup>7</sup> we therefore do not include them jointly in the same regression.

There are a number of factors which can be subsumed as 'asset price shock proxies'. Sudden price changes in key asset classes such as property and shares may weaken borrowers' ability to service debt and reduce the value of collateral held by banks. Moreover, Pain (2003, p. 21) argues that sharp changes in asset prices may be associated with increased fragility of borrowers through more traditional macroeconomic channels. For example, swift increases in interest rates can lead to cash-flow problems in both the corporate and household sectors, which in turn can lead to borrower default.

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<sup>6</sup> Impaired asset expense represents management's estimate for the period's credit losses. Because most impaired assets will be related to lending, impaired asset expense will typically be very close to loan loss provision expense, a term used in most literature.

Our basic model formulation includes the return on the national share index (RET\_SHINDEX) and the changes in the housing price index (HPGRW) as asset shock variables. Point changes in nominal 3-month interest rates showed some explanatory power in preliminary work, but note that nominal interest rates are a linear combination of real interest rates and CPI inflation (CPIGRW). Point changes in real interest rates were found to possess no explanatory power in these preliminary tests (and were thus omitted),<sup>8</sup> but we do include the effect of CPI inflation as an additional proxy. CPIGRW may have ambiguous effects on a bank's CLE since a rise in CPIGRW raises nominal interest rates, placing greater strains on debt servicing, while increasing asset values (but not liability values) so improving solvency of borrowers.

The first group of bank-specific proxies in Table 5 mainly controls for institution specific characteristics in this heterogeneous sample of banks ranging from small regional mortgage lenders to multi-line internationally diversified institutions. SH\_SYSLNS, defined as the bank's share of total private sector credit, is the primary size proxy, indicative of both risk diversification and market power of banks. Its expected sign is uncertain since better diversified banks might face lower credit losses but at the same time be tempted into higher risk lines of business. There is moreover the market power hypothesis which postulates that monopolistic market structure promotes lending by larger banks to young firms which then leads to higher credit losses (Petersen & Rajan, 1995).

Ideally, our model should include proxies directly measuring the risk characteristics of the loan portfolio, i.e. the exposure to certain lending categories. Unfortunately such information is not consistently disclosed by all banks throughout the observation period and some standardization of risk classes was only brought about by the Basel I Capital Accord (BCBS, 1988a). Such proxies (for instance the share of residential mortgage loans in the bank's loan portfolio) can thus only be employed for empirical modeling with data after 1990.

The net interest margin, NIM, is nevertheless a partial measure of a bank's risk and operational characteristics. Wider margins are typically associated with a strong retail focus and reliance on balance sheet business. In particular, gross funding costs of retail deposits (before operating expenses required to originate them) are lower. Such institutions often focus on residential lending for which one expects comparably lower credit losses (negative coefficient). Alternatively, a high interest margin may reflect a bank's deliberate choice to lend to more risky

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<sup>7</sup> The correlation is -81% for the Australian series and -61% for the New Zealand series.

<sup>8</sup> Note that real interest rate changes have moderate correlations with the economic state variable GDPGRW (Australia: +50%\*, NZ: +37%; \*significant at 5% level).

borrowers (positive coefficient). Pain (2003, Table 5, p. 24) has moreover argued that there is a potential for lower past margins to induce greater risk-taking by banks.

Bank-specific factors in Table 5 include a proxy for a bank's growth. There is anecdotal evidence confirmed by some empirical studies (e.g. Clair, 1992) that banks expanding (too) rapidly are faced with elevated credit losses in subsequent years. In order to gain market share, such institutions may loosen lending criteria but are not able to accurately appraise required provision at the time. Our measure is actual bank asset percentage growth, ASGRW.<sup>9</sup> Up to 4 (annual) lags of the asset growth variable are included in the regression because the implications of 'reckless' lending in times of strong expansion might not become apparent for some time.

Monitoring of borrowers is a key element of an effective credit policy. Berger & De Young (1997) employ Granger-causality techniques to test effects of cost efficiencies on subsequent loan losses. They find that measured cost efficiency precedes reductions in problem loans and thus conclude that "cost efficiency may be an important indicator of future problem loans and problem banks". Accordingly, inefficient banks would be expected to suffer greater credit losses. Alternatively, one can argue such banks could maintain an extensive credit evaluation procedure and will thus exhibit lower credit losses. The cost-income ratio (CIR) is chosen as the cost efficiency proxy.<sup>10</sup>

Smoothing reported income by means of discretionary provisions was explored by (Greenawalt & Sinkey Jr., 1988). Based on analytical results by Fudenberg & Tirole (1995), we hypothesise that management in banks with good (poor) current performance relative to future performance will 'save' income for ('borrow' income from) the future by reducing (increasing) current income through loan loss provisions (Kanagaretnam, Lobo, & Mathieu, 2003). This hypothesis would thus call for positive coefficients of an earnings proxy. We include earnings

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<sup>9</sup> It can be argued that relative growth differentials are more relevant because strong growth in times of economic expansion might be in line with the general economy. Accordingly, we defined a second growth proxy, DVLNGRW, as the point difference of a bank's loan growth rate from the growth rate of the overall system (growth in total private sector credit PSC). ASGRW and DVLNGRW correlate very closely (92%) and can thus not be included jointly in the same regression, and we use just ASGRW.

<sup>10</sup> CIR is defined as non-interest expense (operational expense) over total operating income (net interest income plus other operating income). It is widely used by practitioners and in comparable CLE studies such as Pain (2003) and Salas & Saurina (2002). Note, however, that CIR is quite contentious for efficiency studies in banking; see, for example, the discussion in Hess & Francis (2004).

before taxes and loan loss provisions over average total assets (EBTP\_AS) as an explanatory variable to control for this behavioural influence on provisioning levels.<sup>11</sup>

Our full model incorporating both the aggregate and bank-specific variables is shown as Equation 1. For all variables other than the share of system loans (SH\_SYSLNS) and asset growth (ASGRW), we include current and two lagged values of each variable to capture the dynamics of CLE experiences in response to the relevant variables. We include four lags of ASGRW given our hypothesis that poor lending as a result of aggressive market share growth may only become apparent after a material interval has lapsed. Only the contemporaneous value of SH\_SYSLNS is included since changes in bank size are captured with the ASGRW parameter.

### Equation 1 Basic model form

$$\begin{aligned}
 IAE\_LN_{i,t} = & Const \\
 & + \beta_{1,0}GDPGRW_{i,t} + \beta_{1,1}GDPGRW_{i,t-1} + \beta_{1,2}GDPGRW_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{2,0}\Delta UNEMP_{i,t} + \beta_{2,1}\Delta UNEMP_{i,t-1} + \beta_{2,2}\Delta UNEMP_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{3,0}UNEMP_{i,t} + \beta_{3,1}UNEMP_{i,t-1} + \beta_{3,2}UNEMP_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{4,0}RET\_SHINDEX_{i,t} + \beta_{4,1}RET\_SHINDEX_{i,t-1} + \beta_{4,2}RET\_SHINDEX_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{5,0}HPGRW_{i,t} + \beta_{5,1}HPGRW_{i,t-1} + \beta_{5,2}HPGRW_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{6,0}CPIGRW_{i,t} + \beta_{6,1}CPIGRW_{i,t-1} + \beta_{6,2}CPIGRW_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_7 SH\_SYSLNS_{i,t} \\
 & + \beta_{8,0}NIM_{i,t} + \beta_{8,1}NIM_{i,t-1} + \beta_{8,2}NIM_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{9,0}CIR_{i,t} + \beta_{9,1}CIR_{i,t-1} + \beta_{9,2}CIR_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{10,0}EBTP\_AS_{i,t} + \beta_{10,1}EBTP\_AS_{i,t-1} + \beta_{10,2}EBTP\_AS_{i,t-2} \\
 & + \beta_{11,0}ASGRW_{i,t} + \beta_{11,1}ASGRW_{i,t-1} + \beta_{11,2}ASGRW_{i,t-2} \\
 & \quad + \beta_{11,3}ASGRW_{i,t-3} + \beta_{11,4}ASGRW_{i,t-4} \\
 & + u_{i,t}
 \end{aligned}$$

Alternative macro factors  
 Alternative asset shock proxies  
 Macro/finance factor  
 Misc. bank-specific proxies  
 Asset growth proxy (bank-specific)

where  $IAE\_LN_{i,t}$  is the CLE variable impaired asset expense as a percentage of loans for bank  $i$  in year  $t$ ; the explanatory variables on the right hand side of the equation are explained in Table 4 and Table 5.

<sup>11</sup> This approach to earnings proxy modelling (using average assets) is widely used in the relevant literature, e.g. in Ahmed, Takeda, & Thomas (1999) and, more recently, Kearns (2004).

**Table 4. Grouping of drivers of a bank's CLE into functional groups: macro variables**

Functional group	Regressor	Acronym	Expected sign
State of the economy (cycles, structural)	Real GDP growth	GDPGRW	-ve
	Unemployment rate (level, change)	UNEMP, $\Delta$ UNEMP	+ve
Asset price shock proxies	% Return on share indices	RET_SHINDX	-ve
	Housing price index (% changes)	HPGRW	-ve
Other	% Change in consumer price index	CPIGRW	+ve/-ve

**Table 5. Grouping of drivers of a bank's CLE into functional groups: bank specific variables**

Functional group	Regressor	Acronym	Expected sign
Bank characteristics (systemic importance, market power, risk profile)	Share of system loans	SH_SYSLNS	+ve/-ve
	Pricing of risks as measured by net interest margins	NIM	+ve/-ve
Past credit expansion proxy	Growth rate bank assets	ASGRW	+ve
Other variables	Cost efficiency: Cost-income ratio (level)	CIR	+ve/-ve
	Income smoothing: Earnings before taxes and provisions as % of assets	EBTP_AS	+ve

**Table 6. Descriptive statistics aggregate macro factors (1980 to 2005)**

Acronym	Mean	Median	Maximum	Minimum	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Obs
CPIGRW_AU	5.0%	4.2%	11.2%	0.2%	3.4%	0.412	1.809	26
CPIGRW_NZ	6.0%	2.9%	17.1%	-0.1%	5.7%	0.977	2.377	26
GDPGRW_AU	3.3%	3.8%	6.6%	-0.7%	1.8%	-0.667	3.074	26
GDPGRW_NZ	2.8%	2.8%	8.5%	-1.9%	2.2%	0.277	3.287	26
HPGRW_AU	8.7%	8.4%	38.8%	-4.2%	8.6%	1.508	6.757	26
HPGRW_NZ	10.1%	8.7%	31.6%	-2.5%	8.5%	0.703	3.100	26
PSCGRW_AU *	12.2%	11.3%	23.9%	-1.2%	6.2%	-0.120	2.955	26
PSCGRW_NZ *	12.8%	10.9%	31.0%	4.9%	6.9%	1.182	3.664	26
RET_SHINDX_AU	9.0%	8.8%	41.5%	-26.6%	14.8%	-0.019	3.354	26
RET_SHINDX_NZ	7.5%	6.3%	57.1%	-49.5%	20.9%	-0.239	4.291	26
UNEMP_AU	7.6%	7.7%	11.1%	5.1%	1.7%	0.371	2.272	26
UNEMP_NZ	5.7%	5.5%	10.4%	1.9%	2.3%	0.480	2.556	26
$\Delta$ UNEMP_AU	-0.05%	-0.49%	3.31%	-1.61%	1.14%	1.5534	4.921	26
$\Delta$ UNEMP_NZ	0.08%	-0.05%	2.50%	-1.80%	1.01%	0.4958	2.906	26

Notes:

Series suffices: AU - Australia; NZ -New Zealand

\* PSCGRW are auxiliary series for private sector credit growth, for information.

**Table 7. Descriptive statistics of bank specific series**

	Mean	Median	Maximum	Minimum	Std.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Obs.	Cross sect.
ASGRW	17.0%	14.1%	180.6%	-40.1%	19.1%	3.06	21.91	517	32
CIR	65.0%	65.6%	131.7%	18.0%	12.3%	0.12	5.61	519	31
EBTP_AS	1.7%	1.6%	17.0%	-1.5%	1.1%	7.14	88.87	477	32
NIM	3.34%	3.06%	11.07%	0.51%	1.43%	1.97	9.18	510	31
SH_SYSLNS	8.0%	3.4%	34.4%	0.0%	8.3%	0.90	2.79	536	32

## IV Empirical Results

We present estimates of Equation 1 for the combined Australasian sample (Table 8) as well as for the Australian and New Zealand sub-samples (Table 9 and Table 10 respectively), each estimated using annual data over 1980-2005. All equations are estimated with cross-section fixed effects to account for unobserved individual bank characteristics (as in Kearns, 2004). As a robustness test, an alternative set of estimates has been run using a random-effects model which assumes that the distribution of individual unobserved bank-specific effects does not vary over time and can be separately identified in the overall regression. The results of the random effects model are not shown but are available on request; they are very similar to those for the fixed effects specification. All reported t-statistics use White diagonal standard errors (degrees of freedom corrected) to correct for the presence of heteroskedasticity of unknown form (White, 1980).

### *Results for aggregate macro factors*

As shown in Table 8, GDP growth (GDPPGRW) and both the change and level of the unemployment rate (UNEMP,  $\Delta$ UNEMP) have the expected effects on a bank's annual loan loss provisions with a lag of one year. Based on the Schwarz and Akaike information criteria, the unemployment rate based model shows greatest explanatory power. This corresponds to results found by Kearns (2004, p. 118) for a smaller and shorter sample of Irish banks. He concludes that the unemployment rate is the most significant macroeconomic factor affecting the rate of provisioning.

In our study, a sustained one percentage point increase in GDP growth results in an annualised decline in IAE\_LN of 11%; alternatively, a sustained one percentage point increase in the unemployment rate results in a 26% rise in IAE\_LN. It is difficult to compare these sensitivities to results of other studies due to differences in model design (e.g. alternative dependent CLE variables and different variable transformations). The sensitivities in Australasia nonetheless seem lower with regard to GDP growth compared with the international studies of

Bikker & Hu (2001, Table 3, p. 12) for banks from 29 countries from 1979-1999 and Valckx (2004, Table 1, p. 7) with data drawn from OECD bank profitability statistics for all 15 EU countries from 1979 to 2001.

As to country-specific differences between Australia and New Zealand, Australia's estimation results show much greater sensitivity to GDP growth (see Table 9). The New Zealand results are less significant and effects of GDP,  $\Delta$ UNEMP and UNEMP seem more delayed (see Table 10).

The contemporaneous return on the national share index (RET\_SHINDEX) is significantly negative for the overall sample and for Australian banks. It is slightly less significant for New Zealand banks but shows the expected negative sign. It has greater explanatory power than growth of the housing price index (HPGRW), the alternative asset market proxy. HPGRW also shows the negative coefficients for the overall sample but only the contemporaneous term of HPGRW shows some significance for the Australian sub-sample.

Coefficients for the growth of CPI (CPIGRW) show mostly positive signs but with limited significance. Contemporaneous effects are minimal but effects become larger with longer lags. This pattern is more pronounced for the Australian sub-sample (Table 9) with negative (sometimes significant) contemporaneous coefficients and positive (mostly significant) one-year lagged terms. This implies that higher inflation, while possibly yielding a temporary improvement of asset quality (Tommasi, 1994), leads to a longer term deterioration of credit quality. These results are consistent with research that generally postulates long term costs of inflation (e.g. Lucas, 2000).

**Table 8. Estimation results of model Equation 1 (full sample)**

<b>Equation 1 - Full Sample</b>	1	t-Stat	2	t-Stat	3	t-Stat
Independent	IAE_LN		IAE_LN		IAE_LN	
Sample Group	ALL		ALL		ALL	
Start Year	1980		1980		1980	
End Year	2005		2005		2005	
Constant	<b>-0.0241</b> **	-3.33	<b>-0.0256</b> **	-3.71	<b>-0.0289</b> **	-4.27
GDPGRW	-0.0345	-0.84				
GDPGRW(-1)	-0.0572	-1.49				
GDPGRW(-2)	-0.0178	-0.47				
$\Delta$ UNEMP			-0.0376	-0.43		
$\Delta$ UNEMP(-1)			<b>0.2442</b> **	3.76		
$\Delta$ UNEMP(-2)			0.0519	1.04		
UNEMP					-0.0052	-0.05
UNEMP(-1)					<b>0.3128</b> **	2.69
UNEMP(-2)					<b>-0.2277</b> **	-3.34
RET_SHINDEX	<b>-0.0122</b> *	-2.05	<b>-0.0144</b> *	-2.34	<b>-0.0151</b> *	-2.37
RET_SHINDEX(-1)	-0.0023	-0.49	-0.0017	-0.33	-0.0006	-0.12
RET_SHINDEX(-2)	0.0054	0.83	0.0085	1.23	0.0072	1.10
HPGRW	-0.0146	-1.27	-0.0190	-1.86	-0.0188	-1.80
HPGRW(-1)	-0.0021	-0.31	-0.0045	-0.61	-0.0003	-0.04
HPGRW(-2)	-0.0031	-0.42	0.0056	0.79	0.0084	1.03
CPIGRW	-0.0126	-0.31	0.0005	0.01	0.0022	0.05
CPIGRW(-1)	0.0391	0.61	0.0641	1.22	0.0690	1.33
CPIGRW(-2)	<b>0.0549</b> *	2.04	0.0167	0.63	0.0251	0.90
SH_SYSLNS	<b>0.0512</b> *	2.19	<b>0.0511</b> *	2.28	<b>0.0552</b> *	2.46
NIM	-0.1819	-1.40	-0.1619	-1.24	-0.2150	-1.50
NIM(-1)	0.0864	0.65	0.0764	0.57	0.0898	0.66
NIM(-2)	<b>-0.2285</b> *	-2.14	<b>-0.2233</b> *	-2.14	<b>-0.2286</b> *	-2.18
CIR	<b>0.0635</b> **	4.69	<b>0.0635</b> **	4.65	<b>0.0597</b> **	4.14
CIR(-1)	-0.0063	-0.45	-0.0080	-0.57	-0.0085	-0.59
CIR(-2)	-0.0184	-1.93	<b>-0.0193</b> *	-2.02	<b>-0.0202</b> *	-2.17
EBTP_AS	<b>1.0493</b> **	9.79	<b>1.0481</b> **	10.16	<b>1.0619</b> **	10.18
EBTP_AS(-1)	<b>-0.2112</b> *	-2.12	<b>-0.2148</b> *	-2.19	<b>-0.2042</b> *	-2.11
EBTP_AS(-2)	-0.1604	-1.64	-0.1719	-1.73	-0.1646	-1.65
ASGRW	-0.0027	-1.09	-0.0028	-1.10	-0.0030	-1.18
ASGRW(-1)	-0.0009	-0.44	-0.0015	-0.73	-0.0016	-0.74
ASGRW(-2)	0.0036	1.48	0.0034	1.45	0.0033	1.43
ASGRW(-3)	<b>0.0046</b> *	2.38	<b>0.0042</b> *	2.17	<b>0.0040</b> *	2.12
ASGRW(-4)	<b>0.0069</b> **	2.93	<b>0.0068</b> **	2.75	<b>0.0067</b> **	2.62
Cross-sections included	28		28		28	
Observations	362		362		362	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.740		0.748		0.749	
F-Statistics	<b>20.021</b> **		<b>20.831</b> **		<b>20.900</b> **	
Schwarz criterion	-6.057		-6.088		-6.091	
Akaike info criterion	-6.649		-6.680		-6.682	
Durbin-Watson stat	2.102		2.119		2.136	

Notes: \*\* significant at 1% level, \* at 5% level.

Estimation for full observation period 1980 to 2005 for common sample of Australian and New Zealand banks. Dependent variable is impaired asset expense as % of loans (IAE\_LN). Explanatory variables as defined in Table 4 and Table 5. All equations estimated with cross-section fixed effects. All t-statistics use White diagonal standard errors & covariance (d.f. corrected)



Table 9 Estimation results of model Equation 1 (Australian banks)

<b>Equation 1 - Australia</b>	1	t-Stat	2	t-Stat	3	t-Stat
Independent	IAE_LN		IAE_LN		IAE_LN	
Sample Group	AU		AU		AU	
Start Year	1980		1980		1980	
End Year	2005		2005		2005	
Constant	<b>-0.0196</b> *	-2.50	<b>-0.0259</b> **	-3.32	<b>-0.0337</b> **	-3.83
GDPGRW	<b>-0.2227</b> **	-3.52				
GDPGRW(-1)	<b>-0.1242</b> *	-2.41				
GDPGRW(-2)	-0.0749	-1.78				
ΔUNEMP			0.1300	1.02		
ΔUNEMP(-1)			<b>0.2623</b> **	2.82		
ΔUNEMP(-2)			<b>0.1525</b> *	2.11		
UNEMP					0.1199	0.60
UNEMP(-1)					0.2666	1.40
UNEMP(-2)					<b>-0.2763</b> *	-2.37
RET_SHINDX	<b>-0.0181</b> **	-3.52	<b>-0.0221</b> **	-3.83	<b>-0.0224</b> **	-3.49
RET_SHINDX(-1)	<b>0.0168</b> *	2.14	0.0113	1.27	0.0098	0.97
RET_SHINDX(-2)	<b>0.0296</b> **	3.37	<b>0.0274</b> **	3.39	<b>0.0181</b> *	2.39
HPGRW	<b>-0.0378</b> **	-3.03	<b>-0.0449</b> **	-4.33	<b>-0.0371</b> **	-3.51
HPGRW(-1)	0.0165	1.71	0.0046	0.34	0.0107	0.52
HPGRW(-2)	0.0134	1.64	0.0081	0.95	0.0133	1.29
CPIGRW	<b>-0.1519</b> **	-2.78	-0.0740	-1.70	-0.0544	-1.36
CPIGRW(-1)	0.1062	1.62	<b>0.1280</b> **	2.93	<b>0.0953</b> *	2.36
CPIGRW(-2)	-0.0314	-0.87	-0.0541	-1.72	-0.0303	-0.96
SH_SYSLNS	0.0289	1.44	0.0352	1.76	<b>0.0397</b> *	1.99
NIM	-0.1128	-0.58	-0.1390	-0.73	-0.1509	-0.76
NIM(-1)	0.1059	0.45	0.0792	0.31	0.0848	0.33
NIM(-2)	-0.2163	-1.21	-0.2420	-1.26	-0.2595	-1.31
CIR	<b>0.0755</b> **	6.01	<b>0.0712</b> **	5.74	<b>0.0680</b> **	5.15
CIR(-1)	-0.0053	-0.48	-0.0093	-0.83	-0.0079	-0.66
CIR(-2)	-0.0183	-1.75	-0.0187	-1.89	<b>-0.0197</b> *	-2.01
EBTP_AS	<b>1.0186</b> **	7.31	<b>1.0479</b> **	7.66	<b>1.0569</b> **	7.29
EBTP_AS(-1)	<b>-0.4578</b> **	-3.53	<b>-0.4206</b> **	-3.21	<b>-0.4098</b> **	-3.05
EBTP_AS(-2)	0.0745	0.69	0.0742	0.66	0.0643	0.57
ASGRW	-0.0006	-0.23	-0.0007	-0.28	-0.0015	-0.56
ASGRW(-1)	-0.0017	-0.56	-0.0031	-1.08	-0.0027	-0.97
ASGRW(-2)	<b>0.0071</b> **	2.91	<b>0.0059</b> *	2.38	<b>0.0059</b> *	2.42
ASGRW(-3)	<b>0.0058</b> **	2.73	<b>0.0045</b> *	2.10	<b>0.0044</b> *	2.05
ASGRW(-4)	<b>0.0084</b> **	3.04	<b>0.0080</b> *	2.59	<b>0.0081</b> *	2.35
Cross-sections included	19		19		19	
Observations	236		236		236	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.722		0.723		0.721	
F-Statistics	<b>14.581</b> **		<b>14.624</b> **		<b>14.496</b> **	
Schwarz criterion	-6.159		-6.162		-6.155	
Akaike info criterion	-6.834		-6.837		-6.830	
Durbin-Watson stat	2.170		2.195		2.185	

Notes: \*\* significant at 1% level, \* at 5% level

Estimation for full observation period 1980 to 2005 for Australian banks.

Dependent variable is impaired asset expense as % of loans (IAE\_LN).

Explanatory variables as defined in Table 4 and Table 5. All equations

estimated with cross-section fixed effects. All t-statistics use White

diagonal standard errors & covariance (d.f. corrected).

**Table 10. Estimation results of model Equation 1 (New Zealand banks)**

<b>Equation 1 - New Zealand</b>	1 t-Stat		2 t-Stat		3 t-Stat	
Independent	IAE_LN		IAE_LN		IAE_LN	
Sample Group	NZ		NZ		NZ	
Start Year	1980		1980		1980	
End Year	2005		2005		2005	
Constant	-0.0128	-1.22	-0.0149	-1.51	-0.0173	-1.86
GDPGRW	0.0583	0.84				
GDPGRW(-1)	-0.0204	-0.40				
GDPGRW(-2)	-0.0932	-1.48				
ΔUNEMP			-0.2209	-1.13		
ΔUNEMP(-1)			0.0926	0.87		
ΔUNEMP(-2)			0.1316	1.42		
UNEMP					-0.1741	-0.96
UNEMP(-1)					0.3806	1.69
UNEMP(-2)					-0.0776	-0.64
RET_SHINDEX	-0.0162	-1.77	-0.0180	-1.86	-0.0193	-1.86
RET_SHINDEX(-1)	-0.0077	-1.50	-0.0050	-0.88	-0.0045	-0.80
RET_SHINDEX(-2)	-0.0019	-0.30	0.0004	0.06	-0.0017	-0.27
HPGRW	-0.0121	-0.68	-0.0059	-0.39	-0.0091	-0.56
HPGRW(-1)	0.0150	0.90	0.0080	0.56	0.0154	0.86
HPGRW(-2)	-0.0010	-0.07	-0.0036	-0.26	-0.0019	-0.12
CPIGRW	0.0105	0.18	-0.0585	-0.60	-0.0408	-0.43
CPIGRW(-1)	0.1183	1.18	0.1392	1.40	0.1518	1.39
CPIGRW(-2)	0.0617	1.33	0.1039	1.35	0.1079	1.37
SH_SYSLNS	0.0468	1.19	0.0483	1.24	0.0472	1.21
NIM	-0.1971	-0.63	-0.2637	-0.93	-0.3209	-1.21
NIM(-1)	-0.0889	-0.53	-0.0521	-0.33	-0.0001	0.00
NIM(-2)	-0.2016	-1.45	-0.2175	-1.50	-0.2391	-1.53
CIR	<b>0.0742 **</b>	4.45	<b>0.0753 **</b>	4.40	<b>0.0642 **</b>	3.06
CIR(-1)	-0.0453	-1.55	-0.0435	-1.57	-0.0439	-1.57
CIR(-2)	-0.0043	-0.25	-0.0066	-0.39	-0.0084	-0.51
EBTP_AS	<b>0.9044 **</b>	3.75	<b>0.9304 **</b>	4.19	<b>0.9460 **</b>	4.28
EBTP_AS(-1)	<b>-0.2540 *</b>	-2.04	-0.2286	-1.96	-0.2296	-1.95
EBTP_AS(-2)	<b>-0.3027 *</b>	-2.39	<b>-0.2869 *</b>	-2.40	<b>-0.2927 *</b>	-2.38
ASGRW	-0.0016	-0.26	-0.0023	-0.38	-0.0012	-0.21
ASGRW(-1)	0.0048	1.00	0.0048	0.97	0.0061	1.14
ASGRW(-2)	-0.0012	-0.28	0.0003	0.08	0.0007	0.16
ASGRW(-3)	0.0045	0.86	0.0014	0.26	0.0022	0.44
ASGRW(-4)	0.0017	0.44	0.0037	0.85	0.0062	1.20
Cross-sections included	9		9		9	
Observations	126		126		126	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.795		0.799		0.798	
F-Statistics	<b>14.874 **</b>		<b>15.162 **</b>		<b>15.069 **</b>	
Schwarz criterion	-5.601		-5.617		-5.612	
Akaike info criterion	-6.411		-6.428		-6.423	
Durbin-Watson stat	2.090		2.042		2.052	

Notes: \*\* significant at 1% level, \* at 5% level

Estimation for full observation period 1980 to 2005 for New Zealand banks. Dependent variable is impaired asset expense as % of loans (IAE\_LN). Explanatory variables as defined in Table 4 and Table 5. All equations estimated with cross-section fixed effects. All t-statistics use White diagonal standard errors & covariance (d.f. corrected).

### ***Results for bank-specific factors***

The size proxy, SH\_SYSLNS, defined as the bank's share of system loans, is consistently positive and significant for all full sample estimates, indicating higher levels of provisioning for larger banks. The coefficient values are not generally significant at conventional levels, however, for the country sub-samples. This may reflect structural heterogeneity of the sample as smaller banks are predominantly housing lenders with comparably lower levels of provisioning requirements.<sup>12</sup> It may also reflect the market power hypothesis which postulates that monopolistic market structure promotes lending by larger banks to young firms which leads to higher credit losses (Petersen & Rajan, 1995).

The coefficients for the net interest margin (NIM) are generally negative for the contemporaneous and twice-lagged terms (with the latter consistently significant for the full sample estimates). This is consistent with our initial expectation that larger banks tend to exhibit lower interest rate margins (as indicated by a negative and significant correlation of -22% between SH\_SYSLNS and NIM). Larger banks derive a higher portion of their profit through off-balance sheet business while smaller players rely more on lending income.

Highly significant contemporaneous coefficients of the cost-income ratio proxies (CIR) and generally negative coefficients for lagged terms indicate that high and increasing cost-income ratios (lower operational efficiencies) are associated with higher levels of impaired assets. The results lend support to the hypothesis that operational problems at banks (high CIR) go hand in hand with poor credit risk management and thus higher loan losses. Conversely, the results reject the alternative theory which postulates that extensive costly monitoring (high CIR) leads to better asset quality (i.e. negative coefficient for CIR). Our results for CIR support Berger & De Young (1997) who found "cost efficiencies to precede reductions in problem loans". The results are also generally in line with Salas & Saurina (2002, Table 2, p. 218) who find positive, but not always significant coefficients.

Estimates in Table 8 show consistently positive relationships between the level of provisioning and the banks' contemporaneous pre-provision earnings (EBTP\_AS), confirming previous results for other markets supportive of an income smoothing pattern (e.g. Greenawalt & Sinkey Jr., 1988 for US; Arpa et al., 2001, p. 107 for Austria; Bikker & Hu, 2001 for 26 OECD countries; Cavallo & Majnoni, 2001 for G10 countries; Bikker & Metzmakers, 2003 for US, EU; Kearns, 2004 for Ireland). Lagged terms of EBTP\_AS show negative and often significant

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<sup>12</sup> Recall that our estimates exclude a proxy for the share of residential mortgage loans in a bank's portfolio, since this data is only available after 1990.

coefficients which support the theory that necessary provisions are postponed into the following year if earnings are low in that particular time period. These results are consistent across the Australian and New Zealand sub-samples although Australian institutions seem to postpone required provisions for shorter periods than do New Zealand banks which smooth over longer cycles. One could hypothesize that Australian banks, which are mostly exchange listed, have less discretion in smoothing income compared to their (mostly) non-listed (or subsidiary) New Zealand counterparts.

Signs and significance of the coefficients on asset growth (ASGRW) are affected by the lags considered. Contemporaneous growth appears to be associated with lower credit losses (negative coefficients) but this effect is very weak. On the other hand, terms lagged beyond 2 years have the expected unfavourable effect (significant positive coefficient), especially for the full and Australian samples. Both results support the notion that at the time of credit expansion, management has a too optimistic judgment of the risks associated with their strategy, an assessment which has to be corrected in subsequent years.

These findings appear to explain some of the controversy in the literature regarding the effect of past credit growth as prior studies have typically included just one or two lags of the growth parameter. Pain (2003, p. 29), for instance, discovered negative (albeit small) coefficients for his one-period lagged growth proxy. Likewise Cavallo & Majnoni (2001, p. 20) find the contemporaneous loan growth rate has a negative sign implying that provisions tend to decrease as a share of total assets when the rate of new lending increases. Both studies have apparently measured associations of current lending growth with provisioning as opposed to measuring the longer term impact of banks 'buying market share' at the expense of subsequent asset quality.

Our results are in some respects similar to Salas & Saurina (2002, Table 2, p. 218) who also study lags up to 4 years and generally find negative coefficients for shorter lags but positive coefficients for longer lags of asset and branch network growth. While partially significant, their results are less clear-cut since they use an alternative CLE proxy in the form of a level variable 'problem loan ratio', which roughly corresponds to the level of impaired assets in Australasian accounting terminology. This level variable is likely to provide a blurred picture of the credit events in a particular period since the level of impaired assets will be the consequence of loan defaults and debt workouts possibly many years back. Our use of impaired asset expenses (i.e. the flow of new provisioning) as dependent variable yields more clear-cut results than the use by Salas & Saurina of the stock of provisions.

## **V Summary and Conclusions**

This study identifies the major drivers of credit losses in the Australasian banking system. Despite the importance of the topic, little such research has been conducted previously for this region. The analysis has been made possible as a result of the compilation of a dataset of financial and credit loss data for 32 Australasian banks over a period of 1980 to 2005 from bank documents. We choose impaired asset expense as a percentage of loans as the dependent variable in a pooled regression model. This variable has been widely used in comparable studies and is available consistently throughout the observation period.

Explanatory variables include aggregate variables proxying the state of the economy as well as asset price shock proxies for share and housing market performance. The impacts of these macro variables are as expected, with the rate of unemployment having greatest explanatory power. With respect to asset prices, the return on the share index has a more significant effect on credit losses than property prices. This result reflects the major banking crisis in Australasia around 1990 which was primarily associated with asset shocks emanating from the corporate and commercial sector rather than from the housing market. Our results indicate that higher consumer price inflation may have some small initial cushioning effect on provisioning, but longer term provisioning rises as inflation increases.

Bank-specific variables are included to control for institution-specific characteristics. We find that larger banks and banks with wider net interest margins have, on average, lower levels of credit losses. Bank inefficiency as measured by the cost-income ratio is generally associated with greater credit losses. This means inefficient institutions do not spend their extra resources efficiently on extensive credit monitoring; rather their high cost-income ratios are a reflection of poor management and control.

Important results are found with respect to the effect of past bank credit expansion. We find significantly greater asset quality problems for fast expanding banks with a lag of 2 to 4 years. Our findings provide strong evidence that managers opting for quick growth do not accurately gauge the provisioning requirements associated with their strategy.

Finally, the coefficients for the contemporaneous pre-tax & provision earnings proxy are consistently positive and significant for all samples considered. Managers of Australasian banks thus apparently have employed discretionary elements of impaired asset expense for the purpose of achieving certain target earnings. In particular, they seem to increase provisions in good years 'to store' earnings for potentially lean years in future.

Our results are similar for both the Australian and New Zealand sub-samples. Likewise they are broadly consistent with findings for other geographic areas. In detail, however, there are differences; for example, with regard to the timing of the effects. This means that, while the general impacts might be similar, the actual transmission mechanism is subject to specific local influences. Continued research on drivers of bank credit losses in Australasia may usefully consider structural modelling approaches that help to further understand the channels of influence and timing of the particular factors considered here.

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