

# *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 here.

## 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

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

- $F$  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

$$\text{MD} = -(1+y) \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \frac{1}{P}. \quad (9)$$

## MD of Bonds

- The MD of a coupon bond is

$$\text{MD} = \frac{1}{P} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{iC}{(1+y)^i} + \frac{nF}{(1+y)^n} \right]. \quad (10)$$

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

## Remarks

- Equations (9) on p. 80 and (10) on p. 81 hold only if the coupon  $C$ , the par value  $F$ , and the maturity  $n$  are all independent of the yield  $y$ .
  - That is, if the cash flow is independent of yields.
- To see this point, suppose the market yield declines.
- The MD will be lengthened.
- But for securities whose maturity actually decreases as a result, the MD (*as originally defined*) may decrease.



## How Not To Think about MD

- The MD has its origin in measuring the length of time a bond investment is outstanding.
- But it should be seen mainly as measuring *price volatility*.
- Many, if not most, duration-related terminology cannot be comprehended otherwise.

## Conversion

- For the MD to be year-based, modify Eq. (10) on p. 81 to

$$\frac{1}{P} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{k} \frac{C}{\left(1 + \frac{y}{k}\right)^i} + \frac{n}{k} \frac{F}{\left(1 + \frac{y}{k}\right)^n} \right],$$

where  $y$  is the *annual* yield and  $k$  is the compounding frequency per annum.

- Equation (9) on p. 80 also becomes

$$\text{MD} = - \left(1 + \frac{y}{k}\right) \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \frac{1}{P}.$$

- By definition, MD (in years) =  $\frac{\text{MD (in periods)}}{k}$ .

## Modified Duration

- Modified duration is defined as

$$\text{modified duration} \equiv -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \frac{1}{P} = \frac{\text{MD}}{(1+y)}. \quad (11)$$

- By Taylor expansion,

percent price change  $\approx$   $-\text{modified duration} \times \text{yield change}$ .

## Example

- Consider a bond whose modified duration is 11.54 with a yield of 10%.
- If the yield increases instantaneously from 10% to 10.1%, the approximate percentage price change will be

$$-11.54 \times 0.001 = -0.01154 = -1.154\%.$$

## Modified Duration of a Portfolio

- The modified duration of a portfolio equals

$$\sum_i \omega_i D_i.$$

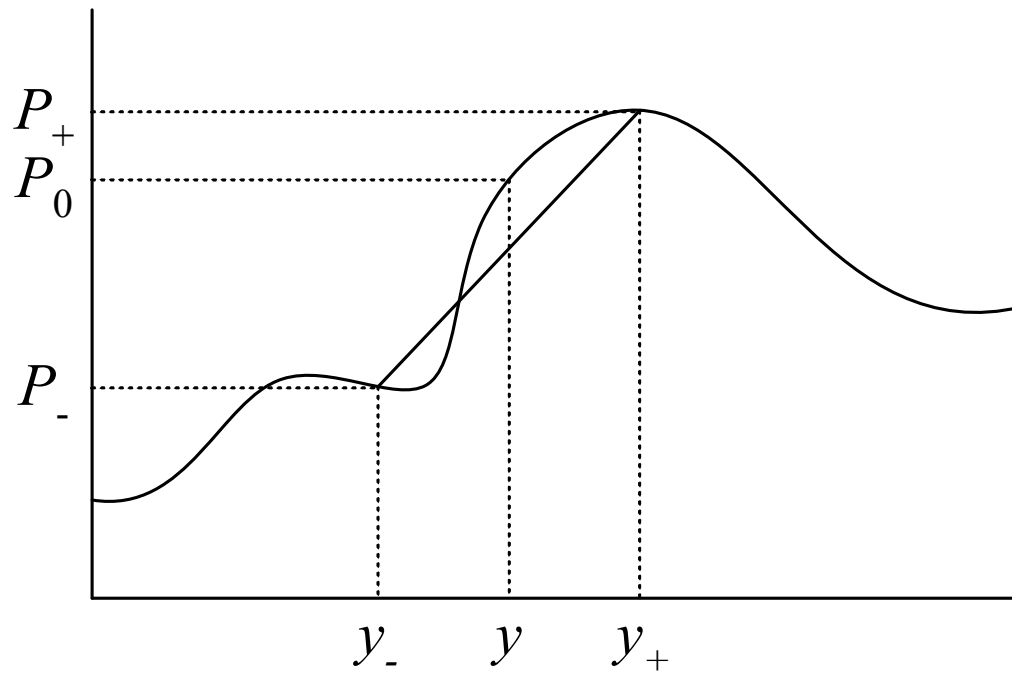
- $D_i$  is the modified duration of the  $i$ th asset.
- $\omega_i$  is the market value of that asset expressed as a percentage of the market value of the portfolio.

## Effective Duration

- Yield changes may alter the cash flow or the cash flow may be so complex that simple formulas are unavailable.
- We need a general numerical formula for volatility.
- The effective duration is defined as

$$\frac{P_- - P_+}{P_0(y_+ - y_-)}.$$

- $P_-$  is the price if the yield is decreased by  $\Delta y$ .
  - $P_+$  is the price if the yield is increased by  $\Delta y$ .
  - $P_0$  is the initial price,  $y$  is the initial yield.
  - $\Delta y$  is small.
- See plot on p. 89.



## Effective Duration (concluded)

- One can compute the effective duration of just about any financial instrument.
- Duration of a security can be longer than its maturity or negative!
- Neither makes sense under the maturity interpretation.
- An alternative is to use

$$\frac{P_0 - P_+}{P_0 \Delta y}.$$

- More economical but less accurate.



## The Practices

- Duration is usually expressed in percentage terms — call it  $D_{\%}$  — for quick mental calculation.
- The percentage price change expressed in percentage terms is approximated by

$$-D_{\%} \times \Delta r$$

when the yield increases instantaneously by  $\Delta r\%$ .

- Price will drop by 20% if  $D_{\%} = 10$  and  $\Delta r = 2$  because  $10 \times 2 = 20$ .

- In fact,  $D_{\%}$  equals modified duration as originally defined (prove it!).

## Hedging

- Hedging offsets the price fluctuations of the position to be hedged by the hedging instrument in the opposite direction, leaving the total wealth unchanged.
- Define dollar duration as

$$\text{modified duration} \times \text{price (\% of par)} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}.$$

- The approximate *dollar* price change per \$100 of par value is

$$\text{price change} \approx -\text{dollar duration} \times \text{yield change}.$$

## Convexity

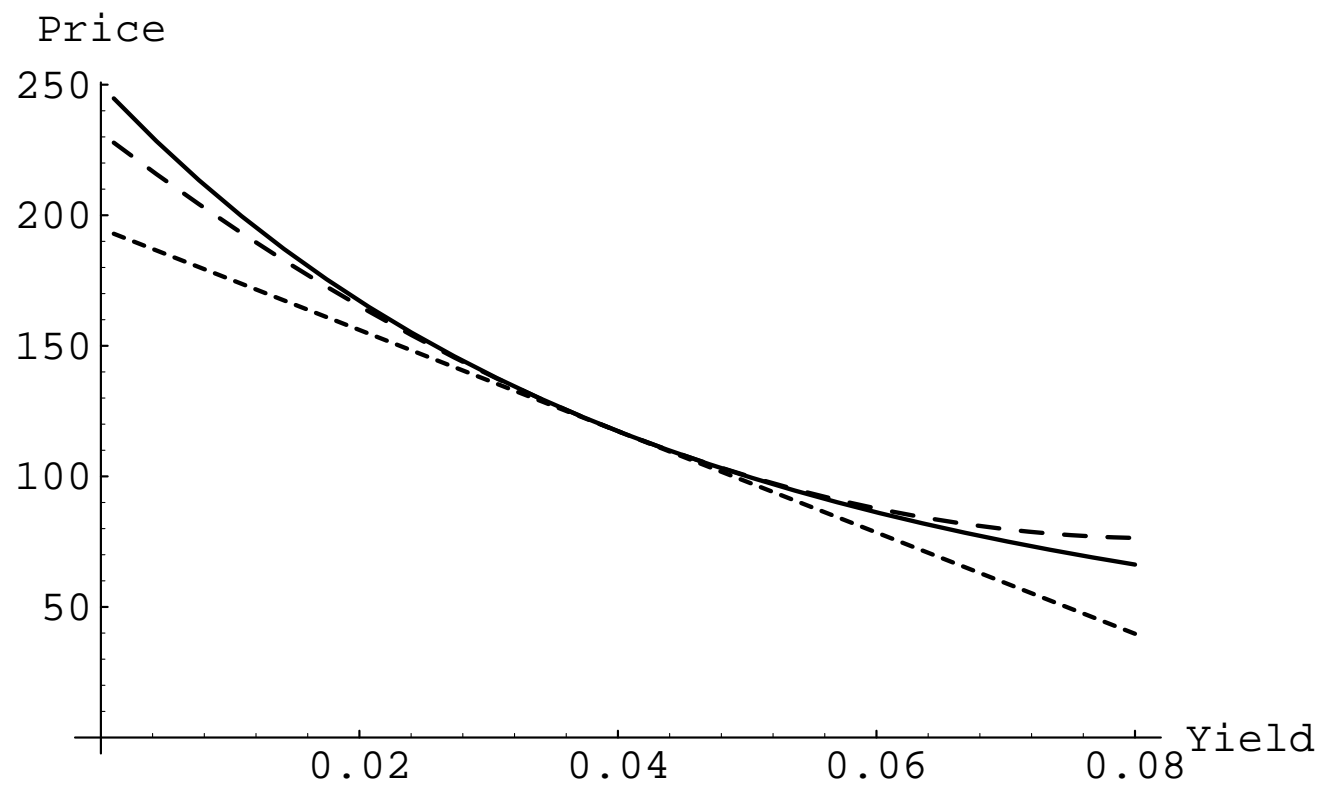
- Convexity is defined as

$$\text{convexity (in periods)} \equiv \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial y^2} \frac{1}{P}.$$

- The convexity of a coupon bond is positive (prove it!).
- For a bond with positive convexity, the price rises more for a rate decline than it falls for a rate increase of equal magnitude (see plot next page).
- So between two bonds with the same duration, the one with a higher convexity is more valuable.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Do you spot a problem?



## Convexity (concluded)

- Convexity measured in periods and convexity measured in years are related by

$$\text{convexity (in years)} = \frac{\text{convexity (in periods)}}{k^2}$$

when there are  $k$  periods per annum.

## Use of Convexity

- The approximation  $\Delta P/P \approx -\text{duration} \times \text{yield change}$  works for small yield changes.
- To improve upon it for larger yield changes, use

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\Delta P}{P} &\approx \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \frac{1}{P} \Delta y + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial y^2} \frac{1}{P} (\Delta y)^2 \\ &= -\text{duration} \times \Delta y + \frac{1}{2} \times \text{convexity} \times (\Delta y)^2.\end{aligned}$$

- Recall the figure on p. 94.

## The Practices

- Convexity is usually expressed in percentage terms — call it  $C\%$  — for quick mental calculation.
- The percentage price change expressed in percentage terms is approximated by  $-D\% \times \Delta r + C\% \times (\Delta r)^2/2$  when the yield increases instantaneously by  $\Delta r\%$ .
  - Price will drop by 17% if  $D\% = 10$ ,  $C\% = 1.5$ , and  $\Delta r = 2$  because
$$-10 \times 2 + \frac{1}{2} \times 1.5 \times 2^2 = -17.$$
- In fact,  $C\%$  equals convexity divided by 100 (prove it!).

## Effective Convexity

- The effective convexity is defined as

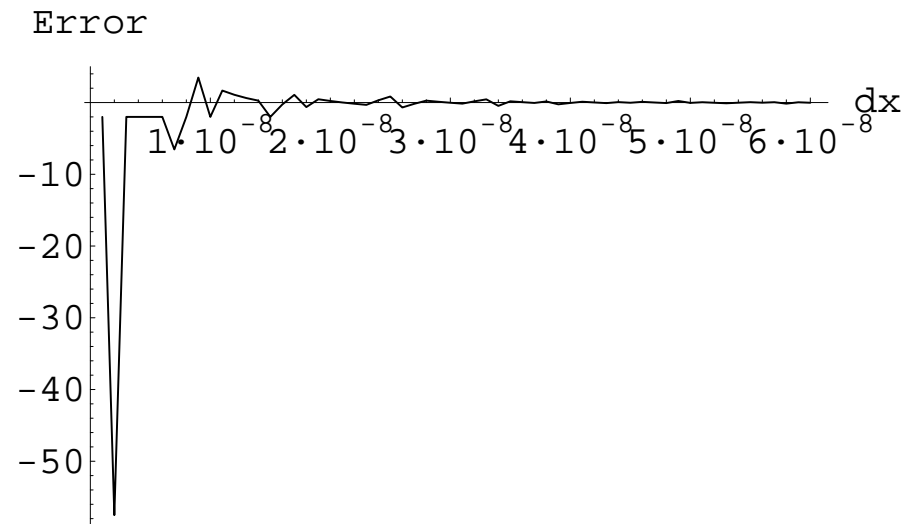
$$\frac{P_+ + P_- - 2P_0}{P_0 (0.5 \times (y_+ - y_-))^2},$$

- $P_-$  is the price if the yield is decreased by  $\Delta y$ .
  - $P_+$  is the price if the yield is increased by  $\Delta y$ .
  - $P_0$  is the initial price,  $y$  is the initial yield.
  - $\Delta y$  is small.
- Effective convexity is most relevant when a bond's cash flow is interest rate sensitive.
  - Numerically, choosing the right  $\Delta y$  is a delicate matter.



Approximate  $d^2 f(x)/dx^2$  at  $x = 1$ , Where  $f(x) = x^2$

The difference of  $((1 + \Delta x)^2 + (1 - \Delta x)^2 - 2)/(\Delta x)^2$  and 2:



# *Term Structure of Interest Rates*

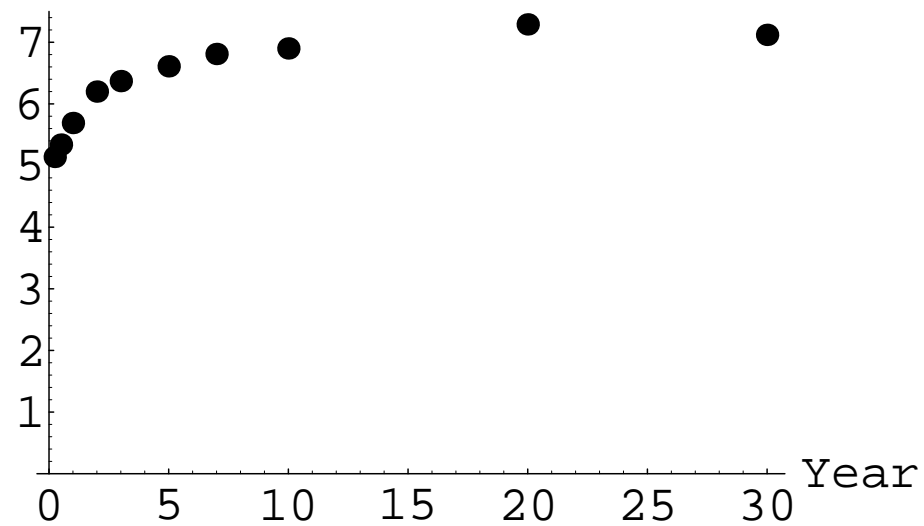
Why is it that the interest of money is lower,  
when money is plentiful?  
— Samuel Johnson (1709–1784)

If you have money, don't lend it at interest.  
Rather, give [it] to someone  
from whom you won't get it back.  
— Thomas Gospel 95

## Term Structure of Interest Rates

- Concerned with how interest rates change with maturity.
- The set of yields to maturity for bonds forms the term structure.
  - The bonds must be of equal quality.
  - They differ solely in their terms to maturity.
- The term structure is fundamental to the valuation of fixed-income securities.

Yield (%)



## Term Structure of Interest Rates (concluded)

- Term structure often refers exclusively to the yields of zero-coupon bonds.
- A yield curve plots yields to maturity against maturity.
- A par yield curve is constructed from bonds trading near par.

## Four Typical Shapes

- A normal yield curve is upward sloping.
- An inverted yield curve is downward sloping.
- A flat yield curve is flat.
- A humped yield curve is upward sloping at first but then turns downward sloping.

## Spot Rates

- The  $i$ -period spot rate  $S(i)$  is the yield to maturity of an  $i$ -period zero-coupon bond.
- The PV of one dollar  $i$  periods from now is

$$[1 + S(i)]^{-i}.$$

- The one-period spot rate is called the short rate.
- Spot rate curve: Plot of spot rates against maturity.



## Problems with the PV Formula

- In the bond price formula,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C}{(1+y)^i} + \frac{F}{(1+y)^n},$$

every cash flow is discounted at the same yield  $y$ .

- Consider two riskless bonds with different yields to maturity because of their different cash flow streams:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \frac{C}{(1+y_1)^i} + \frac{F}{(1+y_1)^{n_1}},$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \frac{C}{(1+y_2)^i} + \frac{F}{(1+y_2)^{n_2}}.$$

## Problems with the PV Formula (concluded)

- The yield-to-maturity methodology discounts their contemporaneous cash flows with different rates.
- But shouldn't they be discounted at the same rate?

## Spot Rate Discount Methodology

- A cash flow  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  is equivalent to a package of zero-coupon bonds with the  $i$ th bond paying  $C_i$  dollars at time  $i$ .
- So a level-coupon bond has the price

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C}{[1 + S(i)]^i} + \frac{F}{[1 + S(n)]^n}. \quad (12)$$

- This pricing method incorporates information from the term structure.
- Discount each cash flow at the corresponding spot rate.

## Discount Factors

- In general, any riskless security having a cash flow  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  should have a market price of

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i d(i).$$

- Above,  $d(i) \equiv [1 + S(i)]^{-i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are called discount factors.
- $d(i)$  is the PV of one dollar  $i$  periods from now.
- The discount factors are often interpolated to form a continuous function called the discount function.

## Extracting Spot Rates from Yield Curve

- Start with the short rate  $S(1)$ .
  - Note that short-term Treasuries are zero-coupon bonds.
- Compute  $S(2)$  from the two-period coupon bond price  $P$  by solving

$$P = \frac{C}{1 + S(1)} + \frac{C + 100}{[1 + S(2)]^2}.$$

## Extracting Spot Rates from Yield Curve (concluded)

- Inductively, we are given the market price  $P$  of the  $n$ -period coupon bond and  $S(1), S(2), \dots, S(n-1)$ .
- Then  $S(n)$  can be computed from Eq. (12) on p. 109, repeated below,

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C}{[1 + S(i)]^i} + \frac{F}{[1 + S(n)]^n}.$$

- The running time is  $O(n)$  (see text).
- The procedure is called bootstrapping.

## Some Problems

- Treasuries of the same maturity might be selling at different yields (the multiple cash flow problem).
- Some maturities might be missing from the data points (the incompleteness problem).
- Treasuries might not be of the same quality.
- Interpolation and fitting techniques are needed in practice to create a smooth spot rate curve.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Any economic justifications?

## Yield Spread

- Consider a *risky* bond with the cash flow  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  and selling for  $P$ .
- Were this bond riskless, it would fetch

$$P^* = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{C_t}{[1 + S(t)]^t}.$$

- Since risk must be compensated,  $P < P^*$ .
- Yield spread is the difference between the IRR of the risky bond and that of a riskless bond with comparable maturity.



## Static Spread

- The static spread is the amount  $s$  by which the spot rate curve has to shift in parallel to price the risky bond:

$$P = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{C_t}{[1 + s + S(t)]^t}.$$

- Unlike the yield spread, the static spread incorporates information from the term structure.

## Of Spot Rate Curve and Yield Curve

- $y_k$ : yield to maturity for the  $k$ -period coupon bond.
- $S(k) \geq y_k$  if  $y_1 < y_2 < \dots$  (yield curve is normal).
- $S(k) \leq y_k$  if  $y_1 > y_2 > \dots$  (yield curve is inverted).
- $S(k) \geq y_k$  if  $S(1) < S(2) < \dots$  (spot rate curve is normal).
- $S(k) \leq y_k$  if  $S(1) > S(2) > \dots$  (spot rate curve is inverted).
- If the yield curve is flat, the spot rate curve coincides with the yield curve.

## Shapes

- The spot rate curve often has the same shape as the yield curve.
  - If the spot rate curve is inverted (normal, resp.), then the yield curve is inverted (normal, resp.).
- But this is only a trend not a mathematical truth.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>See a counterexample in the text.

## Forward Rates

- The yield curve contains information regarding future interest rates currently “expected” by the market.
- Invest \$1 for  $j$  periods to end up with  $[1 + S(j)]^j$  dollars at time  $j$ .
  - The maturity strategy.
- Invest \$1 in bonds for  $i$  periods and at time  $i$  invest the proceeds in bonds for another  $j - i$  periods where  $j > i$ .
- Will have  $[1 + S(i)]^i [1 + S(i, j)]^{j-i}$  dollars at time  $j$ .
  - $S(i, j)$ :  $(j - i)$ -period spot rate  $i$  periods from now.
  - The rollover strategy.

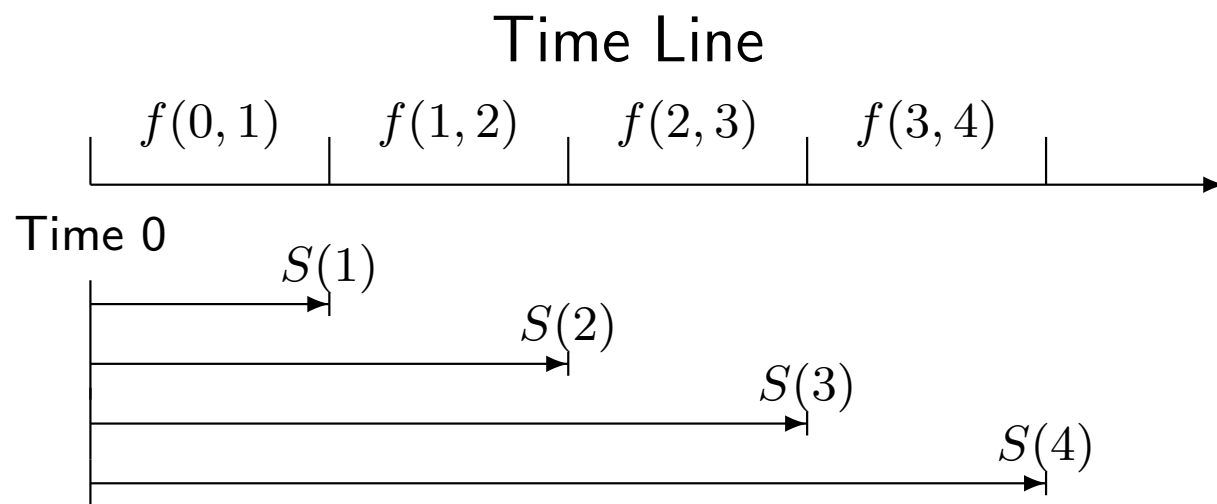
## Forward Rates (concluded)

- When  $S(i, j)$  equals

$$f(i, j) \equiv \left[ \frac{(1 + S(j))^j}{(1 + S(i))^i} \right]^{1/(j-i)} - 1, \quad (13)$$

we will end up with  $[1 + S(j)]^j$  dollars again.

- By definition,  $f(0, j) = S(j)$ .
- $f(i, j)$  is called the (implied) forward rates.
  - More precisely, the  $(j - i)$ -period forward rate  $i$  periods from now.



## Forward Rates and Future Spot Rates

- We did not assume any a priori relation between  $f(i, j)$  and future spot rate  $S(i, j)$ .
  - This is the subject of the term structure theories.
- We merely looked for the future spot rate that, *if realized*, will equate two investment strategies.
- $f(i, i + 1)$  are instantaneous forward rates or one-period forward rates.

## Spot Rates and Forward Rates

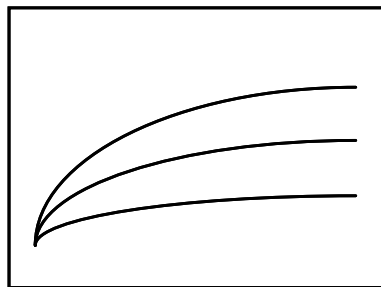
- When the spot rate curve is normal, the forward rate dominates the spot rates,

$$f(i, j) > S(j) > \cdots > S(i).$$

- When the spot rate curve is inverted, the forward rate is dominated by the spot rates,

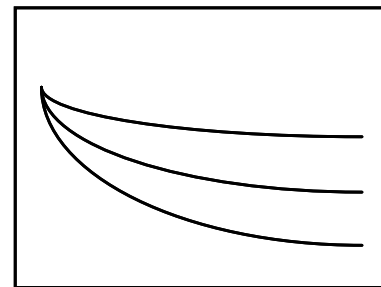
$$f(i, j) < S(j) < \cdots < S(i).$$





forward rate curve  
spot rate curve  
yield curve

(a)



yield curve  
spot rate curve  
forward rate curve

(b)

## Forward Rates $\equiv$ Spot Rates $\equiv$ Yield Curve

- The FV of \$1 at time  $n$  can be derived in two ways.
- Buy  $n$ -period zero-coupon bonds and receive

$$[1 + S(n)]^n.$$

- Buy one-period zero-coupon bonds today and a series of such bonds at the forward rates as they mature.
- The FV is

$$[1 + S(1)][1 + f(1, 2)] \cdots [1 + f(n - 1, n)].$$

## Forward Rates $\equiv$ Spot Rates $\equiv$ Yield Curves (concluded)

- Since they are identical,

$$S(n) = \{[1 + S(1)][1 + f(1, 2)] \cdots [1 + f(n - 1, n)]\}^{1/n} - 1. \quad (14)$$

- Hence, the forward rates, specifically the one-period forward rates, determine the spot rate curve.
- Other equivalencies can be derived similarly, such as

$$f(T, T + 1) = \frac{d(T)}{d(T + 1)} - 1.$$

## Locking in the Forward Rate $f(n, m)$

- Buy one  $n$ -period zero-coupon bond for  $1/(1 + S(n))^n$ .
- Sell  $(1 + S(m))^m / (1 + S(n))^n$   $m$ -period zero-coupon bonds.
- No net initial investment because the cash inflow equals the cash outflow  $1/(1 + S(n))^n$ .
- At time  $n$  there will be a cash inflow of \$1.
- At time  $m$  there will be a cash outflow of  $(1 + S(m))^m / (1 + S(n))^n$  dollars.
- This implies the rate  $f(n, m)$  between times  $n$  and  $m$ .

1

$n$

$m$

$(1 + S(m))^m / (1 + S(n))^n$

## Forward Contracts

- We had generated the cash flow of a financial instrument called forward contract.
- Agreed upon today, it enables one to
  - Borrow money at time  $n$  in the future, and
  - Repay the loan at time  $m > n$  with an interest rate equal to the forward rate

$$f(n, m).$$

- Can the spot rate curve be an arbitrary curve?<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Mr. Dai, Tian-Shyr (R86526008, D88526006) in 1998.

## Spot and Forward Rates under Continuous Compounding

- The pricing formula:

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n C e^{-iS(i)} + F e^{-nS(n)}.$$

- The market discount function:

$$d(n) = e^{-nS(n)}.$$

- The spot rate is an arithmetic average of forward rates,

$$S(n) = \frac{f(0, 1) + f(1, 2) + \cdots + f(n-1, n)}{n}.$$

## Spot and Forward Rates under Continuous Compounding (concluded)

- The formula for the forward rate:

$$f(i, j) = \frac{jS(j) - iS(i)}{j - i}.$$

- The one-period forward rate:

$$f(j, j + 1) = -\ln \frac{d(j + 1)}{d(j)}.$$

- 

$$f(T) \equiv \lim_{\Delta T \rightarrow 0} f(T, T + \Delta T) = S(T) + T \frac{\partial S}{\partial T}.$$

- $f(T) > S(T)$  if and only if  $\partial S / \partial T > 0$ .



## Unbiased Expectations Theory

- Forward rate equals the average future spot rate,

$$f(a, b) = E[ S(a, b) ]. \quad (15)$$

- It does not imply that the forward rate is an accurate predictor for the future spot rate.
- It implies the maturity strategy and the rollover strategy produce the same result at the horizon on the average.

## Unbiased Expectations Theory and Spot Rate Curve

- It implies that a normal spot rate curve is due to the fact that the market expects the future spot rate to rise.
  - $f(j, j + 1) > S(j + 1)$  if and only if  $S(j + 1) > S(j)$  from Eq. (13) on p. 119.
  - So  $E[S(j, j + 1)] > S(j + 1) > \dots > S(1)$  if and only if  $S(j + 1) > \dots > S(1)$ .
- Conversely, the spot rate is expected to fall if and only if the spot rate curve is inverted.

## More Implications

- The theory has been rejected by most empirical studies with the possible exception of the period prior to 1915.
- Since the term structure has been upward sloping about 80% of the time, the theory would imply that investors have expected interest rates to rise 80% of the time.
- Riskless bonds, regardless of their different maturities, are expected to earn the same return on the average.
- That would mean investors are indifferent to risk.

## A “Bad” Expectations Theory

- The expected returns on all possible riskless bond strategies are equal for *all* holding periods.
- So

$$(1 + S(2))^2 = (1 + S(1)) E[1 + S(1, 2)] \quad (16)$$

because of the equivalency between buying a two-period bond and rolling over one-period bonds.

- After rearrangement,

$$\frac{1}{E[1 + S(1, 2)]} = \frac{1 + S(1)}{(1 + S(2))^2}.$$

## A “Bad” Expectations Theory (continued)

- Now consider two one-period strategies.
  - Strategy one buys a two-period bond and sells it after one period.
  - The expected return is  $E[(1 + S(1, 2))^{-1}] / (1 + S(2))^{-2}$ .
  - Strategy two buys a one-period bond with a return of  $1 + S(1)$ .
- The theory says the returns are equal:

$$\frac{1 + S(1)}{(1 + S(2))^2} = E \left[ \frac{1}{1 + S(1, 2)} \right].$$

## A “Bad” Expectations Theory (concluded)

- Combine this with Eq. (16) on p. 134 to obtain

$$E \left[ \frac{1}{1 + S(1, 2)} \right] = \frac{1}{E[1 + S(1, 2)]}.$$

- But this is impossible save for a certain economy.
  - Jensen’s inequality states that  $E[g(X)] > g(E[X])$  for any nondegenerate random variable  $X$  and strictly convex function  $g$  (i.e.,  $g''(x) > 0$ ).
  - Use  $g(x) \equiv (1 + x)^{-1}$  to prove our point.

## Local Expectations Theory

- The expected rate of return of any bond over *a single period* equals the prevailing one-period spot rate:

$$\frac{E \left[ (1 + S(1, n))^{-(n-1)} \right]}{(1 + S(n))^{-n}} = 1 + S(1) \quad \text{for all } n > 1.$$

- This theory is the basis of many interest rate models.

## Duration Revisited

- To handle more general types of spot rate curve changes, define a vector  $[c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n]$  that characterizes the perceived type of change.
  - Parallel shift:  $[1, 1, \dots, 1]$ .
  - Twist:  $[1, 1, \dots, 1, -1, \dots, -1]$ .
  - ...
- Let  $P(y) \equiv \sum_i C_i / (1 + S(i) + yc_i)^i$  be the price associated with the cash flow  $C_1, C_2, \dots$ .
- Define duration as

$$-\left. \frac{\partial P(y)/P(0)}{\partial y} \right|_{y=0}.$$



# *Fundamental Statistical Concepts*

There are three kinds of lies:  
lies, damn lies, and statistics.  
— Benjamin Disraeli (1804–1881)

One death is a tragedy,  
but a million deaths are a statistic.  
— Josef Stalin (1879–1953)

## Moments

- The variance of a random variable  $X$  is defined as

$$\text{Var}[X] \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2].$$

- The covariance between random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] \equiv E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)],$$

where  $\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Y$  are the means of  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively.

- Random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated if

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0.$$

## Correlation

- The standard deviation of  $X$  is the square root of the variance,

$$\sigma_X \equiv \sqrt{\text{Var}[X]}.$$

- The correlation (or correlation coefficient) between  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$\rho_{X,Y} \equiv \frac{\text{Cov}[X,Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y},$$

provided both have nonzero standard deviations.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Paul Wilmott, “the correlations between financial quantities are notoriously unstable.”

## Variance of Sum

- Variance of a weighted sum of random variables equals

$$\text{Var} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j].$$

- It becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}[X_i]$$

when  $X_i$  are uncorrelated.

## Conditional Expectation

- “ $X | I$ ” denotes  $X$  conditional on the information set  $I$ .
- The information set can be another random variable’s value or the past values of  $X$ , say.
- The conditional expectation  $E[X | I]$  is the expected value of  $X$  conditional on  $I$ ; it is a random variable.
- The law of iterated conditional expectations:

$$E[X] = E[E[X | I]].$$

- If  $I_2$  contains at least as much information as  $I_1$ , then

$$E[X | I_1] = E[E[X | I_2] | I_1]. \quad (17)$$

## The Normal Distribution

- A random variable  $X$  has the normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  if its probability density function is

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}.$$

- This is expressed by  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- The standard normal distribution has zero mean, unit variance, and the distribution function

$$\text{Prob}[X \leq z] = N(z) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^z e^{-x^2/2} dx.$$

## Moment Generating Function

- The moment generating function of random variable  $X$  is

$$\theta_X(t) \equiv E[e^{tX}].$$

- The moment generating function of  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is

$$\theta_X(t) = \exp \left[ \mu t + \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2} \right]. \quad (18)$$



## The Multivariate Normal Distribution

- If  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$  are independent, then

$$\sum_i X_i \sim N \left( \sum_i \mu_i, \sum_i \sigma_i^2 \right).$$

- Let  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ , which may not be independent.
- Suppose

$$\sum_{i=1}^n t_i X_i \sim N \left( \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n t_i t_j \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] \right)$$

for every linear combination  $\sum_{i=1}^n t_i X_i$ .<sup>a</sup>

- $X_i$  are said to have a multivariate normal distribution.

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<sup>a</sup>Corrected by Mr. Huang, Guo-Hua (R98922107) on March 10, 2010.

## Generation of Univariate Normal Distributions

- Let  $X$  be uniformly distributed over  $(0, 1]$  so that  $\text{Prob}[X \leq x] = x$  for  $0 < x \leq 1$ .
- Repeatedly draw two samples  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  from  $X$  until

$$\omega \equiv (2x_1 - 1)^2 + (2x_2 - 1)^2 < 1.$$

- Then  $c(2x_1 - 1)$  and  $c(2x_2 - 1)$  are independent standard normal variables where

$$c \equiv \sqrt{-2(\ln \omega)/\omega}.$$

## A Dirty Trick and a Right Attitude

- Let  $\xi_i$  are independent and uniformly distributed over  $(0, 1)$ .
- A simple method to generate the standard normal variable is to calculate<sup>a</sup>

$$\sum_{i=1}^{12} \xi_i - 6.$$

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<sup>a</sup>Jäckel (2002), “this is not a highly accurate approximation and should only be used to establish ballpark estimates.”

## A Dirty Trick and a Right Attitude (concluded)

- Always blame your random number generator last.<sup>a</sup>
- Instead, check your programs first.

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<sup>a</sup> “The fault, dear Brutus, lies not in the stars but in ourselves that we are underlings.” William Shakespeare (1564–1616), *Julius Caesar*.

## Generation of Bivariate Normal Distributions

- Pairs of normally distributed variables with correlation  $\rho$  can be generated.
- Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be independent standard normal variables.
- Set

$$\begin{aligned}U &\equiv aX_1, \\V &\equiv \rho U + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} aX_2.\end{aligned}$$

- $U$  and  $V$  are the desired random variables with  $\text{Var}[U] = \text{Var}[V] = a^2$  and  $\text{Cov}[U, V] = \rho a^2$ .

## The Lognormal Distribution

- A random variable  $Y$  is said to have a lognormal distribution if  $\ln Y$  has a normal distribution.
- Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $Y \equiv e^X$ .
- The mean and variance of  $Y$  are

$$\mu_Y = e^{\mu + \sigma^2/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_Y^2 = e^{2\mu + \sigma^2} (e^{\sigma^2} - 1), \quad (19)$$

respectively.

- They follow from  $E[Y^n] = e^{n\mu + n^2\sigma^2/2}$ .