

NBA 5420: Investment and Portfolio Management Class 7: Fixed Income I

Professor Matt Baron March 16, 2016



#### **Midterm**

- We need to split the class into two classrooms
  - so you have enough space to take the exam
- Morning class (10:10 11:25 AM)
  - last name starts with A-H: go to Sage B10
  - last name starts with I-Z: normal classroom (Sage B09)
- Afternoon class (1:25 2:40 PM)
  - last name starts with A-L: go to Sage B08
  - last name starts with M-Z: normal classroom (Sage B05)

#### Midterm Review

- You can choose which of these (if any) you want to attend:
- Thursday, March 17, Sage B05
  - 6:30 7:15 PM: Kate will go over selected problems on the board from the practice midterm questions
  - 7:15 8:00 PM: Kate will informally answer individual questions officehours-style
- Friday, March 18, Sage B05
  - 2:00 2:45 PM: Sam will go over selected problems on the board from the practice midterm questions
  - 2:45 3:30 PM: Sam will informally answer individual questions office hours-style
- My office hours
  - I will also have office hours on Friday from 3:30 4:30 PM



## For midterm day

Bring a pen and calculator

Bring double-sided 8.5' x 11' "cheat sheet"

No books, computers, tablets, cell phones allowed



#### **Fixed Income**

- 1. Overview of bond markets
- 2. Bond pricing
- 3. Duration and convexity
- 4. The term structure & the expectations hypothesis

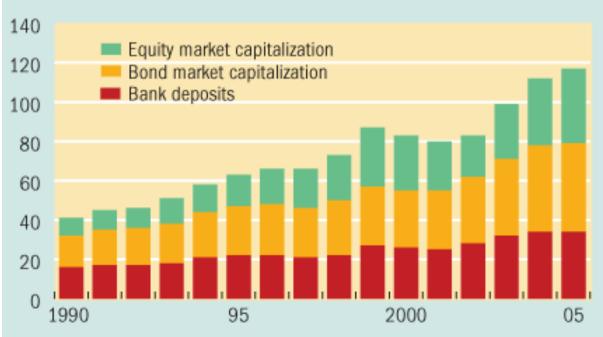


#### Chart 3

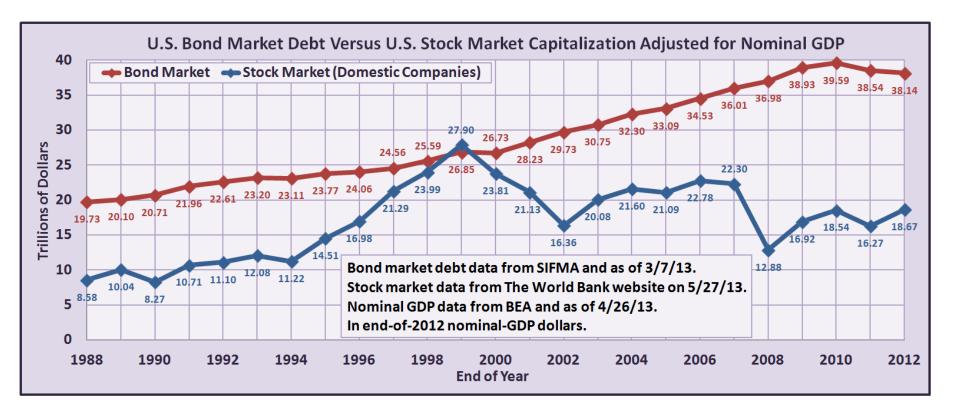
#### **Expanding markets**

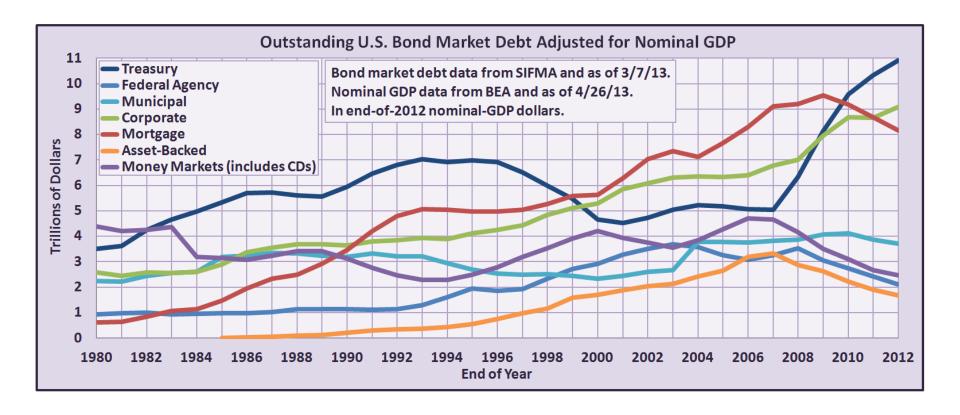
Global bond and equity markets have witnessed unprecedented growth in the past 15 years.

(trillion dollars)



Sources: IMF staff estimates based on S&P/IFC Emerging Market database; World Federation of Exchanges; Datastream; Bank for International Settlements; and International Finance Corporation.





#### **Bond characteristics**

- Issuers
  - Governments or sovereigns
    - US Treasuries:
      - "Bills" < 1 yr maturity</p>
      - "Notes" between 1 and 10 year maturities
      - "Bonds" > 10 maturity
    - UK bonds are called "gilts"
  - Corporations (investment grade vs. junk)
  - Municipalities (usually tax-advantaged)
  - Structured Finance
    - Mortgage backed securities (MBS)
    - Collateralized default obligations (CDOs)



# **Trading**

- Over the Counter (OTC) search markets
  - Intermediated via broker-dealers
  - Buyers and sellers are usually large institutional investors who hold long-term
    - e.g. insurance companies and pension funds
- Illiquid, high transaction costs
  - SEC mandated TRACE (post-trade transparency) hopefully is leading to more liquidity and competitive pricing

#### **Bond characteristics**

- Credit Ratings
  - Moody's, Standard and Poor's, Fitch

Grade	Risk	Moody's	S&P/Fitch
Investment	Quality Highest	Aaa	AAA
Investment	High Quality	AA	Aa
Investment	Strong	Α	Α
Investment	Medium Grade	Baa	BBB
Junk	Speculative	Ba.B	BB,B
Junk	Highly Speculative	Caa/Ca/C	CCC/CC/C
Junk	In Default	С	D

$$P_B = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{C}{(1+y)^t} + \frac{Par}{(1+y)^T}$$

- 1. Par = Par Value (or Face Value)
  - the cash you get paid at maturity T (e.g., \$1000)
- 2. C = Coupon Rate
  - e.g., 5% semi-annually (meaning \$25 paid twice a year)
  - in this class, we'll assume everything is annual for simplicity
  - In practice, coupon could also be floating or inflation-indexed
- 3. y = yield to maturity (i.e. the discount rate)
  - The effective interest rate of the bond
  - Which is determined by market forces and varies over time



# An example

 What is the price of a 5% coupon bond (Par = \$1000) making <u>annual</u> coupon payments if it has 5 years until maturity and YTM of 6%?

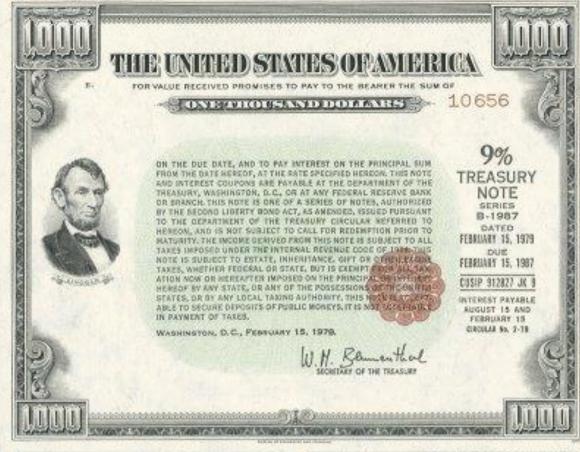
Years	Cash Flow	Discounted Cash Flow
1	50	47.17
2	50	44.50
3	50	41.98
4	50	39.60
5	1050	784.62
	SUM:	957.88



# **Bond pricing**

- 4. Extra Features/Provisions will affect pricing
  - Secured v. unsecured
  - Priority in bankruptcy (junior vs. senior)
  - Options:
    - Call provisions
    - Pre-payment option
  - Convertibility (into equity)





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#### Coupons





# **Yield to maturity (YTM)**

- $y^* = YTM$ 
  - Interest rate that makes the present value of the bond's payments equal to its price

$$P_B = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{C}{(1+y^*)^t} + \frac{Par}{(1+y^*)^T}$$

Where P<sub>B</sub> is the observed bond price

# Yield to maturity (YTM)

- Example:
  - What's the YTM of a bond with 10yr maturity, 7% coupon, face value of 1000, semi-annual payments, and a price of 950?

$$950 = \sum_{t=1}^{20} \frac{35}{(1+y)^{t/2}} + \frac{1000}{(1+y)^{10}}$$

- y = 7.12%
  - Have to solve by guess-and-check

# **Yield to maturity (YTM)**

- Consider a 1-yr bond:
  - -P = 900, Par = 1000, C = 50
- The return (YTM) comes from two sources:
  - 1. The discount
    - Since you buy at P=900, get paid Par=1000 in a year:
    - Return = (1000-900)/1000 = 11.1%
  - 2. The coupon
    - You get a coupon C=50 in a year on a price of 900
    - Coupon yield = 50/900 = 5.6%
  - Total return = YTM = 11.1% + 5.6% = 16.7%

# **Another example**

- 10-year bond, face value = \$1000
- C = semi-annual 8% coupon
- YTM = 6% annualized

$$P = \sum_{t=1}^{20} \frac{40}{1.06^{t/2}} + \frac{1000}{1.06^{10}} = 1155.9$$

- Decomposing the YTM
  - 10-year coupon return =  $\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{20} 40*1.06^{t/2}}{1155.9}$  = 92.6%
  - 10-year capital gain =  $(\frac{1000-1155.9}{1155.9}) = -13.6\%$
  - 10-year total return = 92.6% + (-13.6%) = 79.0%
  - YTM = (1 + 10-year total return)<sup>1/10</sup> 1 = 6%

#### **Facts about YTM**

- 1. When p = par
  - Then: YTM = the coupon rate
  - Because only source of returns is the coupon
- 2. For a zero-coupon bond
  - Then: YTM =  $\sqrt[T]{(p / par)}$  1
    - because the only source of returns is the discount
  - For example, if p=90, par = 100 on a zero-coupon bond:
    - Then YTM would be  $\frac{100}{90} 1 \approx 11\%$
- 3. If p < par, then coupon rate < YTM (& vice versa)

#### Main risks with bonds

#### Interest rate risk

When interest rates rise, the YTM of all bonds must rise (by no arbitrage), so the bond price will fall

#### 2. Inflation risk

Fixed, nominal coupon payments are less valuable if there's an increase in inflation

#### 3. Credit risk

Borrower goes bankrupt, doesn't repay loan

#### 4. Pre-payment risk

- If interest rates fall, borrower will prepay their loans by re-financing at a lower interest rate
- You no longer get the high interest payments you were receiving

#### Interest rate risk

A simple example with a "perpetuity" (an infinite maturity bond)

#### Before:

- Market interest rates = 5%
- $C = 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, \dots$
- P must be 100
- To make YTM = 5 / 100 = 5% equal to the going market rate

#### After:

- Market interest rates increase to 10%
- C is unchanged = 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, ....
- So P must fall: P = 50
- To make YTM = 5 / 50 = 10% equal to the going market rate

#### Interest rate risk

$$P_B = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{C}{(1+y)^t} + \frac{Par}{(1+y)^T}$$

 Easy to see that, in general, y and P are inversely related

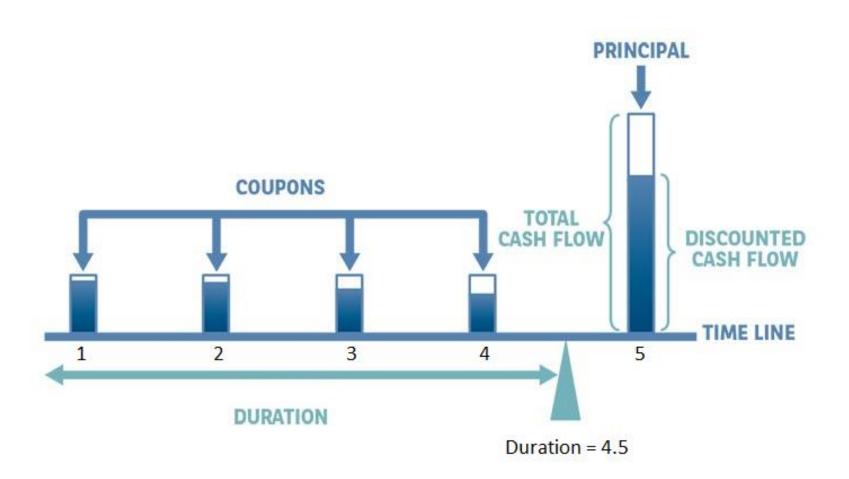
So when market rates (and thus y) go up,
 P must go down

Modified duration:

$$D = \frac{1}{(1+y)} \sum_{t=1}^{T} t \frac{Cashflows_t/(1+y)^t}{P}$$
Discounted value weights

- Intuitively, it's the average time (weighted by the discounted-value of when the cash gets paid out)
  - And divided by (1+y) we'll see in a bit why
- Cashflows<sub>t</sub> here represents both coupon payments and principal repayment (par value).





Some facts about duration:

1. For a zero-coupon bond:

(modified duration) = 
$$\frac{1}{(1+y)}$$
 \* (maturity)

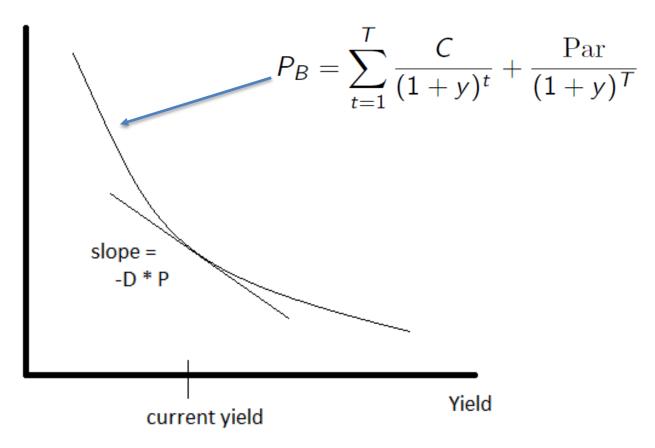
- 2. Holding everything else fixed, duration:
  - increases with maturity
  - decreases with higher coupon rate
  - decreases with higher YTM

 But the most important thing about duration is that it's also the interest rate risk:

$$\frac{1}{P}\frac{dP}{dy} = -D$$
Bond return

- D = modified duration
- Higher duration bonds will be hit harder if interest rates rise

#### Bond price



# A proof

1. Start with the standard bond pricing formula:

$$P = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{Cashflows_t}{(1+y)^t}$$

2. Differentiate with respect to y:

$$\frac{dP}{dy} = -\frac{1}{(1+y)} \sum_{t=1}^{T} t \frac{Cashflows_t}{(1+y)^t}$$

3. Divide both sides by P and recognize that the RHS is -D:

$$\frac{1}{P}\frac{dP}{dy} = -\frac{1}{(1+y)}\sum_{t=1}^{T} t \frac{\frac{Cashflows_t}{(1+y)^t}}{P} = -D$$

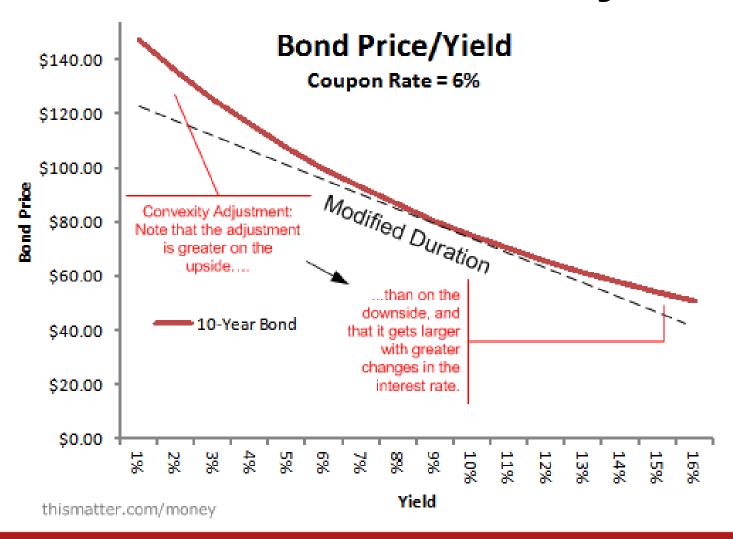
# Approximation of the bond pricing curve

Linear approximation:

bond return = 
$$\frac{\Delta P}{P}$$
 =  $-D \cdot \Delta y$ 



# **Duration & Convexity**



# Approximation of the bond pricing curve

Linear approximation:

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$$\frac{\Delta P}{P}$$
 =  $-D \cdot \Delta y$ 

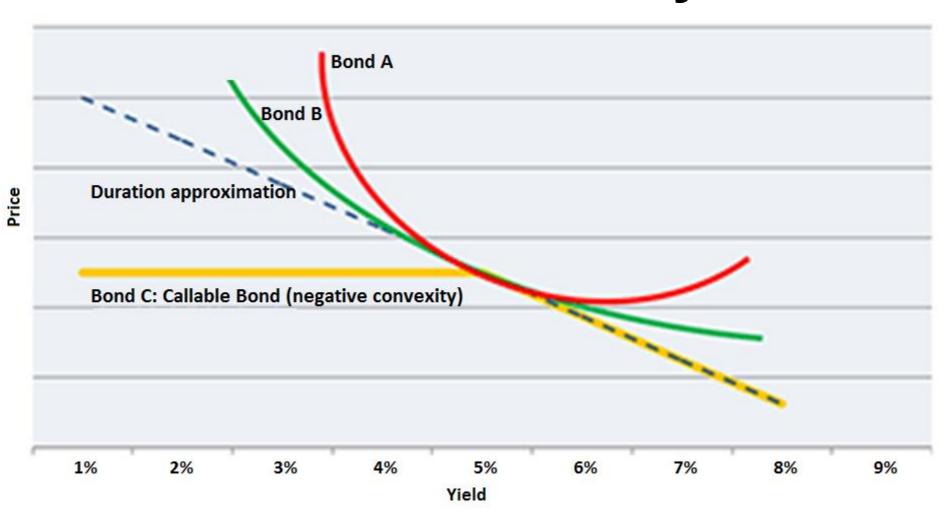
Quadratic approximation

bond return = 
$$\frac{\Delta P}{P} = -D \cdot \Delta y + \frac{1}{2} \text{ Convexity} \cdot (\Delta y)^2$$

where Convexity = 
$$\frac{1}{P} \frac{d^2 P}{dy^2}$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{(1+y)^2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} t(t+1) \frac{Cashflows_t/(1+y)^t}{P}$ 



# Various convexity





#### What is the actual safe asset?

"If one uses conventional mean-variance analysis, it is hard to explain why any investors hold large positions in bonds. Mean-variance analysis treats cash as the riskless asset and bonds as merely another risky asset like stocks. Bonds are valued only for their potential contribution to the short-run excess return, relative to risk, of a diversified risky portfolio. ...

"A long-horizon analysis treats bonds very differently, and assigns them a much more important role in the optimal portfolio. For long-term investors, [long-term bonds are the riskless asset] and money market investments are not riskless because they must be rolled over at uncertain future interest rates."

John Campbell and Luis Viceira, Strategic Asset Allocation

#### Interest rate risk

Recall the simple example with a "perpetuity" (an infinite maturity bond)

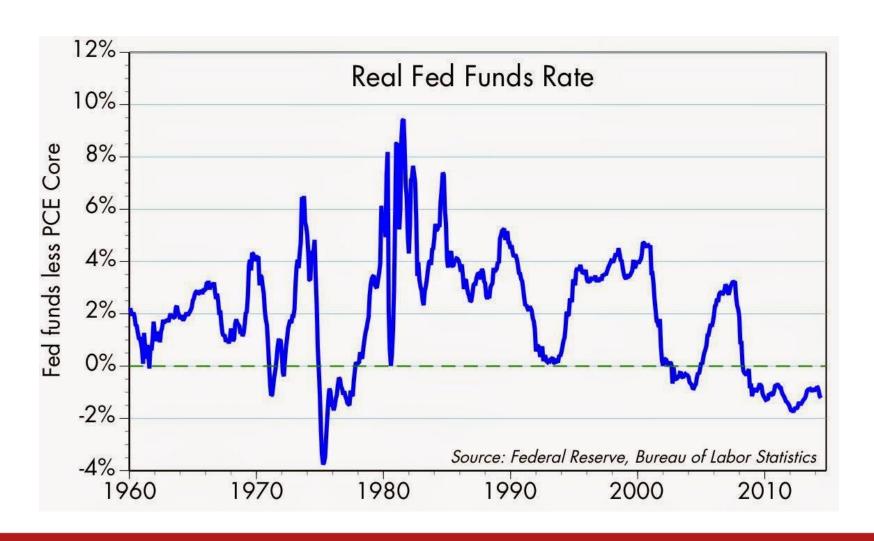
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#### The riskiness of the risk-free rate



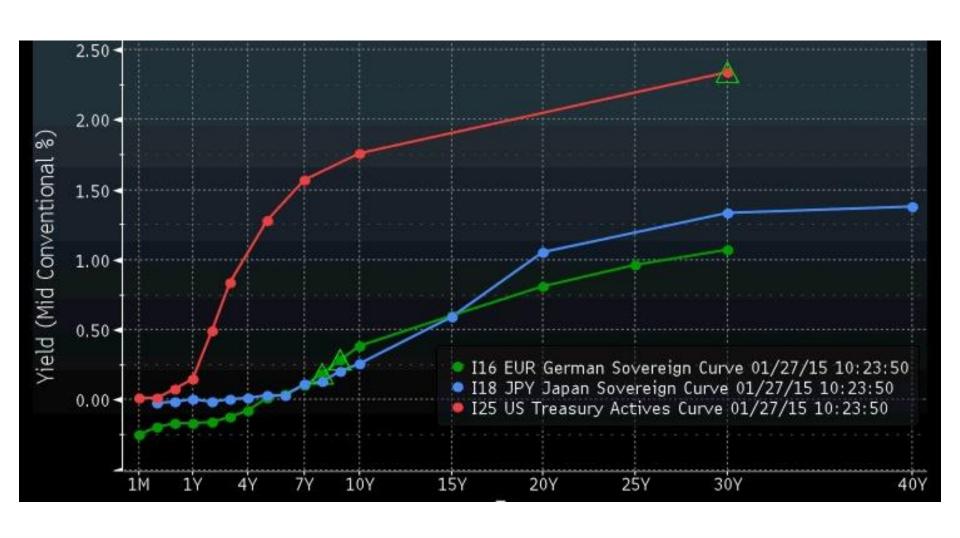


# THE TERM STRUCTURE OF INTEREST RATES

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#### Term structure of interest rates



# The Expectations Hypothesis

Consider two ways to invest for 2 years:

- Buy and hold 2-year bond
- 2. Buy 1-year bond and reinvest proceeds in another 1-year zero one year from now (i.e. roll it over)
- By No-Arbitrage Pricing:

$$(1+r_{0,2})^2 = (1+r_{0,1})(1+Er_{1,2})$$

- $r_{0.1} =$ one-year bond yield
- $r_{0.2} = two-year bond yield$
- $Er_{1,2}$  = expected one-year bond yield a year from now

# The Expectations Hypothesis

In general,

$$(1+r_{0,n})^n = (1+r_{0,n-i})^{n-i} (1+Er_{n-i,n})^i$$

- $r_{0,n} = n$ -year bond yield
- Er<sub>n-i,n</sub> = expected i-year bond yield (n-i) years from now
- So long-term rates should predict the forward path of short-term rates

## An example

- Inverted yield curve:
  - -1yr = 12%, 2yr = 11.75%, 3yr = 11.25%, 4yr = 10%, 5yr = 9.25%
- Then, expected forward rates are:
  - $-Er_{1.2} = [(1.1175)^2 / 1.12] 1 = 11.5\%$
  - $Er_{2.3} = [(1.1125)^3 / (1.1175)^2] = 10.3\%$
  - $Er_{3.4} = [(1.1)^4 / (1.1125)^3] = 6.3\%$
  - $Er_{4.5} = [(1.0925)^5 / (1.11)^4] = 6.3\%$

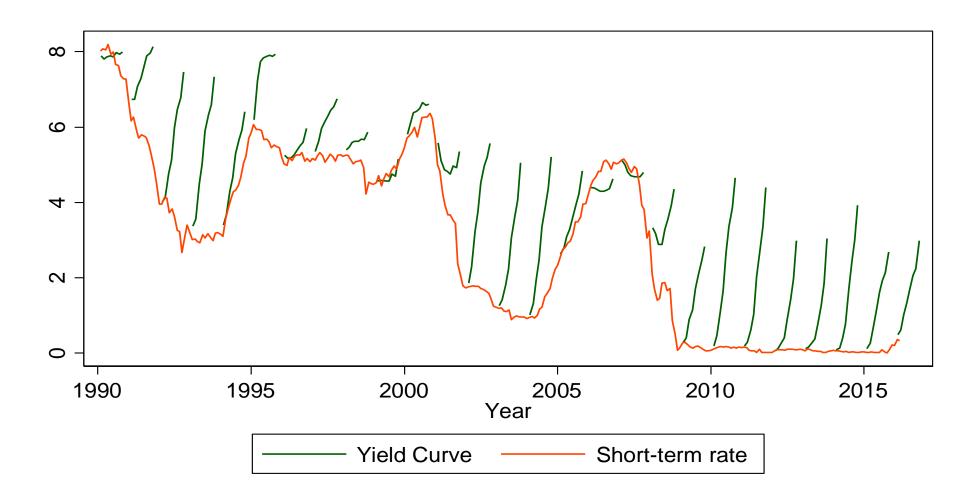


#### Term structure of interest rates

The Expectations Hypothesis (the benchmark):

 Downward (upward) sloping means expectation for future interest rates to be falling (rising)

# The Expectations Hypothesis





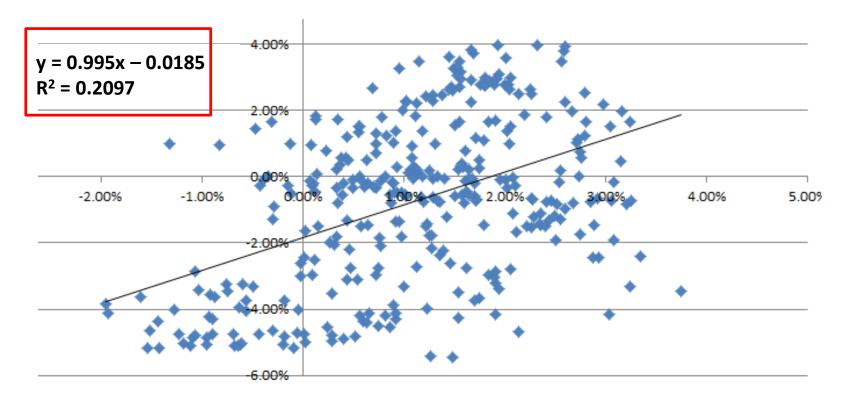
#### Term structure of interest rates

#### **Deviations from the Expectations Hypothesis:**

- Term premium:
  - "liquidity premium": Long-term bonds less liquid and pay a higher interest rates relative to the Expectations Hypothesis
  - "safety premium": Short-term bonds are like cash and pay a lower interest rates relative to the Expectations Hypoth.
- Habitat hypothesis:
  - Markets are somewhat segmented; different types of investors buy/trade long-term vs. short-term bonds
    - Long-term bonds: pension funds, insurance companies
    - Short-term bonds: individual investors, corporate cash holdings

# Actual 2-year change in interest rates

# Actual vs. predicted short-rates (2-years-ahead, 1984-2012)



Predicted 2-years-ahead short-rate based on the yield curve