

WHY BANKS ADOPT MOBILE BANKING: THE CASE OF TURKEY

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2018

WHY BANKS ADOPT MOBILE BANKING: THE CASE OF TURKEY

Thesis submitted to the  
Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts  
in  
Management Information Systems

by  
Yasemin Ezgi Öztaş

Boğaziçi University

2018

## DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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## ABSTRACT

### Why Banks Adopt Mobile Banking: The Case of Turkey

Majority of literature on e- banking (electronic banking) has conducted studies on internet banking adoption either by banks or by customers. Mobile banking differs from internet banking because it is available free of location and hence enables access to financial services anytime anywhere. However, why banks adopt mobile over and above internet banking has been neglected so far. This study investigates the determinants of mobile banking adoption from banks' perspective. Using a sample of 14 retail banks from Turkey, we show that banks adopt mobile banking when the proportion of loans to assets increases and when profitability decreases. Larger, private and local banks are more likely to adopt mobile banking while mobile banking complements the branch network of the banks.

## ÖZET

### Bankalar Neden Mobil Bankacılığı Kabul Ediyor: Türkiye Örneği

Elektronik bankacılık ile ilgili literatürün çoğu, bankalar veya müşteriler tarafından internet bankacılığının benimsenmesine odaklanmıştır. Mobil bankacılık, finansal hizmetlere her an her yerden erişime olanak sağlayabilmesi sebebi ile internet bankacılığından farklıdır. Bununla birlikte, bankaların internet bankacılığı sonrası, mobil bankacılığı neden benimsedikleri ve uyum sağladıkları bugüne kadar gözardı edilmiştir. Bu çalışma, mobil bankacılığın benimsenmesinin belirleyicilerini bankaların bakış açısıyla incelemektedir. İlgili çalışmada, Türkiye'den 14 perakende bankasından oluşan bir örneklem seti kullanılmıştır. Bankaların kredilerinin aktiflere oranı arttıkça ve karlılık düştükçe bankaların mobil bankacılığa daha kolay uyum sağladığı görülmüştür. Ek olarak, mobil bankacılık, bankaların şube ağına tamamlayıcı bir bileşen olarak eklenirken; büyük, özel ve yerel bankalar da mobil bankacılığa daha kolay uyum sağlamaktadır.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I really appreciate my thesis advisor Assoc. Prof. CeylanOnay's continuous support and positive feedback during my thesis. I am also thankful to my jury member Assoc. Prof. Gökhan Aydın. I cannot forget the contributions and positive feedback and support of Prof. Aslıhan Nasır to my thesis.

This thesis is dedicated to my family for their encouragement, endless trust in me and understanding. I feel so grateful to my family for their unconditional love and support. It was with their faith in me that I gained the ability to welcome new challenges. I also give special thanks to my close friends for being there for me at all times. Finally, I would like to thank all my colleagues for their support.

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## DEFINITIONS

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Listed	Listed dummy equals one if the bank is listed on the local stock exchange and zero otherwise.
Foreign	Foreign dummy equals one if the bank is foreign owned and zero otherwise. (We define a bank as foreign if the share of the foreign ownership exceeds 50.01% following IFRS standards.)
Large	Large dummy equals one if the bank's total assets are in the fourth quartile within the sample and zero otherwise.
Private	Private dummy equals one if the bank is private owned and zero otherwise.
Logbranch	Log of number of branches per year.
Depositta	Depositta is the ratio of total deposits to total assets.
Loansta	Loansta is the ratio of total loans to total assets.
Nonperfta	Nonperfta is the ratio of total non-performing loans to total loans.
Roa	Return on Assets calculated as Net Profit/Period Average Total Assets.
Intinc	Interest Income calculated as Total InterestIncome/Total Assets.
Nonintinc	Non-Interest Income calculated as TotalNon-Interest Income/Total Non-Interest Expense.
Mobile Dummy	Mobile dummy is dummy variable defined in terms of the time of adoption of mobile banking.
Internet Dummy	Internet dummy is dummy variable defined in terms of the time of adoption of a transactional website.
Crisis	Crisis dummy equals 1 if there is a systematic banking crisis and zero otherwise.
Market Share	Market Share is the ratio of total asset of a bank to total assets of all banks within a given year.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Financial institutions are profit-seeking enterprises that try to maximize revenues and reduce their cost of production simultaneously. However, competition in financial services is fiercer than ever due to information technologies that bring increased transparency; lower switching costs and higher disintermediation (Claessens et al., 2013; Claessens et al., 2001). We see disappearance of boundaries between banks and ICT companies, emergence of start-ups that enable peer-to-peer lending, and new payment infrastructures such as blockchain technology that challenge the value proposition banks deliver. Compared to banks these new financial services providers are much less regulated and far more flexible. These developments point out to higher competition for not only retaining the existing customer base but also for protecting the margins. Banks are challenged to create new revenue sources such as service fees and commissions (Adizes, 2013). Hence, importance of creating value-added services that leverage information technology becomes even more important (Wonglimpiyarat, 2014).

Developments and innovations in information technologies have affected all sectors including the banking sector. Information Technologies provides banks an opportunity to support and enhance the relationships with their customers through cross-selling of customized products and delivery of innovative services (Anderson, 2006). Intense competition have lead banks to focus on increasing customer satisfaction. Accordingly banks have diversified into digital banking services and aim to produce solutions that provide their customers fastest and most convenient access to their services. Across the developed and developing nations, branch banking

has left its place to online and mobile banking (Demirel, 2017). Mobile banking should be considered as a better digital alternative to the other traditional banking channels such as ATMs, physical branches and internet banking. In this regard, mobile banking represents the next step of financial institutions towards providing new services to customers and seizing technological opportunities in terms of new business models (Riquelme & Rios, 2010). To our knowledge, this is the first study to explain the factors that affect financial institutions' decisions to adopt mobile banking particularly in an emerging economy. Penetration of mobile banking has been fast and new technology penetrates even faster in emerging economies due to leapfrog effect (Claessens et al., 2001; Ratten, 2011). However, studies on electronic banking mostly focused on online/internet banking, while research on mobile banking is relatively less and receive underrated attention (Laukkanen & Pasanen, 2008; Puschel et al. 2010; Suoranta & Mattila, 2004).

Previous research shows that internet banking adoption enables banks to decrease operating expenses while increasing profitability and productivity (Chang-Soo & Davidson, 2004; Ciciretti et al., 2009; DeYoung, 2007; Hernando & Nieto, 2007; Onay and Ozsoz, 2013). Yet, mobile banking is different than internet banking and banks continue to invest in mobile banking over and above internet banking channel. Mobility is the most noteworthy difference of mobile from internet banking as it enables customers to interact with their banks regardless of time or location, and to access details of their financial transactions whenever and wherever necessary (Laukkanen, 2007; Suoranta & Mattila, 2004). Furthermore, transactions carried out via mobile are more cost-effective as they involve less time and fewer people (Laukkanen & Lauronen, 2005). However, the academic research on mobile banking is limited to adoption literature, which focuses on customers'

decision making and neglects banks' decision making. Why banks adopt mobile banking is the question we address in this study. What does mobile banking promise? What are the main drivers of adoption?

In this study, we follow a similar strategy to Furst et al. (2002), Singh (2007), Dandapani, (2017) and Hernández-Murillo (2010), who analyze internet banking adoption determinants of banks. Our research is novel as it focuses on mobile banking adoption over and above the internet banking channel. We use 14 retail banks as a sample over a period of 20 years from 1995 to 2014. We show that the level of deposits, the level of loans, profitability, particularly interest income, and market share are the main determinants of mobile banking adoption. Banks adopt mobile as their deposits and loans increase and as their profitability, interest income and market share decrease. Banks utilize mobile for better asset & liability management and for generating new sources of income and expanding their customer base. We also consider the impact of bank characteristics such as size, ownership and capital structure on banks' decision making and find that probability to adopt mobile banking is higher for large, unlisted, private and local banks. Finally, we find that as branching intensity increases, banks' probability to adopt mobile also increases suggesting complementary effects. Our results remain robust to alternative definitions of mobile banking adoption and various empirical estimations.

We contribute to several literature streams. First of all, we contribute to the electronic banking literature by showing that banks use mobile strategically to deliver value-added products/services to their customers both on asset and liability management as well as achieving operational efficiencies. We contribute to the debate on the impact of ICT on competition by showing that banks use mobile banking to generate new revenue sources in response to depressed interest margins

(Claessens et al., 2002). Finally, we contribute to financial inclusion literature by showing that banks adopt mobile to extend their market share (Demirguc-Kunt & Klapper, 2012; Bose, 2016; Klein, 2011).

The thesis is organized as follows: Chapter II provides the literature review and Chapter III provides hypothesis development. Chapter IV briefly describes development of internet and mobile banking in Turkey. Chapter V introduces the data while Chapter VI presents the research design. Chapter VII discusses the empirical findings while Chapter VIII presents robustness tests. Chapter 9 gives details related to limitations of the study and further research directions. Chapter X concludes our analysis with an overview of the main results.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Penetration of the information technology in the banking sector had transformed banking activities into digitized already. Electronic banking with its two major components, Internet banking and mobile banking, has been the most striking innovations in the banking sector. Lin, (2010) states that “Mobile banking can perform account balances and transaction history inquiries, funds transfers, and bill payments via mobile devices such as cell phones, smartphones, and PDAs (personal 15 digital assistants)”. Crabbe et al. (2009) defines mobile banking as “the ability to perform banking transactions online on portable mobile devices via Short Messaging Services (SMS) or Wireless Application Protocol (WAP)”. Cruz et al. (2010) mentions about mobile banking as “the evolutionary step following the internet banking that provides services, like SMS banking, downloaded applications or direct access to online banking with fewer choices and restricted graphics.” Luo (2010) defines mobile banking as an” innovative method for accessing banking services, where a customer interacts with a bank via a mobile device.” While different authors make different definitions of mobile banking, all agree on and emphasis mobility as its foremost feature. On the other hand, 85% of mobile banking innovations come from developing economies and 50% of them are user-driven innovations (Oliveira & Von Hippel, 2011; Van der Boor et al., 2014).

Mobility is the most valued and differentiating feature of mobile banking over internet banking (Suoranta & Mattila, 2004). While internet banking requires users to have access to a computer with internet access, mobile banking can be accessed via smartphones or tablets that are connected to the internet through mobile data

transmission or Wi-Fi hotspots (Riquelme & Rios, 2010; Zhou et al., 2010). Accordingly, mobile banking enables customers to be on the move and utilize their devices to perform the financial activities they need without the previous limits associated with traditional banking or internet banking. With mobile banking customers can check their account balance, transfer money, pay bills and make investments even faster than before independent of the time and place. The fast penetration of mobile devices combined with easier and cheaper access to internet, has also contributed to the high adoption rates of mobile banking by customers (Ratten, 2011).

In the meantime, visiting the traditional branches by financial services customers has become less important. Customers today are less loyal, more receptive to new electronic channels and more sophisticated in demanding better service quality including 24hour service availability (Coelho & Easingwood, 2003). While they value compatibility, perceived usefulness, and trust in their decision to adopt mobile banking (Hanafizadeh et al., 2014; Shaikh & Karjaluoto, 2015; Shaikh et al., 2015; Shih & Lin, 2015), they also perceive mobile banking as a competitive advantage that affects their decision to switch banks (Koenig-Lewis et al., 2010). The advantages of mobile banking are not limited to users of this service; it can be considerably profitable to the service providers and the society as well. Accordingly, mobile banking is important for banks in building relationships with customers to retain and develop their customer base (Belousova and Chichkanov, 2015) as well as to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty (Thakur, 2014). Customer loyalty and retention has gained importance over customer acquisition for long-term profitability as a new customer cost up to five times more than the cost of retaining an existing customer (Mittal & Lassar, 1998; Bansal, 2004). Furthermore, higher transparency

and lower switching costs has put pressure on the interest margins forcing banks to create new sources of non-interest income(Onay & Ozsoz, 2013).Technological improvements in the services provided by financial intermediaries help increase income and reduce costs in several ways: for example the non-interest income: By making more non-loan products available to customers through the computers/mobile phones to customers such as letters of credit and commercial paper and derivatives (Hakimi, Hamdi, & Djelassi, 2012). In fact, Mobile Banking provides banks with reduction in costs and improvement in non-interest income, as well as the efficiency across interactions with customers (Kundu and Datta, 2012). Banks produce both traditional banking services and non-traditional financial services and started to earn noninterest income with that. They can extract fee income from customers willing to pay a “convenience premium” for doing their banking at ATMs or over the Internet. De Young and Rice (2004) found that relationship banking tends to generate increases in noninterest income and that some technological advances, for example cashless transactions, contribute to increased earnings from non-interest income. They posit that deregulation has fostered competition between banks and in response to these competitive threats and opportunities, many banks have embraced new technologies which has drastically altered their production and distribution strategies and resulted in large increases in non-interest income. According to the findings of De Young and Rice (2004), it is shown that large banks generate relatively more noninterest income, while well-managed banks rely less heavily on earnings from non-intermediation. Mobile devices add value by enabling ubiquity, convenience, localization, and personalization (Clarke, 2001; Kuo & Chen, 2006). Accordingly, mobile banking has the potential to assist Customer Relationship Management (CRM) activities of the

banks, thereby encouraging more transactions while preventing users from switching to different service providers(Riivari, 2005). Today, many financial services organizations have started to become more customer oriented. A key component of many initiatives is the implementation of Customer Relationship Management software. The challenging business process in the financial services pressurized banks to introduce alternative delivery channels to attract customers and improve customers' perception. Many banks have started to implement Internet and mobile banking to provide their customers various online services with more convenience for accessing information and making transactions. Customer satisfaction and customer retention can be seen as key success factors in e-banking in the increasingly developing world(Bauer, Hammerschmidt, & Falk, 2005). Mobile banking can be tailored to provide information and services in a suitable way to a specific user (Clarke, 2001). This feature can improve customer relationship management, preventing users from switching to different service providers(Kuo & Chen, 2006). Mobile banking provides a direct marketing channel for their products and services, which can be customized to the specific needs of customers. Proactive functionality makes it possible for banks to send immediate and tailored information (push) to the customer's mobile devices (Tiwari et al., 2006). For instance, banks can notify their customers when the account falls below a certain threshold. This feature brings the advantage of being up to date at all times without requesting information from a pull system. Localization through GPS technology offers new opportunities to determine the user's location and subsequently tailor and communicate better offers and services to customers such as the location of the closest ATM (Tiwari & Buse, 2007).

## CHAPTER 3

### HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

In order to understand mobile banking, which has improved delivery of financial services (Cruz et al., 2010) it is important to distinguish between mobile banking and Internet banking. There is a difference between these two significant technologies in their main customer segmentation (Dasgupta et al., 2011). Online Banking is used by customers through computer connected to Internet and Mobile Banking is used by customers through wireless devices (Riquelme & Rios 2010). The lack of mobility in the use of internet banking became a main concern for users as they had to use only local area network (LAN) or WI-FI connections to access internet banking. In addition they needed a personal computer (PC) like desktop or laptop to do their transactions. So the banks found there was still a need to enhance customer satisfaction by providing flexible services to customers whenever and wherever they want them (Rahmani, 2008). Mobile banking attempted to solve these issues by enabling customers to be on the move and utilize their devices to perform the financial activities they need without the previous limits associated with traditional banking or internet banking (Al-Qirim, 2007). Compared to online banking, mobile banking represents an extension with its major difference in the devices used to conduct banking tasks. Customers prefer internet-banking for basic banking services such as eft or utility payments, while they prefer and show a higher degree of satisfaction for mobile banking for value-added services (Kundu & Datta, 2012).

The value of customer relationship management has become apparent in this competitive era of technological innovation. Customer loyalty and customer retention has importance over customer acquisition as successful strategy in terms of

customer retention or enhancement ultimately leads to the profitability(Puschel, Mazzon, & Hernandez, 2010). Rapid development of information technology has made banking tasks more efficient and cheaper. Adoption of mobile banking has significant impact on reducing costs and facilitating change in retail banking (Laukkanen and Lauronen, 2005). As discussed by Kerem (2003:5) “being on mobile has allowed banks to cut costs on transactions, improve their image on the market, and respond better to the demands of the market. Banks have used their sites also successfully to promote and cross sell their new services and products among existing customers. Mobile banking also allows banks to collect additional and detailed information about their customers online without having to use printed questionnaires or interviews. The information collected can help banks to easily design new, customised products and services for their clients. Mobile banking makes it easier to facilitate for quick questions and answers(Simuchimba, 2012).Porteus (2006) and Ndung (2011) show that mobile banking has increased access to banking services while the transaction costs have been lowered for both banks and customers. This led to higher profitability.At the same time banks commission income increased as more customers preferred digital channels for their transactions(Aytar, Yeğen, & Erdemir, 2012).Accordingly, while Furst et al. (2002) and Ciciretti et al. (2009) find that more profitable banks adopt internet banking,we expect banks to adopt mobile as their profitability,particularly as their interest income decreases to create new revenue sources via value-added services. We also expect banks to adoptmobile as the deposits increase to surgecustomers’ satisfaction and loyalty.

H<sub>1</sub>: Lower the profitability, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

H<sub>2</sub>: Lower the interest income, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

H<sub>3</sub>: Higher the deposits, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

A bank's product mix can also affect the adoption of technological innovations as information technology may help create more customized products/services (Dandapani, 2017; Hannan & McDowell, 1984). Dandapani et al (2016) discuss that a higher proportion of consumer loans would increase likelihood of internet banking adoption as such loans would require more interaction with the consumers. With mobile banking, providers can expand their services portfolio and promote their brands. This helps them to increase their reputation, create strategic marketing differentiation and to attract new customers. On the other hand, Hernandez-Murillo et al (2010) and Dow Jr. (2007) discuss that a higher ratio of loans to assets and a lower ratio of nonperforming loans imply better financial health and such banks are more likely to adopt internet banking. More recently, Cadena and Schoar (2011) showed that SMS/mobile application reminders have a reasonable impact on the repayment behaviour of borrowers. Particularly mobile enables banks to be more customer-driven by collecting information about customers' payment behaviour, update campaigns and deliver relevant offerings. Accordingly, mobile banking also has the potential to improve the asset side of the banks' balance sheet through improved customer relationship, design of customized products and services as well as better monitoring of risk. Thus, we hypothesize that banks would be more likely to adopt mobile banking as their loans and nonperforming loans increase.

H<sub>4</sub>: Higher the loans, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

H<sub>5</sub>: Higher the non-performing loans, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

Mobile banking also provides an opportunity for financial institutions to extend banking services to new customers (Lee et al., 2007). Porteous (2006)

deliberates that mobile banking could be additive to the existing retail channels or could be transformational if it reaches to unbanked segments. Anderson (2010) notes that mobile banking creates access to financial services for unbanked customers in the developing markets, particularly for people who live in rural areas, have already access to mobile phones and have greater familiarity and trust with mobile phone companies than formal banking institutions (Matos J. C., 2010). Furthermore, a mobile handset can easily be adapted to handle banking transactions (Wambari, 2009). According to Dasgupta et al. (2011), the emergence of mobile banking may be a good commercial opportunity for banks to provide their services to rural people who are unable to access the Internet. Also, having mobile phones instead of ATMs/branches for their banking services accessible at anytime and from anywhere also generates revenue through higher service usage and reduces operating expenses. The low cost of using remote banking services is an important reason for switching to mobile apps (Luarn, 2005). Cruz et al. (2010) and Dasgupta et al. (2011) suggest that mobile banking has great potential to provide reliable services to people living in remote areas where internet facility is limited. Additionally, higher competition forces banks to adopt internet banking to increase their penetration (Dandapani et al., 2016). The main reason for banks to invest money in mobile apps is that customers perceive mobile banking as a competitive advantage (Koenig-Lewis et al., 2010; Belousova & Chichkanov, 2015). Competitive banks have important investments in adopting new technology in accordance with their business strategies (Anckar & D'Incau, 2002). Opportunities to keep existing customers and attract new ones encourage banks to use mobile devices to build relationships with customers (Belousova, Veronika and Chichkanov, Nikolay 2015). Delivering value-added services to customers is critical for obtaining a competitive edge in the mobile market by

strengthening relationships with customers (Wang et al. 2009). Anderson (2010) noted that “mobile banking has the potential to provide simple banking and electronic transaction services for non-banking customers in the development of markets.” Mobile banking provides an opportunity for financial institutions to extend banking services to new customers so it helps increasing their market share (Lee, Lee and Kim, 2007). Accordingly, we expect banks to adopt mobile banking to increase their market share.

H<sub>6</sub>: Lower the market share, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

Simpson (2002) states that mobile banking is used for cost minimization, nevertheless adopting technology-based innovation can be costly as institutions face high fixed costs for development of these technologies. Adopting technology-based innovation can be costly as institutions require a complete setup of computers, network coverage and skilled workers (Saleem & Rashid, 2011). Rogers and Sinkey (1999) suggests that “bank/firm size have a positive relationship with the level of non-traditional activities that larger banks are better equipped to use new technology.” In this regard, large banks, who are more financially stronger and technically efficient, would be better equipped to adopt such new technologies (Drake & Hall, 2003; Hasan & Marton, 2003; James P. Dow, 2007; Miller & Noulas, 1996, Rogers & Sinkey, 1999). The study of Drake and Hall (2003) provides empirical evidence on the existence of a strong relationship between bank size and technical efficiency and scale efficiency in Japan. Miller and Noulas (1996) arrived to establish a significant positive correlation between the size and pure technical efficiency of banks. The largest banks have appeared to be relatively more efficient technically in the study of Hasan and Marton (2003) on Hungarian banks. On Turkish banks, Isik and Hassan (2002) have arrived to similar results about the

dominance of technical inefficiency. Large banks have adopted internet banking earlier than small banks, while banks with higher branching intensity have adopted internet banking as a complementary channel (Ciciretti et al, 2009; Furst et al., 2002; Dandapani et al, 2016). On the other hand, Hernandez-Murillo et al. (2010) find an inverse association between internet banking and branching intensity, proxied by the number of branches of a bank per year, suggesting a substitution effect. Furthermore, Vesala (2000) discusses that mobility creates value to the customers by reducing costs mainly through digitalization of activities and labour savings and hence it is facilitating change in retail banking by bringing location-free access to financial services (Laukkanen & Lauronen, 2005). The cost of establishing new technologies is much lower than the cost of establishing a physical branch outlet. Technology innovation has reduced the requirement of staff at the branch, thus reducing the salaries given to them. The office setup required and other utilities are removed, thus saving firms investment, which is now used to establish computer infrastructure that operates automatically under the supervision of few skilled IT professionals, saving time and money (Lewis, Palmer, & Moll, 2010). Accordingly, while we expect to find a higher likelihood to adopt mobile for larger banks, we expect a lower likelihood for banks with higher branching intensity due to substitution effect.

H<sub>7</sub>: Larger the bank, higher will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

H<sub>8</sub>: Higher the branching intensity, lower will be the likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

Similar to large banks, listed banks could have more financial means to undergo the investments required to adopt new technologies. A stream of literature compares listed and unlisted companies in relation to their capital structure choices. Unlisted companies, who are more opaque, are found to be credit constraint, whereas

listed companies with access to public and international capital markets are not (Brav, 2009; Faulkender & Petersen, 2006; Giannetti, 2003). Accordingly, listed banks with greater access to finance could be faster to undergo the required investments to adopt new technologies than unlisted counterparts. Accordingly, we expect listed banks to be more likely to adopt mobile banking.

H<sub>9</sub>: Listed banks have a higher will be likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

The organizational structure of financial institutions plays a pivotal role in new technology service adoption (Daghfous & Toufaily, 2007). The foreign banks have advanced more than domestic banks in terms of technological progress; Levine (1996) indicates that “the foreign banks’ entry has improved the quality and availability of financial services in the domestic financial market by increasing bank competition and by enabling the greater application of more modern banking skills and technology.” Foreign banks are found to be leading public and private banks in terms of Information Technology use (Sensarma, Rudra, 2006).” Foreign banks bring more competition and suppress profitability of domestic banks, while improving the quality and availability of financial services mainly through technology spillovers (Claessens et al., 2001; Luo et al., 2015; Levine, 1996; Unite and Sullivan, 2003). Predominantly improvements in technology spur productivity growth for banks (Casu et al., 2016). Accordingly, foreign banks would enable technology transfer and may adopt new technologies sooner than their local counterparts. On the other hand, in emerging markets, local banks could build their infrastructure with the latest technology and accordingly technology spillover may not be evident. These local banks enjoy leapfrog benefits as these technologies enable not only lower costs that are passed onto customers but also increase access to credit (Claessens et al., 2001; Onay & Ozsoz, 2013). Recent studies emphasize a “leapfrogging” element in using

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in developing country contexts. With “leapfrogging” these countries may increase access to information and knowledge and reduce bureaucracy by bypassing older, less appropriate and less affordable forms of ICTs. Accordingly, we expect local banks to be more likely to adopt mobile banking to enjoy leapfrog benefits.

H<sub>10</sub>: Local banks have a higher likelihood to adopt mobile banking

Regarding the ownership of banks, private sector banks are found to make use of low cost innovative strategies to achieve penetration, while the public-sector banks rely on traditional high cost means. (Byers & Lederer, 2001; Cho & Pucik, 2005; Kumar & Gupta, 2009; Kumar et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2002).

Accordingly, while one-fifth of the total business of public sector banks come from rural businesses, only one-seventh of the total business of private sector banks is from rural areas suggesting lower penetration (Merwin, 2015). Cicciretti et al. (2009) finds that Italian public banks are more aggressive in adopting internet banking compared to private banks, however we expect private banks to be more likely to adopt mobile banking to increase their penetration as mobile is a low-cost means of increasing penetration.

H<sub>11</sub>: Private banks have a higher likelihood to adopt mobile banking.

## CHAPTER 4

### INTERNET BANKING AND MOBILE BANKING IN TURKEY

#### 4.1 Internet banking in Turkey

With the development of the secured electronic transaction technologies, Internet banking has evolved into a “one stop service and information unit” that promises great benefits to both banks and consumers(Tan & Teo, 2000). Internet banking enable users toperform common banking transactions such as writing checks, paying bills, transferring funds, printing statements, and inquiring about account balances. Internet banking in Turkey was launched in 1997 by Is Bank. Then most of the banks such as Garanti Bank, Akbank, YapıKredi Bank, Vakıfbank, Denizbank, HSCB, Finansbank have started to provide internet banking through years(Pala & Kartal, 2010).

In the report that was provided by Banks Association of Turkey, as of 2017 there are more than 20 million active users that logged into mobile banking at least once in the last three months. The volume of EFT transactions has reached 277million TL, signifying a more than 100-fold increase in the past 5 years (Table 1). So, internet banking is an active delivery channel for banks in Turkey.

Table 1.Active Internet Banking Customers, Number and Volume of EFT Transactions

Year	# of Customers	# of Transactions (Thousands)	Transaction Volume (Million TL)
2011	8.606.145	46.424	277.861
2012	10.551.764	54.914	332.320
2013	12.435.952	61.025	410.797
2014	14.315.056	63.281	488.705
2015	17.420.451	68.534	600.081
2016	20.398.627	77.091	773.651

Source: Banks Association of Turkey (2017)

#### 4.2 Mobile banking In Turkey

Adoption of Mobile banking in Turkey began in the first half of 2000 with access to internet banking services via Wireless Area Protocol (WAP) from mobile devices. WAP is defined as “an industry initiated world standard that allows the presentation and delivery of information and services to wireless devices such as mobile telephones or handheld computers” (Ashley, Hinton, & Vandenwauver, 2001). Evolution of the WAP has integrated into the banking sector as well. Banks also have been using the WAP in order to provide banking services to customers. As a mobile form of internet banking, WAP banking communicates with its customer via mobile devices. WAP banking customers’ access their banks’ WAP related website over the internet from mobile phone browser with a mobile phone that support WAP. In Turkey many banks provided WAP Banking services through websites. However, its penetration was slow as customers found it hard to use.

Although responding to the mobile environments changes quickly is not always possible, banks put the innovation in their agendas since the innovation taking place in retail banking is being driven by the move to mobile. So, banks give weight developing mobile banking services to their customers in order to adopt to this dynamic environment.

Mobile banking adoption accelerated only after introduction of mobile banking platforms by banks in the second half of 2000s. These platforms enabled easy and user-friendly access to mobile banking services. After being launched, mobile banking has gained incremental importance in Turkey. Mobile penetration in Turkey has an increase trend since 2010. By the end of 2017 mobile penetration has reached to 96.3% percent with more than 75 million mobile subscribers(BTK, 2017). Therefore, we define mobile banking adoption as banks' mobile banking platform rather than WAP based access. Nevertheless, we do alternative estimations with WAP adoption dates to confirm our main findings in Section 7.

In the report that was provided by Banks Association of Turkey, as of 2017 there are more than 19 million active users, who logged into mobile banking at least once in the last three months, and the volume of EFT transactions has reached 197 million TL, signifying an approximately 100-fold increase in the past 5 years (Table 2). So, mobile banking is an active delivery channel for banks in Turkey.

Table 2.Active Mobile Banking Customers, Number and Volume of EFT Transactions

Year	# of Customers	# of Transactions (Thousands)	Transaction Volume (Million TL)
2011	445.723	1.360	2.232
2012	1.402.938	3.503	6.464
2013	3.227.096	7.842	15.985
2014	6.711.360	17.528	42.851
2015	12.164.368	37.162	104.032
2016	19.217.598	68.194	197.212

Source: Banks Association of Turkey (2017)

## CHAPTER 5

### DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In the report that was provided by the Banks Association of Turkey, as of 2016 there are 34 deposit banks that include public, private and foreign banks. More than half of them are offering mobile banking.

Table 3. Bank Types in Turkey

Bank Number	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2016
<b>Deposit Banks</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>34</b>
Public Banks	5	4	3	3	3	3
Private Banks	32	28	17	11	11	9
Banks in Saving Deposit Ins.Fund	-	11	1	1	1	1
Foreign Banks	18	18	13	17	19	21
Dev. and Inv. Banks	13	18	13	13	13	13
<b>Total Bank Number</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>47</b>

Our sample includes the banks only which we have detailed information of the services provided via transactional mobile banking. The information was gathered from the banks' websites. Accordingly, we have gained data from 14 deposit banks in Turkey that have adopted transactional WAP and transactional mobile banking between 1995 and 2014. Following Ciciretti et al, (2009) and Onay and Ozsoz (2013) "the banks in our sample offered a similar package of Mobile banking products, services, and transactional capabilities at the time of adoption: 1) Information inquiries, 2) Account balance checking and maintenance, 3) Fund

transfers, 4) Automatic Bill and Credit Card Payments, 5) Savings and investments transactions, 6) Retail and commercial banking transactions, and 7) Online trading.”The variables which are specific for banks are collected from the year-end consolidated aggregate income statements and balance sheets compiled by the Banks Association of Turkey. These variables are also adjusted for inflation by using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) published by the World Bank. These variables include total assets, total deposits, total loans, nonperforming loans, interest income, non-interest income and net profit to construct standard measures of financial health and profitability such as deposits-to-assets ratio, loans-to-assets ratio, the proportion of nonperforming loans, and return on assets. We also collect the ownership information, listing dates and number of branches from the annual reports and websites of the banks. Our dataset covers a 20 years period. Also the dataset is unbalanced panel since the unavailability of data for some of the banks in our sample.

Our sample has three public banks, six private banks and also five foreign banks. The total asset size of the banks in our sample represents 89% of the total banking sector as of 2016. The transition to mobile was a sequential process for all the banks in our sample as they first adopted internet banking channel, which was then followed by the adoption decision for WAP-based mobile and finally a mobile platform. In our sample, we are able to observe this transition and hence, we are able to analyse what particularly drives mobile banking adoption for banks. Table 4 provides the establishment date, asset size, and both transactional WAP and transactional mobile banking adoption dates of the list of banks included in our analysis. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of our sample. The mean Return on Assets (ROA) is 2.1% of the 14 deposit banks in our sample. Although it could be

maximum 28% for some banks, the ratio of non-performing loans to total loans has also an average of 1.9%. An average loan to asset ratio is 50% and an average deposit to total assets ratio is 65% of our banking sample. The average ratio of banks' non-interest income to total non-interest expense is around 57%. In Table 6 we present the correlation matrix for all of the variables we use in our analysis.

Table 4. List of Deposit Banks, Establishment Dates, Total Asset Size, WapBanking and Mobile Banking Adoption Dates

Bank	Established in	Total Assets (ml TL)	WAP Adoption Date	Mobile Banking Adoption Date
<b>STATE BANKS</b>				
Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası A.Ş.	1863	357.761	2007	2009
Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.	1938	231.441	2004	2011
Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O.	1954	212.540	2000	2011
<b>PRIVATE BANKS</b>				
Türkiye İş Bankası A.Ş.	1924	311.626	2002	2007
Türkiye Garanti Bankası A.Ş.	1946	284.155	2000	2007
Akbank T.A.Ş.	1948	271.016	2000	2008
Yapı ve Kredi Bankası A.Ş.	1944	252.820	2000	2009
Şekerbank T.A.Ş.	1953	23.819	2011	2011
Türk Ekonomi Bankası A.Ş.	1927	79.727	2008	2012
<b>FOREIGN BANKS</b>				
Denizbank A.Ş.	1997	103.159	2005	2013
Finans Bank A.Ş.	1987	101.503	2010	2010
ING Bank A.Ş.	1984	49.688	2007	2011
HSBC Bank A.Ş.	1990	24.369	2006	2013
ICBC Turkey Bank A.Ş. (Tekstil Bank)	1986	8.218	2011	2011
Total Assets of Banks in our Sample as of 2016		2.311.842		
Total Assets of All 34 Deposit Banks in Turkey as of 2016		2.595.348		

Source: Banks' Association of Turkey

Table 5.Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Mobile	280	0.239	0.427	0	1
WAP	280	0.496	0.5	0	1
depositta	196	0.652	0.081	0.486	0.857
loansta	196	0.502	0.174	0.069	0.753
nonperf	196	0.019	0.045	0.000	0.28
roa	196	0.021	0.017	0.001	0.126
intinc	196	0.127	0.075	0.062	0.553
nonintinc	196	0.575	0.589	-3.153	1.717
Market Share	260	0.062	0.049	0.001	0.187
Branchno	278	485	392	1	1707
Crisis	280	0.1	0.301	0	1
Internet dummy	280	0.721	0.449	0	1
Listed	280	0.646	0.479	0	1
Foreign	280	0.196	0.398	0	1
Large	280	0.25	0.434	0	1
Private	280	0.786	0.411	0	1

Table 6. Correlation Matrix

	mobile	WAP	depositta	loansta	nonperf	roa	intinc	nonintinc	marketshare	logbranch	crisis	internetdummy	listed	foreign	large	private
mobile	1															
WAP	0.478	1														
depositta	-0.2679	-0.2642	1													
loansta	0.4352	0.3227	-0.5672	1												
nonperf	-0.1864	-0.1666	0.2942	-0.3828	1											
roa	-0.2124	-0.1463	0.3102	-0.3663	0.2903	1										
intinc	-0.4293	-0.4849	0.4255	-0.6572	0.4689	0.4504	1									
nonintinc	0.145	0.2414	-0.1885	0.1574	-0.3402	-0.3359	-0.5718	1								
marketshare	0.2419	0.5305	-0.0385	-0.1001	-0.1068	0.0098	-0.1669	0.2645	1							
logbranch	0.3848	0.5415	-0.0885	-0.0088	-0.0491	-0.0848	-0.1914	0.2858	0.5641	1						
crisis	-0.2062	-0.2429	0.2773	-0.4851	0.64	0.4451	0.6823	-0.6513	-0.0594	-0.2054	1					
internetdummy	0.1886	0.3945	-0.3404	0.5421	-0.3143	-0.2629	-0.6986	0.2521	0.1161	0.0423	-0.3766	1				
listed	0.1906	0.132	-0.3312	0.4171	-0.1206	-0.0406	-0.3048	0.0382	0.1094	-0.07	-0.113	0.3158	1			
foreign	-0.0295	0.0893	-0.3286	0.4398	-0.098	-0.1176	-0.1662	-0.0781	-0.401	-0.0288	-0.1428	0.1306	-0.0982	1		
large	0.608	0.4445	-0.1333	0.2123	-0.2473	-0.1068	-0.3877	0.2462	0.5066	0.6427	-0.2243	0.1574	0.1456	-0.2112	1	
private	0.0216	-0.0992	-0.4726	0.2974	-0.034	-0.0277	-0.1666	-0.077	-0.4377	-0.3565	0.0026	0.2426	0.4423	0.2826	-0.2317	1

## CHAPTER 6

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

There may be different reasons for financial institutions to adopt mobile banking. In this regard, understanding the root cause is an empirical issue. To have comprehensive knowledge of the parameters that affect the financial institutions' decisions, we use financial and accounting based ratios alongside indicators about the characteristics of the banks. More specifically, based on our hypotheses, our statistical model specifies the probability of a financial institution adopting mobile banking is a function of bank-specific performance and control variables.

*Mobiledummy<sub>it</sub>*

$$\begin{aligned} &= \alpha_0 + \beta_1 \text{Deposita}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{Loansta}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{Nonperf}_{it} \\ &+ \beta_4 \text{ROA}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{Marketshare}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{Internetdummy}_{it} + \beta_7 \text{Crisis}_{it} \\ &+ \sum_{k=1}^4 \gamma_k \text{Control}_{it}^k + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned}$$

Our main dependent variable is mobile banking adoption dummy coded as one when the bank adopts transactional mobile banking and zero otherwise.<sup>1</sup> *Deposita* is the ratio of total deposits to total assets, *Loansta* is the ratio of total loans to total assets, *Nonperf* is the ratio of total non-performing loans to total loans, *ReturnonAssets* is the ratio of net profit to average total assets, *Marketshare* is the ratio of total asset of a bank to total assets of all banks within a given year. *InternetDummy* Internet dummy is a dummy variable which can be described as the

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<sup>1</sup>Dates of transactional WAP adoption and transactional mobile banking adoption are compiled from the financial statements of the banks.

time of adoption of a transactional website. Crisis dummy equals one if there is a systematic banking crisis and zero otherwise.<sup>2</sup>

CONTROL<sub>k</sub> is a matrix of exogenous control variables including the following:

Listed : dummy equals one if the bank is listed on the local stock exchange and zero otherwise.

Foreign : dummy equals one if the bank is foreign owned and zero otherwise.<sup>3</sup>

Large : dummy equals one if the bank's total assets are in the fourth quartile within the sample and zero otherwise.

Private: dummy equals one if the bank is privately owned and zero otherwise.

Initially we start estimating equation (1) in the panel with OLS fixed effects model. We first enter explanatory variables individually to explore their impact on the mobile banking adoption decision and then estimate pooled OLS (Table 7, columns 2-9). Then, we respectively do a probit estimation with robust standard errors (Table 7, column 10) and a logistic fixed effect estimation of equation (1) in the panel to verify our findings (Table 7, column 11). OLS FE and Logit FE estimations are done with firm fixed effects controlling for omitted variables bias. As suggested by Petersen (2009), the standard errors are clustered at the firm level. In the second step, we continue with probit estimation of our extended model including the control variables, where we explore (i) the impact of number of branches the bank owns and (ii) the impact of profitability by breaking it into two main components; interest and non-interest income on mobile banking adoption decision by introducing them to equation (1) respectively (Table 8). We control for the number of branches to understand whether mobile banking complements or

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<sup>2</sup>Dates of internet adoption and systemic crisis periods are taken from Onay and Ozsoz (2012).

<sup>3</sup>We define a bank as foreign if the share of the foreign ownership exceeds 50.01% following IFRS standards.

substitutes the physical branches. For this we use the log of number of branches per year (Logbranch). Interest Income is calculated as the ratio of interest income to total assets (Intinc) and non-interest Income is calculated as the ratio of non-interest income to total non-interest expense (Nonintinc). All unbounded explanatory variables are winsorized at the 1% level at both tails.<sup>4</sup> Finally, we re-estimate equation (1) by including all of our explanatory and control variables with a one period lag to tackle any possible endogeneity problems in Tables 8,9 and 10.

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<sup>4</sup>Our results remain same if we use raw values.

## CHAPTER 7

### EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

In Table 7, we present our initial estimations.<sup>5</sup>In OLS FE estimations, we first explore the impact of each determinant individually on mobile banking adoption and find that mobile banking adoption is positively related to loans to assets ratio and internet adoption dummy, and negatively related to deposits to assets, nonperforming loans to assets, profitability ratios and crisis dummy (Table 7, columns 2-9). However, as our dependent variable is a binary outcome variable, we continue our analysis with probit and logit estimations with firm fixed effects and controls for internet adoption and crisis dummies (Table 7, columns 10-11).<sup>6</sup>Initial probit and logit estimations show that probability to adopt mobile banking is higher when loans to assets ratio increases and when profitability decreases. This confirms our H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>4</sub> that banks use mobile banking as a means of managing its assets more efficiently with closer monitoring of customer behaviour data and as a means of creating new revenue sources. While our results are similar to Dandapani et al. (2016), who shows that credit unions are more likely to adopt internet banking when a higher proportion of their loans are customer loans, our results regarding profitability differ considerably from Dandapani, (2017); Furst et al., (2002); Hernández-Murillo, (2010) and Singh, (2007), who show that profitable banks adopt internet banking. We find that banks rely on mobile banking to increase profitability possibly via delivering more customized products/services and to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty.

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<sup>5</sup>We check the stationarity of our data with Levin, Lin, & Chu (2002) and Im, Pesaran, & Shin (2003) tests for unbalanced panel data and confirm that all of our variables are stationary at the 1% level.

<sup>6</sup>In probit estimation, internet and crisis dummies predict failure perfectly and thus was automatically dropped and in total 19 observations are not used in the empirical estimations.

Table 7. Initial Regression Analysis

VARIABLES	OLS FE								Probit	Logit FE
	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile
depositta	-2.658** 0.981							0.0221 1.067	-1.37 4.373	-6.439 6.114
loansta		1.687*** 0.225						2.039*** 0.363	12.78*** 2.681	28.47*** 5.766
nonperf			-2.096*** 0.333					-0.349 0.848	-6.949 15.91	11.03 27.63
roa				-6.956*** 1.716				-1.163 2.302	-84.44** 38.37	-174.6*** 52.3
marketshare					2.635 2.485			0.65 1.94	12.35 9.409	-1.531 38.44
internetdummy						0.334*** 0.0367		-0.235 0.161		15.91 2.990
crisis							-0.266*** 0.0293	0.252** 0.0993		-13.99 3.070
Constant	2.075*** 0.639	-0.505*** 0.113	0.381*** 0.00626	0.485*** 0.0354	0.0861 0.147	-0.00188 0.0265	0.266*** 0.00293	-0.47 0.768	-5.716* 2.917	
Observations	196	196	196	196	260	280	280	179	160	177
R-squared	0.133	0.324	0.04	0.061	0.028	0.121	0.037	0.36		
Number of bankno	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	13



Table 8 presents our main findings; the first three columns give estimation results of our extended model, which includes bank-level controls and branch intensity, and last three columns give the lagged analysis for endogeneity.<sup>7</sup> We find that the effect of loans to assets and profitability ratios are similar across different model specifications and enter significantly once again with the expected signs confirming H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>4</sub>. However, breaking down the profitability into interest and non-interest income components makes banks' motivation to adopt mobile clearer. We find that interest income is significantly negatively related to mobile banking adoption. Accordingly, we confirm H<sub>2</sub> that banks probability to adopt mobile increases particularly when interest income decreases. As these new technologies enable lower costs that can be passed onto customers, competition gets fierce and this brings a pressure on revenues of the banks mainly on interest margins (Claessens et al., 2002). Accordingly, increasing interest income becomes a priority for banks and a main driver for adopting mobile banking. The coefficient estimate for deposits to assets ratio is positive and significant confirming our H<sub>3</sub>. This makes sense as banks' customer base expand, the need to interact with the customer in order to retain and increase their loyalty increases. Accordingly, banks make use of mobile banking to deliver value-added services to their customers. While loans to assets ratio continues to be a significant determinant of adoption as we expect in H<sub>4</sub>, the significance of the negative coefficient of non-performing loans ratio in Table 7 disappears in probit estimations. Another notable finding is that banks adopt mobile when their market share decrease. So, we confirm H<sub>6</sub> and contribute to the financial inclusion literature by showing that in response to higher competition banks use

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<sup>7</sup>As internet dummy and crisis dummy predicts failure perfectly, we exclude them in our model in Probit analysis.

mobile banking to attract new customers, to target unbanked segments or to reach customers in remote areas where their branch network is scarce.

Consistent with previous research on internet banking adoption, we find that larger banks adopt mobile banking earlier confirming our H<sub>7</sub>. However, contrary to our H<sub>8</sub> banks adopt mobile when their branch intensity increases. Accordingly, mobile banking complements the branch network. We also find negative and significant coefficients for listed and foreign dummies indicating that unlisted and local banks are more likely to adopt mobile banking (H<sub>9</sub> and H<sub>10</sub>). While Onay and Ozsoz (2013) report that listed and foreign banks adopt internet banking, our results give support to the prediction of Claessens et al., (2001) that banks in emerging economies already acquire the latest technology. Hence, we find no technology spillover effect from foreign banks. This finding also relates to the discussion that foreign firms acquire already productive and profitable firms in emerging countries (Micco et al., 2007). In our case this translates to firms who have the most recent technologies. Finally, we find a significant positive coefficient for private dummy suggesting that private banks are more likely to adopt mobile confirming our final hypothesis 11 that banks use mobile as a low-cost means of penetration. Our results remain robust once we lag all right-hand side variables one period to tackle endogeneity. In the rest of the thesis, we discuss our robustness tests results with respect to lagged results.

Table 8. Probit Estimation (Mobile)

VARIABLES	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile
depositta	0.654	7.997**	-0.646			
	4.143	3.571	4.519			
loansta	12.51***	12.66***	11.32**			
	2.916	2.899	4.559			
nonperf	-0.498	-10.41	5.392			
	6.417	44.03	5.418			
roa	-76.99**					
	31.41					
marketshare	-5.855	-8.176**	-6.617			
	4.402	3.718	4.356			
listed	-1.379*	-2.246**	-1.155			
	0.759	0.876	0.828			
foreign	-1.829**	-2.327***	-1.640**			
	0.765	0.771	0.677			
large	1.553***	1.231**	1.678***			
	0.499	0.592	0.544			
private	1.246	2.771***	0.939			
	0.779	0.798	0.764			
logbranch	3.530**	3.724***	2.426			
	1.489	1.357	1.692			
intinc		-66.13***				
		14.83				
nonintinc			-0.32			
			0.677			
L.depositta				3.822	22.49***	2.71
				5.303	8.548	5.628
L.loansta				16.37***	23.48***	12.11**
				5.104	6.773	5.775
L.nonperf				-4.435	-35.1	3.718
				8.055	38.04	4.545
L.roa				-109.0**		
				49.57		
L.marketshare				-5.104	-5.059	-5.04
				7.625	5.998	5.038
L.listed				-1.554	-3.462**	-0.953
				1.147	1.565	0.964
L.foreign				-2.166*	-3.712*	-1.676*
				1.304	1.94	0.911
L.large				1.527*	0.5	1.532*
				0.865	01.06	0.835
L.private				1.871*	4.613***	1.349
				1.007	1.604	0.918
L.logbranch				5.311**	7.700***	2.919
				2.687	2.209	2.487
L.intinc					-93.00***	
					18.97	
L.nonintinc						-0.199
						0.744
Observations	179	179	179	166	166	166
Number of bankno	14	14	14	14	14	14

## CHAPTER 8

### ROBUSTNESS TESTS

For robustness, first, we re-estimate equation (1) with WAP adoption dummy and secondly, we repeat probit estimations with logistic regression, where we include internet adoption and crisis dummies and use firm fixed-effects to control for omitted variable bias.

In Table 9 we present the results of probit estimation of equation (1) where the dependent variable is WAP adoption dummy. Results confirm our main findings that banks are more likely to adopt mobile as loans to assets increase and as profitability decrease. However, neither interest income nor non-interest income had an impact on WAP adoption. While we observe a positive coefficient for deposits, the impact is not significant. These could be due to the fact that adoption of WAP by customers was not widespread and the products/services that could be delivered via WAP was relatively primitive compared to mobile platforms. Accordingly, banks have not fully utilized the advantages of mobile. On the other hand, results confirm that local, large and private banks had higher likelihood to adopt WAP banking, while branching intensity had a positive impact. WAP estimations furthermore contribute to our main findings by showing that nonperforming loans and market share were also significant determinants for banks in introducing mobile channels. However, contrary to our previous findings we find a significant positive coefficient for market share indicating that banks were initially more likely to adopt mobile banking when their market share increases. This could be due to the “stock effect” Hernandez-Murillo et al. (2010) report that banks were likely to adopt internet banking since

their peers were adopting. However, as banks realize the potential of mobile banking to reach new customers the sign of this coefficient turns to negative and banks adopt mobile as their market share decrease (Table 8). On the other hand, we find a positive coefficient for non-performing loans indicating a higher likelihood to adopt WAP when nonperforming loans increase. This is contrary to what has been documented so far for internet adoption, which discusses that banks are unlikely to make IT investments when their financial situation deteriorates (Dandapani et al.,2016 ; Hernández-Murillo, 2010). This shows that mobile banking is different than internet banking and because of its proactive push functionalities banks used it initially as a medium of tackling delinquent loans.

Table 10 presents the results of our logit firm fixed effect estimation where dependent variable is the mobile banking adoption dummy.<sup>8</sup>As before results confirm the impact of loans to assets and profitability ratios on banks' likelihood to adopt mobile banking. Higher branch intensity is also associated with higher likelihood to adopt. However, once we include firm fixed-effects the significant impact of bank characteristics and deposits to assets ratio disappear. On the other hand, while internet adoption and crisis dummies enter with expected signs, their impact on adoption is insignificant. Nevertheless, our results regarding loans, branching intensity and profitability remain robust even after we control for the impact of banks' internet adoption and crisis periods in our estimations.

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<sup>8</sup>Private dummy drops out as there is no within group variation. The model also does not converge when we insert interest income to the model so we cannot present results regarding it. Nevertheless, when we estimate the model without internet and crisis dummies, we confirm our probit estimation results regarding the interest income variable. Results can be provided upon request.

Table 9. Probit Estimation (WAP)

VARIABLES	wap	wap	wap	wap	wap	wap
depositta	4.633	3.638	5.55			
	<i>6.59</i>	<i>6.344</i>	<i>50.01</i>			
loansta	31.03***	31.45**	33.81			
	<i>10.44</i>	<i>13.17</i>	<i>33.99</i>			
nonperf	-3.115	-0.186	-15.37			
	<i>15.45</i>	<i>13.46</i>	<i>253.1</i>			
roa	-86.05**					
	<i>41.53</i>					
marketshare	172.6*	179.4**	224.1			
	<i>99.52</i>	<i>72.85</i>	<i>402.9</i>			
listed	-1.029	-2.162	-1.66			
	<i>2.894</i>	<i>1.925</i>	<i>12.92</i>			
foreign	-3.623*	-3.789	-3.999			
	<i>2.076</i>	<i>2.469</i>	<i>5.061</i>			
large	1.405	-0.408	1.874			
	<i>1.666</i>	<i>1.121</i>	<i>35.66</i>			
private	2.345	0.244	5.745			
	<i>7.293</i>	<i>05.07</i>	<i>163.5</i>			
logbranch	9.701	8.918	10.73			
	<i>6.225</i>	<i>5.876</i>	<i>38.03</i>			
intinc		-48.63***				
		<i>14.24</i>				
nonintinc			0.415			
			<i>8.03</i>			
L.depositta				5.052	12.04	6.191
				<i>6.888</i>	<i>16.79</i>	<i>7.499</i>
L.loansta				19.15***	23.03	22.43***
				<i>2.621</i>	<i>15.56</i>	<i>4.28</i>
L.nonperf				25.68***	77.48	24.07***
				<i>7.745</i>	<i>55.49</i>	<i>8.794</i>
L.roa				-32.71*		
				<i>18.39</i>		
L.marketshare				189.8***	300.1	226.7***
				<i>42.74</i>	<i>247.1</i>	<i>55.92</i>
L.listed				-0.861	-2.337	-0.472
				<i>2.027</i>	<i>2.606</i>	<i>2.354</i>
L.foreign				-2.069*	-3.675	-2.552**
				<i>1.058</i>	<i>4.103</i>	<i>1.249</i>
L.large				7.159***	-5.341	8.488***
				<i>2.374</i>	<i>5.605</i>	<i>3.274</i>
L.private				8.270***	2.619	10.35***
				<i>2.069</i>	<i>2.28</i>	<i>2.687</i>
L.logbranch				3.190**	8.293	3.820*
				<i>1.49</i>	<i>7.656</i>	<i>1.973</i>
L.intinc					-112.1	
					<i>96.43</i>	
L.nonintinc						0.658
						<i>0.702</i>
Observations	179	179	179	166	166	166
Number of bankno	14	14	14	14	14	14

Table 10. Logit Estimation

VARIABLES	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile	mobile
deposita	12.85	16.69	5.987		
	<i>10.64</i>	<i>18.07</i>	<i>-9.367</i>		
loansta	16.20*	26.52	15.06*		
	<i>8.421</i>	<i>21.10</i>	<i>7.733</i>		
nonperf	28.74	71.88	46.75		
	<i>78.64</i>	<i>126.7</i>	<i>73.33</i>		
roa	-141.4*				
	<i>79.06</i>				
marketshare	71.41	180.8	66.40		
	<i>76.40</i>	<i>132.3</i>	<i>44.98</i>		
listed	1.256	-19.89	1.027		
	<i>11.154</i>	<i>8.692</i>	<i>3.864</i>		
foreign	1.630	-13.73	3.168		
	<i>32.979</i>	<i>36.781</i>	<i>8.426</i>		
large	19.48	17.56	17.10		
	<i>07.32</i>	<i>6.349</i>	<i>3.467</i>		
logbranch	38.32***	65.23*	33.64***		
	<i>13.14</i>	<i>36.60</i>	<i>11.10</i>		
internetdummy	15.95	8.695	13.50		
	<i>39.143</i>	<i>168.466</i>	<i>9.031</i>		
crisis	-4.826	-13.34	-8.069		
	<i>79.043</i>	<i>203.147</i>	<i>11.204</i>		
intinc		-130.0**			
		<i>55.05</i>			
nonintinc			3.042		
			<i>2.538</i>		
L.deposita				8.707	23.91
				<i>9.662</i>	<i>15.32</i>
L.loansta				20.61**	24.64**
				<i>8.835</i>	<i>10.24</i>
L.nonperfa				27.67	-5.645
				<i>76.03</i>	<i>105.2</i>
L.roa				-375.8**	
				<i>160.0</i>	
L.marketshare				214.3*	175.5
				<i>120.5</i>	<i>121.0</i>
L.listed				-15.16	-2.982
				<i>10.985</i>	<i>177.985</i>
L.foreign				5.171	-6.868
				<i>15.119</i>	<i>29.784</i>
L.large				27.08	19.66
				<i>4.196</i>	<i>5.855</i>
L.logbranch				35.61***	51.66**
				<i>13.81</i>	<i>23.40</i>
L.internetdummy				12.80	12.42
				<i>10.504</i>	<i>13.081</i>
L.crisis				1.767	1.225
L.nonintinc					3.097
					<i>3.065</i>
Observations	177	177	177	164	164
Number of bankno	13	13	13	13	13

## CHAPTER 9

### LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FURTHER RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The chapter is divided in two sections. The first section highlights the limitations of this research. The second section discusses directions for further research.

#### 9.1 Limitations of the study

The main limitation of the study comes from the sampling and the data collection issues discussed in chapter 5. While there were 33 active deposit banks in Turkey, the sample of the study composed of 14 deposits banks, for which detailed information regarding the adoption and services offered via mobile banking were collected. This meant 19 banks from the sample had to be excluded, for which detailed information about the adoption of mobile banking could not be retrieved from the websites or the financial reports of the banks. Nevertheless, the study was made with a homogenous and representative sample of the Turkish banking industry as the total assets of the sample banks represented 89% of the whole banking system. On the other hand the data period covered a 20 years including pre- and post-adoption periods. However, as mobile banking is a recent phenomenon the post-adoption period was shorter compared to pre-adoption period. As our main focus was the adoption drivers, the pre-adoption period was long enough to justify our findings.

#### 9.2 Further research

This thesis addresses the question of why banks adopt mobile banking and discuss the financial motivations for banks to adopt a new technology. For this research we chose a developing country as our setup. However, as literature discusses there are

fundamental differences between developed and developing economies and the role of banks in their financial system development. Accordingly, further research in this field entails what happens after the adoption. Do banks really increase their profitability, market share via more customized offerings and decrease their credit risk via more efficient monitoring of their receivables? Furthermore are there motivational differences between banks that operate in developed economies vs developing economies in adopting new technologies? Does these technologies really increase the efficiency of the banks and serve the welfare of the nations? And finally what is the real impact of new technologies on access to financial services? These questions need international samples to represent the perspectives of both developed and developing economies.

## CHAPTER 10

### CONCLUSION

In this thesis, we examine the determinants of mobile banking adoption from the perspective of banks. This is the first research that investigates mobile banking adoption drivers and we contribute to the literature in several ways. Studying a sample of 14 Turkish banks over a 20-year period, we show that banks adopt mobile banking mainly when their deposits and loans increase and when their profitability, particularly interest income, and market share decreases. Banks use mobile banking to access new/unbanked/underbanked customers as well as retaining existing ones and for effectively managing their assets and liabilities. Banks also rely on mobile banking to interact with their customers and to deliver tailored solutions to their financial needs in order to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. Customer experience plays a mediating role on how customers evaluate product attributes and increases the value customers perceive from mobile (Sheng & Teo, 2012). Mobile banking adoption literature shows that customers value ubiquity, convenience, localisation and personalisation that comes with mobile and in our sample we see that banks who have taken the first-mover advantage by introducing mobile banking sooner have also protected their market leader position. Accordingly, our research also contributes to mobile banking adoption literature by showing that mobile banking is an integrated part of banks' business models. Furthermore, our findings contribute to ICT competition literature and financial inclusion literature by respectively showing that banks adopt mobile as interest income decreases due to higher competition induced by ICT and as their market share decreases (Claessens et al., 2002; Demirguc-Kunt & Klapper, 2012; Porteous, 2007). We also find that

branching intensity is a significant determinant of adoption decision. The higher the branching network, the more likely that the banks' will adopt mobile. While this indicates that mobile is complementary to branches, it could also be interpreted as banks willingness to reduce operating costs. We also note significant differences between banks' decision to adopt mobile versus internet. While banks adopt internet banking when their financial situation is strong, we find that banks adopt mobile when their profitability is lower and when their non-performing loans are higher. Finally, by examining the impact of different bank characteristics on adoption decision, we contribute to the literature. We find that large, unlisted, private and local banks are more likely to adopt mobile banking. Technological advances and deregulation has increased competition and banks have responded by altering their production and distribution strategies towards generation of non-interest income by embracing new technologies such as ATMs, POS and internet banking (Al-Tarawneh, Khalaf, & Assaf, 2017; Bailey-Tapper, 2010; DeYoung & Rice, 2004).

In this thesis, we investigate the motivations of banks to adopt a new technology; mobile banking. We contribute by showing that banks use mobile banking complementary to branches and internet banking channel for actively managing their assets & liabilities, for protecting their market share and for increasing their profitability through better customer interaction mobile technologies enable from "anytime" and "anywhere". In this regard, our findings could be relevant and applicable to other contexts and industries that involve new technology adoption and guide them in building their mobile strategies.

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