

About this document

The material in this document follows directly the handwritten lecture notes from the course in “Finance, Risk and Uncertainty” at UoE. The last 3 diagrams are my original work and are meant to illustrate what I found unclear at first.

Intro

What can a corporate do about risk?

1. Do nothing (unhedge)

Possible reasons include:

- would be too expensive
- high risk tolerance (e.g. high expected value)
- risk is not *material* (significant)
- they “think” the underlying assets will move in their favour (speculation)

2. Internal hedging

Structure the bank/company so to internally remove risk.

3. Hedge, i.e. (partially) remove risk

Gives *certainty* which aids planning. Some instruments are:

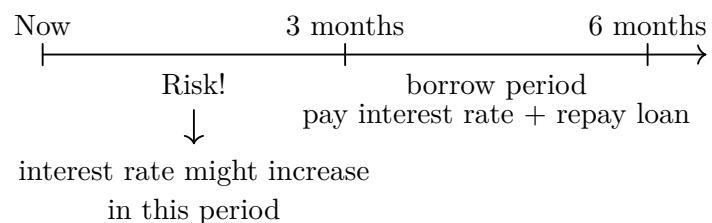
Forwards	Futures	Options
2 parties “Over the counter”	traded on Exchanges	give certainty + ability to benefit from favourable movements
custom contract	standardized contract	
limited liquidity	high liquidity can trade at any time	

Zero cost

Non-zero cost

Case

A UK company needs to borrow £100M for 3 months in 3 months.



Official interest rates

- These rates are
 - **inter-bank**, not for the public
 - **floating / variable**
 - given **per annum**, even those for 3 or 6 months
- **Risk** is that interest rates *increase*
- might either fall or increase in 3 months

Quoted in pairs¹: (0.65 – 0.55)
Libor² Borrow rate Libid³ Investment rate

(see handout, page 12)

¹Sometimes quoted in opposite order. The meaning is always such as to benefit the party giving the rates: it sells high and buys low.

²London Inter-Bank Offered Rate

³London Interbank Bid Rate

- Companies may *think* they will fall — this is a *speculation*.

Thus they *think* they know better than what the market thinks (the rates in the market reflect what the market thinks).

Due to **higher risk of default**, the effective interest rate the UK company will pay actually is

$$\text{base rate} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{risk premium} \\ (\text{reference rate}) \quad \quad (\text{default rate}), \end{array}$$

i.e. has an extra due to the **borrower's riskiness**.

Hedge strategies

Assume the company wants *certainty* in the interest rate cost, i.e. a 100% hedge.

(it might think Libor is going to rise)

One choice would be a *fixed-rate loan*, but these are not often offered in real life.

Two ways to achieve this are *forwards* and *futures*. In the context of *interest rates*⁴, these are called

Forward Rate Agreement (FRA) (Forward)	and	Interest Rate Future (IRF) (Future)
---	-----	--

We now look at both.

Forward Rate Agreements

- An agreement on the future rate (Libor)
- Signed with another party, usually an intermediate
Not necessarily the loan issuer!
- Firm and binding
Cannot change your mind if odds are not in your favour!
- A **gamble on its own**, a speculation.
There's a *winner* and a *loser*.

FRA Dealer
Offers sample

3 v 6	0.6% — 0.5%
6 v 9	0.74% — 0.62%
9 v 12	0.8% — 0.7%

Combined, though, (FRA + borrow) is a **hedge**: the *gain/loss* of the borrowing is offset by the *loss/gain* of the FRA. See Figure 1 for how that works in our case with a FRA rate of 0.6% in two scenarios: rates falling to 0.5% and rising to 1% at point of payment.

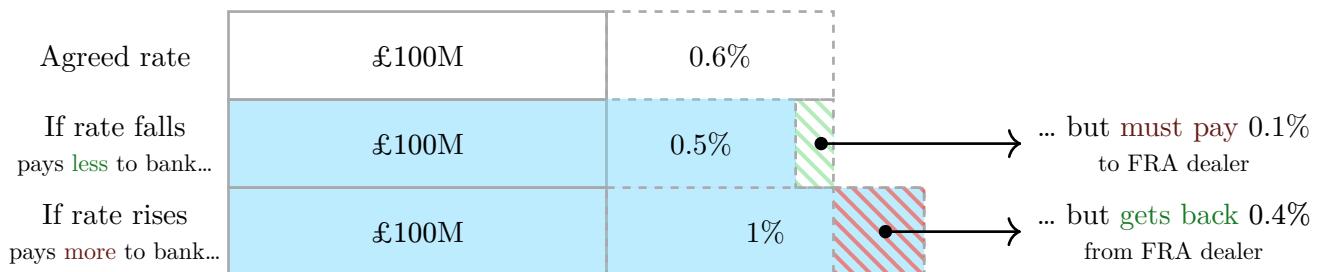


Figure 1: FRA as a hedge mechanism

In both cases, the UK company pays the loan back at the market rate — 0.5% or 1% (plus risk premium), blued out, the net cash flow is 0.6% fixed in the FRA.

The setup of the hedge is spelled out fully as

⁴and not e.g. in the context of currency

Forward Rate Agreement setup

Buy or Sell	Buy (see below)
Amount	£100M due to 100% hedging policy
Rate	0.6%
Time period	3 versus 6 <i>start month v end month</i>

See Figure 2 for the cash flows spelled explicitly in the two cases: when the actual rate falls to 0.5% and rises to 1%, the agreed one being 0.6%:

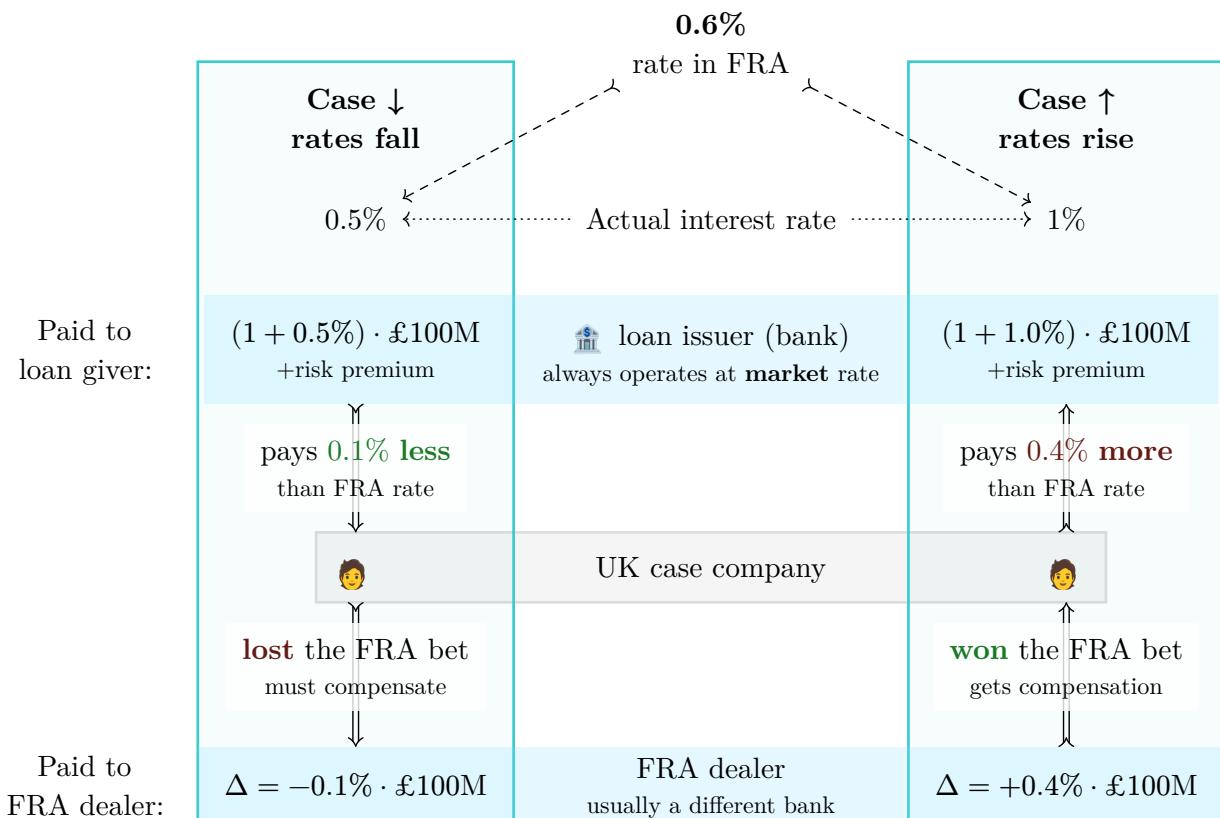


Figure 2: FRA cash flows from (UK company) borrower's point of view

The party compensated for **Rise** of interest rates is said to **Buy** the FRA contract, usually a **Borrower**. The party compensated for **Fall** of interest rates is said to **Sell** the FRA contract, usually a **Investor**.

Interest Rate Futures

Same principle as FRAs.

Traded on exchanges, contracts with standardized

- time period
fixed start month and length
- contract size
notional amount covered by the contract
- rates
 - shown value is $(100 - \text{rate})$ instead,
and is colloquially called “price”⁵

Interest rates futures sample 2004

	Start	Open	Sett
Sterling 3m	Mar	99.44	99.44
Sterling 3m	Jun	99.43	99.43
Sterling 3m	Nov	99.42	99.41

Contract size: £500 000

Spread: 2.8%

(see handout, page 14)

- usually shown is the *average* between buy/sell
have to take the *spread* into account

Assume the example case is set in January, so the £100M borrow lasts Mar-Jun. For the UK case company we are interested in the *Sterling 3m March* future, column Sett.

With a quoted price of 99.4 and spread 2.8, the meaning of the prices is as follows:

	At the price	99.3	99.58
Exchange is said to	buy (cheap)	sell (expensive)	
The exchange compensates	fall of IRF price	rise of IRF price	
	rise in interest rates		fall in interest rates

Hedge setup	
Interest Rate Futures	
Buy or sell	Sell
Amount	200 contracts
Length	3 months
Start	March
Price	99.3

Thus the case UK company that seeks compensations for **rising** rates needs to **sell** futures to the exchange and will use the *lower* price, **99.3**.

The future's contract size in £500k, so 100% hedging is achieved by buying

$$\frac{\text{£100M}}{\text{£500k}} = 200 \text{ contracts.}$$

Note: If the available periods or amounts do not fit, we have to split/partition.

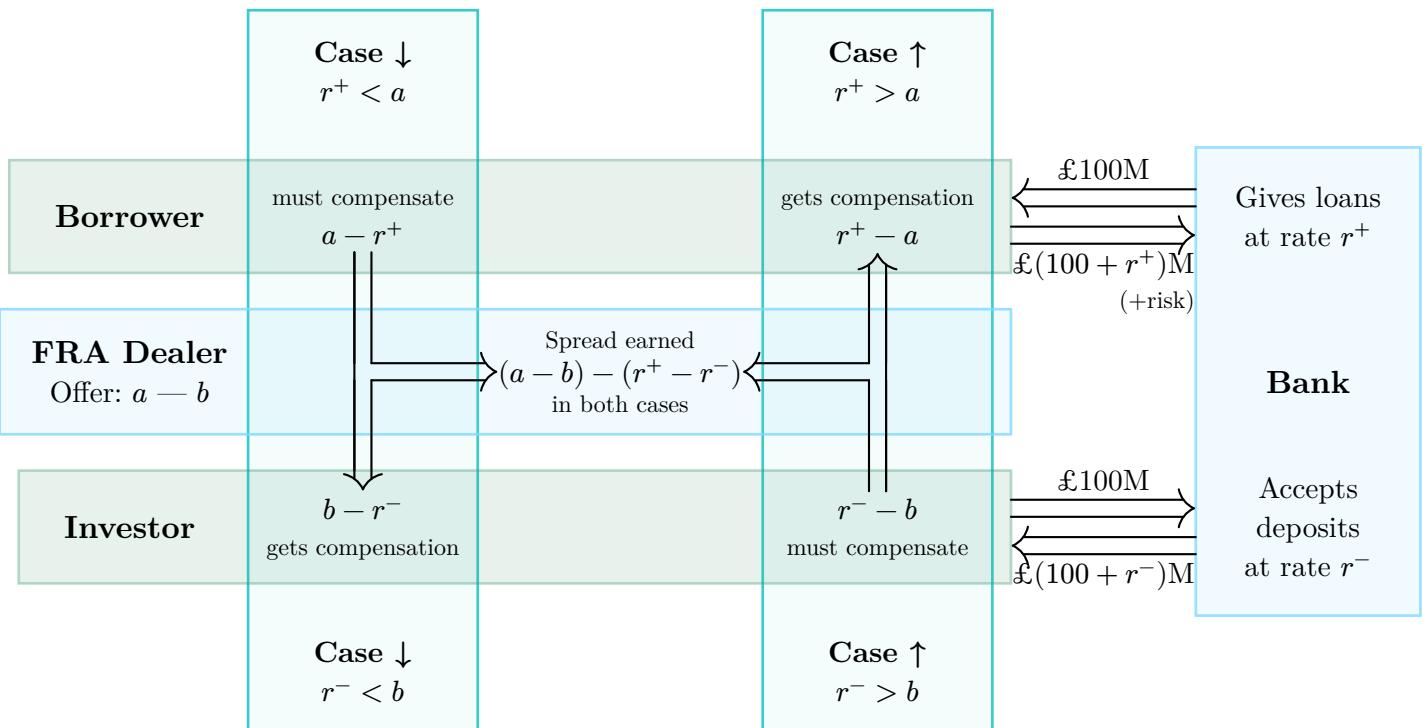


Figure 3: FRA all players and cash flows

⁵though no such amount of money is actually exchanged. Thus the “price” term here is more like a figure of speech.