Efficient Algorithms for PV and FV

- The PV of the cash flow $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n$ at times $1, 2, \ldots, n$ is
$$\frac{C_1}{1+y} + \frac{C_2}{(1+y)^2} + \cdots + \frac{C_n}{(1+y)^n}.$$
- This formula and its variations are the engine behind most of financial calculations.
  - What is y?
  - What are C_i?
  - What is n?
- It can be computed by the algorithm on p. 30.

Algorithm for Evaluating PV

```
x := 0;
d := 1 + y;
for i = n, n − 1, . . . , 1 do
    x := (x + C_i)/d;
end for
return x;
```


Horner's Rule: The Idea Behind p. 30

- This idea is
$$\left(\cdots \left(\left(\frac{C_n}{1+y} + C_{n-1} \right) \frac{1}{1+y} + C_{n-2} \right) \frac{1}{1+y} + \cdots \right) \frac{1}{1+y}.$$
  - Due to Horner (1786–1837) in 1819.
- The algorithm takes $O(n)$ time.
- It is the most efficient possible in terms of the absolute number of arithmetic operations.[a]

[a] Borodin and Munro (1975).

Conversion between Compounding Methods

- Suppose r_1 is the annual rate with continuous compounding.
- Suppose r_2 is the equivalent rate compounded m times per annum.
- How are they related?

Conversion between Compounding Methods (concluded)

- Both interest rates must produce the same amount of money after one year.
- That is,

$$\left(1+\frac{r_2}{m}\right)^m = e^{r_1}.$$

- Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} r_1 &= m \ln\left(1+\frac{r_2}{m}\right), \\ r_2 &= m\left(e^{r_1/m}-1\right). \end{aligned}$$

Annuities

- An annuity pays out the same C dollars at the end of each year for n years.
- With a rate of r, the FV at the end of the nth year is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} C(1+r)^i = C\,\frac{(1+r)^n-1}{r}. \tag{2}$$

General Annuities

- If m payments of C dollars each are received per year (the general annuity), then Eq. (2) becomes

$$C\,\frac{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{nm}-1}{\frac{r}{m}}.$$

- The PV of a general annuity is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{nm} C\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{-i} = C\,\frac{1-\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{-nm}}{\frac{r}{m}}. \tag{3}$$

Amortization

- It is a method of repaying a loan through regular payments of interest *and* principal.
- The size of the loan (the original balance) is reduced by the principal part of each payment.
- The interest part of each payment pays the interest incurred on the remaining principal balance.
- As the principal gets paid down over the term of the loan, the interest part of the payment diminishes.

Example: Home Mortgage

- By paying down the principal consistently, the risk to the lender is lowered.
- When the borrower sells the house, the remaining principal is due the lender.
- Consider the equal-payment case, i.e., fixed-rate, level-payment, fully amortized mortgages.
  - They are called traditional mortgages in the U.S.

A Numerical Example

- Consider a 15-year, \$250,000 loan at 8.0% interest rate.
- Solving Eq. (3) on p. 35 with $\text{PV} = 250000$, $n = 15$, $m = 12$, and $r = 0.08$ gives a monthly payment of $C = 2389.13$.
- The amortization schedule is shown on p. 39.
- In every month (1) the principal and interest parts add up to \$2,389.13, (2) the remaining principal is reduced by the amount indicated under the Principal heading, and (3) the interest is computed by multiplying the remaining balance of the previous month by 0.08/12.

Month	Payment	Interest	Principal	Remaining principal
				250,000.000
1	2,389.13	1,666.667	722.464	249,277.536
2	2,389.13	1,661.850	727.280	248,550.256
3	2,389.13	1,657.002	732.129	247,818.128
		···		
178	2,389.13	47.153	2,341.980	4,730.899
179	2,389.13	31.539	2,357.591	2,373.308
180	2,389.13	15.822	2,373.308	0.000
Total	430,043.438	180,043.438	250,000.000	

Method 1 of Calculating the Remaining Principal

- Go down the amortization schedule until you reach the particular month you are interested in.
  - A month's principal payment equals the monthly payment subtracted by the previous month's remaining principal times the monthly interest rate.
  - A month's remaining principal equals the previous month's remaining principal subtracted by the principal payment calculated above.

Method 1 of Calculating the Remaining Principal (concluded)

- This method is relatively slow but is universal in its applicability.
- It can, for example, accommodate prepayment and variable interest rates.

Method 2 of Calculating the Remaining Principal

- Right after the kth payment, the remaining principal is the PV of the future $nm-k$ cash flows,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{nm-k} C\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{-i} = C\,\frac{1-\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{-nm+k}}{\frac{r}{m}}.$$

- This method is faster but more limited in applications.

Yields

- The term yield denotes the return of investment.
- Two widely used yields are the bond equivalent yield (BEY) and the mortgage equivalent yield (MEY).
- BEY corresponds to the r in Eq. (1) on p. 23 that equates PV with FV when $m = 2$.
- MEY corresponds to the r in Eq. (1) on p. 23 that equates PV with FV when $m = 12$.

Internal Rate of Return (IRR)

- It is the interest rate which equates an investment's PV with its price P,

$$P = \frac{C_1}{(1+y)} + \frac{C_2}{(1+y)^2} + \frac{C_3}{(1+y)^3} + \cdots + \frac{C_n}{(1+y)^n}.$$

- The above formula is the foundation upon which pricing methodologies are built.

Numerical Methods for Yields

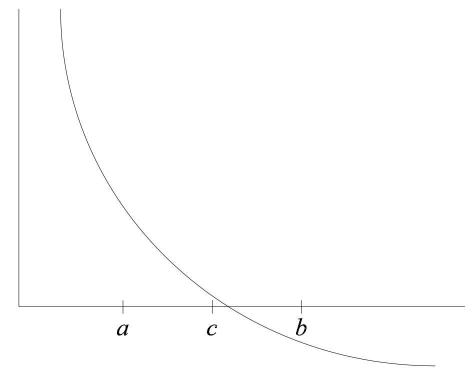
- Solve $f(y) = 0$ for $y \geq -1$, where

$$f(y) \equiv \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{C_t}{(1+y)^t} - P.$$

  – P is the market price.
- The function $f(y)$ is monotonic in y if $C_t > 0$ for all t.
- A unique solution exists for a monotonic $f(y)$.

The Bisection Method

- Start with a and b where $a < b$ and $f(a)\, f(b) < 0$.
- Then $f(\xi)$ must be zero for some $\xi \in [\,a, b\,]$.
- If we evaluate f at the midpoint $c \equiv (a+b)/2$, either (1) $f(c) = 0$, (2) $f(a)\, f(c) < 0$, or (3) $f(c)\, f(b) < 0$.
- In the first case we are done, in the second case we continue the process with the new bracket $[\,a, c\,]$, and in the third case we continue with $[\,c, b\,]$.
- The bracket is halved in the latter two cases.
- After n steps, we will have confined ξ within a bracket of length $(b-a)/2^n$.



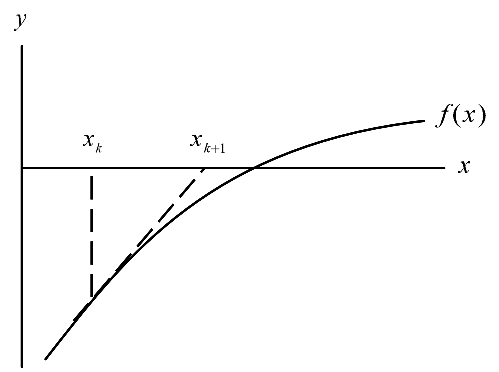
The Newton-Raphson Method

- Converges faster than the bisection method.
- Start with a first approximation x_0 to a root of $f(x) = 0$.
- Then

$$x_{k+1} \equiv x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}.$$

- When computing yields,

$$f'(x) = -\sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{tC_t}{(1+x)^{t+1}}.$$



The Secant Method

- A variant of the Newton-Raphson method.
- Replace differentiation with difference.
- Start with two approximations x_0 and x_1.
- Then compute the $(k+1)$st approximation with

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)(x_k - x_{k-1})}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})}.$$

The Secant Method (concluded)

- Its convergence rate, 1.618.
- This is slightly worse than the Newton-Raphson method's 2.
- But the secant method does not need to evaluate $f'(x_k)$ needed by the Newton-Raphson method.
- This saves about 50% in computation efforts per iteration.
- The convergence rate of the bisection method is 1.

Solving Systems of Nonlinear Equations

- It is not easy to extend the bisection method to higher dimensions.
- But the Newton-Raphson method can be extended to higher dimensions.
- Let (x_k, y_k) be the kth approximation to the solution of the two simultaneous equations,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x,y) &= 0, \\ g(x,y) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Solving Systems of Nonlinear Equations (concluded)

- The $(k+1)$st approximation (x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) satisfies the following linear equations,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_k,y_k)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f(x_k,y_k)}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial g(x_k,y_k)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g(x_k,y_k)}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{k+1} \\ \Delta y_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} f(x_k, y_k) \\ g(x_k, y_k) \end{bmatrix},$$

  where $\Delta x_{k+1} \equiv x_{k+1} - x_k$ and $\Delta y_{k+1} \equiv y_{k+1} - y_k$.
- The above has a unique solution for $(\Delta x_{k+1}, \Delta y_{k+1})$ when the 2×2 matrix is invertible.
- Set $(x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) = (x_k + \Delta x_{k+1}, y_k + \Delta y_{k+1})$.

Zero-Coupon Bonds (Pure Discount Bonds)

- The price of a zero-coupon bond that pays F dollars in n periods is

$$F/(1+r)^n,$$

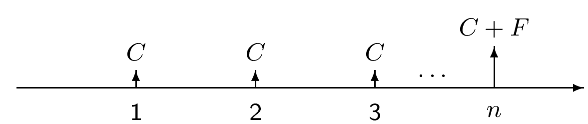
  where r is the interest rate per period.
- Can meet future obligations without reinvestment risk.

Example

- The interest rate is 8% compounded semiannually.
- A zero-coupon bond that pays the par value 20 years from now will be priced at $1/(1.04)^{40}$, or 20.83%, of its par value.
- It will be quoted as 20.83.
- If the bond matures in 10 years instead of 20, its price would be 45.64.

Level-Coupon Bonds

- Coupon rate.
- Par value, paid at maturity.
- F denotes the par value, and C denotes the coupon.
- Cash flow:



- Coupon bonds can be thought of as a matching package of zero-coupon bonds, at least theoretically.

Pricing Formula

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C}{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{i}} + \frac{F}{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{n}} = C\,\frac{1-\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{-n}}{\frac{r}{m}} + \frac{F}{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{n}}. \tag{4}$$

- n: number of cash flows.
- m: number of payments per year.
- r: annual rate compounded m times per annum.
- $C = Fc/m$ when c is the annual coupon rate.
- Price P can be computed in $O(1)$ time.

Yields to Maturity

- It is the r that satisfies Eq. (4) on p. 57 with P being the bond price.
- For a 15% BEY, a 10-year bond with a coupon rate of 10% paid semiannually sells for

$$5 \times \frac{1-[\,1+(0.15/2)\,]^{-2\times 10}}{0.15/2} + \frac{100}{[\,1+(0.15/2)\,]^{2\times 10}} = 74.5138$$

percent of par.

Price Behavior (1)

- Bond prices fall when interest rates rise, and vice versa.
- "Only 24 percent answered the question correctly."[a]

[a] CNN, December 21, 2001.

Price Behavior (2)

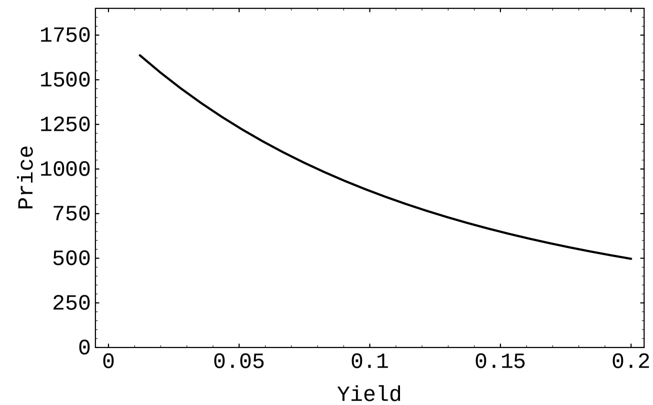
- A level-coupon bond sells
  - at a premium (above its par value) when its coupon rate is above the market interest rate;
  - at par (at its par value) when its coupon rate is equal to the market interest rate;
  - at a discount (below its par value) when its coupon rate is below the market interest rate.

Yield (%)	Price (% of par)
7.5	113.37
8.0	108.65
8.5	104.19
9.0	100.00
9.5	96.04
10.0	92.31
10.5	88.79

Terminology

- Bonds selling at par are called par bonds.
- Bonds selling at a premium are called premium bonds.
- Bonds selling at a discount are called discount bonds.

Price Behavior (3): Convexity



Day Count Conventions: Actual/Actual

- The first "actual" refers to the actual number of days in a month.
- The second refers to the actual number of days in a coupon period.
- The number of days between June 17, 1992, and October 1, 1992, is 106.
  - 13 days in June, 31 days in July, 31 days in August, 30 days in September, and 1 day in October.

Day Count Conventions: 30/360

- Each month has 30 days and each year 360 days.
- The number of days between June 17, 1992, and October 1, 1992, is 104.
  - 13 days in June, 30 days in July, 30 days in August, 30 days in September, and 1 day in October.
- In general, the number of days from date $D_1 \equiv (y_1, m_1, d_1)$ to date $D_2 \equiv (y_2, m_2, d_2)$ is

$$360 \times (y_2 - y_1) + 30 \times (m_2 - m_1) + (d_2 - d_1).$$

- Complications: 31, Feb 28, and Feb 29.

Full Price (Dirty Price, Invoice Price)

- In reality, the settlement date may fall on any day between two coupon payment dates.
- Let

$$\omega \equiv \frac{\text{number of days between the settlement and the next coupon payment date}}{\text{number of days in the coupon period}}. \tag{5}$$

- The price is now calculated by

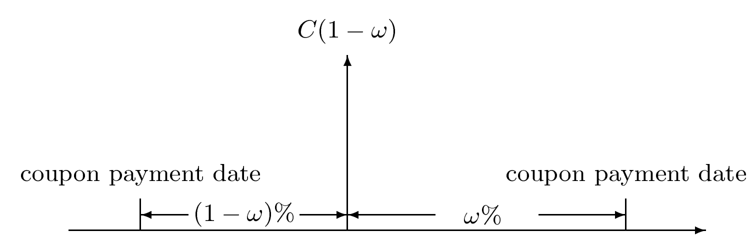
$$\text{PV} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{C}{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega+i}} + \frac{F}{\left(1+\frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega+n-1}}. \tag{6}$$

Accrued Interest

- The buyer pays the quoted price plus the accrued interest — the invoice price:

$$C \times \frac{\text{number of days from the last coupon payment to the settlement date}}{\text{number of days in the coupon period}} = C \times (1-\omega).$$

- The yield to maturity is the r satisfying (6) when P is the invoice price.
- The quoted price in the U.S./U.K. does not include the accrued interest; it is called the clean price or flat price.



Example ("30/360")

- A bond with a 10% coupon rate and paying interest semiannually, with clean price 111.2891.
- The maturity date is March 1, 1995, and the settlement date is July 1, 1993.
- There are 60 days between July 1, 1993, and the next coupon date, September 1, 1993.

Example ("30/360") (concluded)

- The accrued interest is $(10/2) \times \frac{180-60}{180} = 3.3333$ per \$100 of par value.
- The yield to maturity is 3%.
- This can be verified by Eq. (6) with $\omega = 60/180$, $m = 2$, $C = 5$, PV$= 111.2891 + 3.3333$, and $r = 0.03$.

Price Behavior (2) Revisited

- Before: A bond selling at par if the yield to maturity equals the coupon rate.
- But it assumed that the settlement date is on a coupon payment date.
- Now suppose the settlement date for a bond selling at par (i.e., the *quoted price* is equal to the par value) falls between two coupon payment dates.
- Then its yield to maturity is less than the coupon rate.
  - The short reason: Exponential growth is replaced by linear growth, hence "overpaying" the coupon.

Bond Price Volatility

"Well, Beethoven, what is this?"
— Attributed to Prince Anton Esterházy

Price Volatility

- Volatility measures how bond prices respond to interest rate changes.
- It is key to the risk management of interest-rate-sensitive securities.
- Assume level-coupon bonds throughout.

Price Volatility (concluded)

- What is the sensitivity of the percentage price change to changes in interest rates?
- Define price volatility by

$$-\frac{\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}}{P}.$$

Price Volatility of Bonds

- The price volatility of a coupon bond is

$$-\frac{(C/y)\,n-\left(C/y^2\right)\left((1+y)^{n+1}-(1+y)\right)-nF}{(C/y)\left((1+y)^{n+1}-(1+y)\right)+F(1+y)}.$$

  - F is the par value.
  - C is the coupon payment per period.
- For bonds without embedded options,

$$-\frac{\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}}{P}>0.$$

Macaulay Duration

- The Macaulay duration (MD) is a weighted average of the times to an asset's cash flows.
- The weights are the cash flows' PVs divided by the asset's price.
- Formally,

$$\text{MD} \equiv \frac{1}{P} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{iC_i}{(1+y)^i}.$$

- The Macaulay duration, in periods, is equal to

$$\text{MD} = -(1+y)\,\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\frac{1}{P}. \tag{7}$$

MD of Bonds

- The MD of a coupon bond is

$$\text{MD} = \frac{1}{P}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{iC}{(1+y)^i} + \frac{nF}{(1+y)^n}\right]. \tag{8}$$

- It can be simplified to

$$\text{MD} = \frac{c(1+y)\,[\,(1+y)^n - 1\,] + ny(y-c)}{cy\,[\,(1+y)^n - 1\,] + y^2},$$

where c is the period coupon rate.

- The MD of a zero-coupon bond equals its term to maturity n.
- The MD of a coupon bond is less than its maturity.