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

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

• But if d_1 or d_2 is 31, we need to change it to 30 before applying the above formula.

Day Count Conventions: 30/360 (concluded)

• An equivalent formula without any adjustment is

$$360 \times (y_2 - y_1) + 30 \times (m_2 - m_1 - 1) + \max(30 - d_1, 0) + \min(d_2, 30).$$

• Many variations regarding 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

number of days between the settlement

 $\omega \equiv \frac{\rm and \ the \ next \ coupon \ payment \ date}{\rm number \ of \ days \ in \ the \ coupon \ period}$

• The price is now calculated by

$$PV = \frac{C}{\left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega}} + \frac{C}{\left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega+1}} \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{C}{\left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega+i}} + \frac{F}{\left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{\omega+n-1}}.$$
 (10)

(9)

Accrued Interest

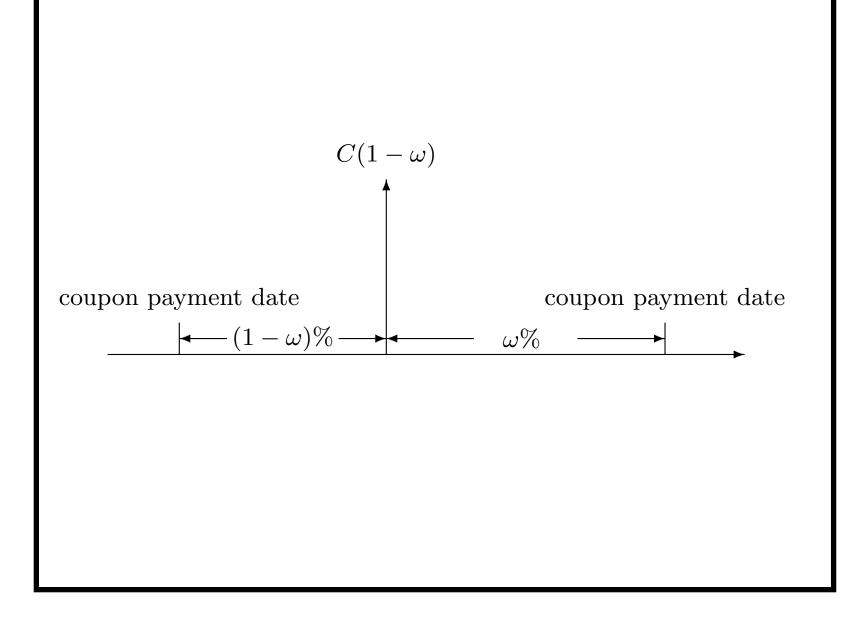
- The buyer pays the invoice price (the quoted price *plus* the accrued interest).
- The accrued interest equals

number of days from the last

coupon payment to the settlement date

 $C \times \frac{1}{1} = C \times (1 - \omega).$

- The yield to maturity is the r satisfying Eq. (10) when PV 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 $(10/2) \times (1 \frac{60}{180}) = 3.3333$ per \$100 of par value.
- The yield to maturity is 3%.
- This can be verified by Eq. (10) on p. 71 with

$$-\omega = 60/180,$$

$$-m=2,$$

$$-C = 5,$$

- PV= 111.2891 + 3.3333,

$$-r = 0.03$$

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 to C 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 here.

Price Volatility (concluded)

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

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

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,

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

• The Macaulay duration, in periods, is equal to

$$MD = -(1+y)\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\frac{1}{P}.$$
 (11)

$\mathsf{MD} \text{ of } \mathsf{Bonds}$

• The MD of a coupon bond is

$$MD = \frac{1}{P} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{iC}{(1+y)^{i}} + \frac{nF}{(1+y)^{n}} \right].$$
 (12)

• It can be simplified to

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 (11) on p. 82 and (12) on p. 83 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. (12) on p. 83 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 (11) on p. 82 also becomes

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

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

Modified Duration

• Modified duration is defined as

modified duration
$$\equiv -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\frac{1}{P} = \frac{\text{MD}}{(1+y)}.$$
 (13)

• By the Taylor expansion,

percent price change \approx -modified duration \times 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

$$\sum_i \omega_i D_i.$$

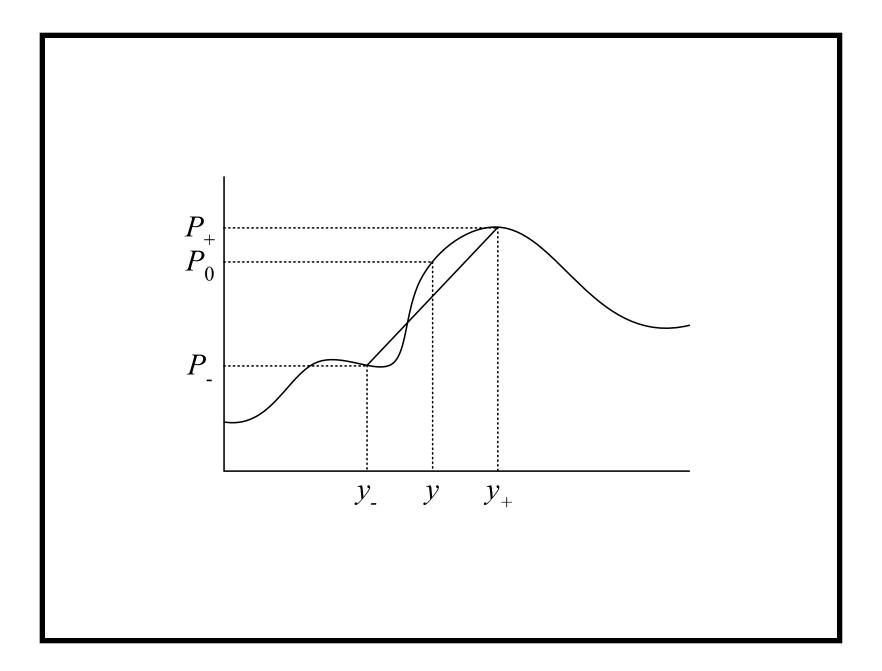
- D_i is the modified duration of the *i*th asset.
- $-\omega_i$ is the market value of that asset expressed as a percentage of the market value of the portfolio.

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 Δy .
- $-P_+$ is the price if the yield is increased by Δy .
- $-P_0$ is the initial price, y is the initial yield.
- $-\Delta y$ is small.
- See plot on p. 91.



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 theoretically 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 then 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 $10 \times 2 = 20$.
- $D_{\%}$ 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

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

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

price change \approx -dollar duration \times yield change.

• One can hedge a bond with a dollar duration D by bonds with a dollar duration -D.

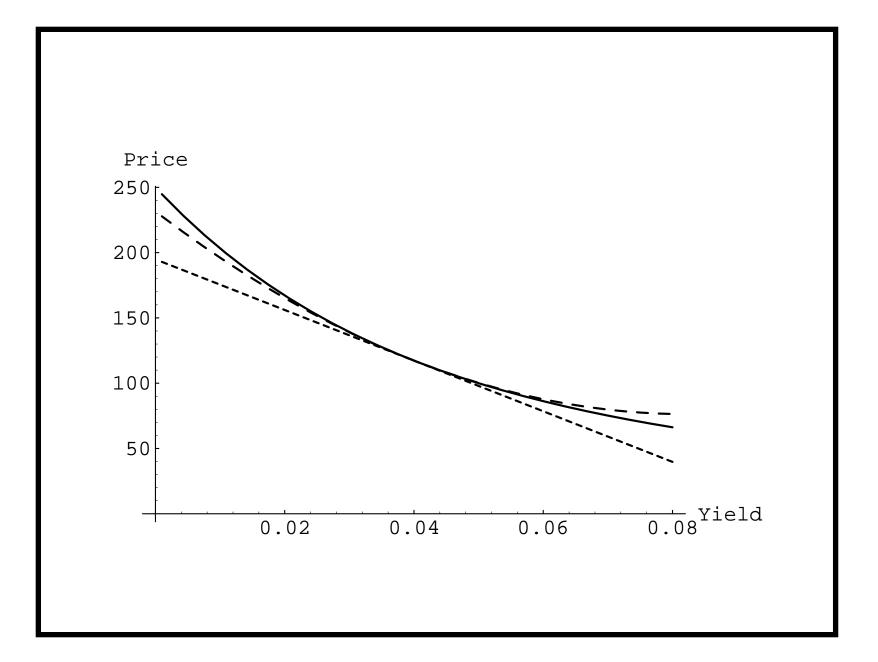
Convexity

• Convexity is defined as

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.^a

^aDo you spot a problem?



Convexity (concluded)

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

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

when there are k periods per annum.

Use of Convexity

- The approximation $\Delta P/P \approx -$ duration \times yield change works for small yield changes.
- For larger yield changes, use

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

• Recall the figure on p. 96.

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

$$-10 \times 2 + \frac{1}{2} \times 1.5 \times 2^2 = -17.$$

• $C_{\%}$ equals convexity divided by 100 (prove it!).

Effective Convexity

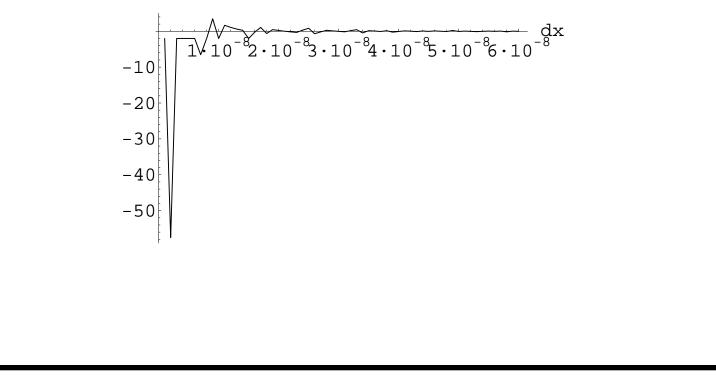
• The effective convexity is defined as

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

- P_{-} is the price if the yield is decreased by Δy .
- $-P_+$ is the price if the yield is increased by Δy .
- $-P_0$ 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 Δy is a delicate matter.

Approximate $d^2 f(x)^2/dx^2$ 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:

Error



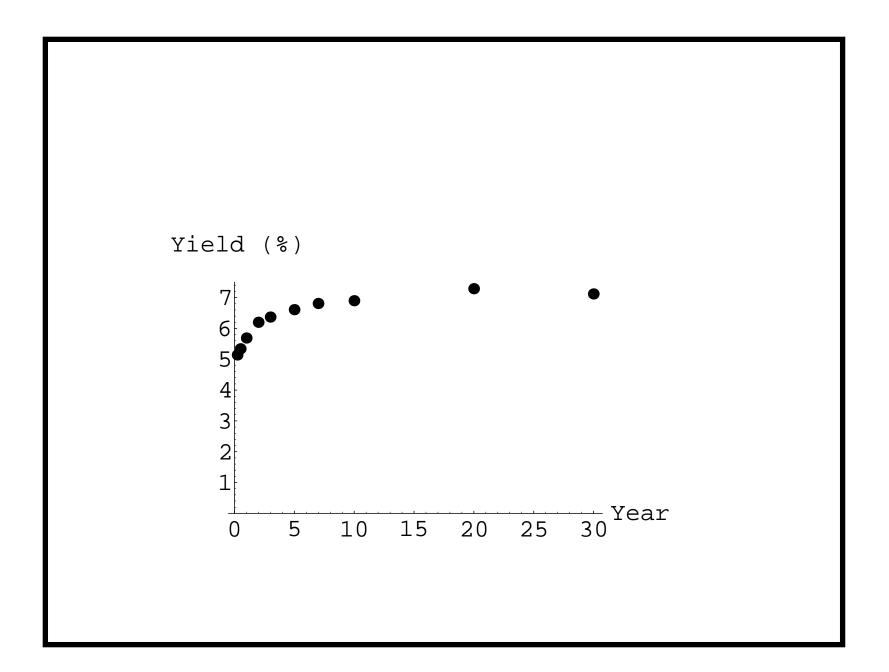
Term Structure of Interest Rates

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.



Term Structure of Interest Rates (concluded)

- Term structure often refers exclusively to the yields of zero-coupon bonds.
- A yield curve plots the yields to maturity of coupon bonds 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 by definition

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

- 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, \ldots, 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

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C}{[1+S(i)]^{i}} + \frac{F}{[1+S(n)]^{n}}.$$
 (14)

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

Discount Factors

• In general, any riskless security having a cash flow C_1, C_2, \ldots, 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, ..., 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 $S(1), S(2), \ldots, S(n-1)$.
- Then S(n) can be computed from Eq. (14) on p. 111, repeated below,

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

- The running time can be made to be 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.^a

^aAny economic justifications?

Yield Spread

- Consider a *risky* bond with the cash flow C_1, C_2, \ldots, 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.
- $S(k) \ge y_k$ if $y_1 < y_2 < \cdots$ (yield curve is normal).
- $S(k) \le y_k$ if $y_1 > y_2 > \cdots$ (yield curve is inverted).
- $S(k) \ge y_k$ if $S(1) < S(2) < \cdots$ (spot rate curve is normal).
- $S(k) \le y_k$ if $S(1) > S(2) > \cdots$ (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.^a

^aSee 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.

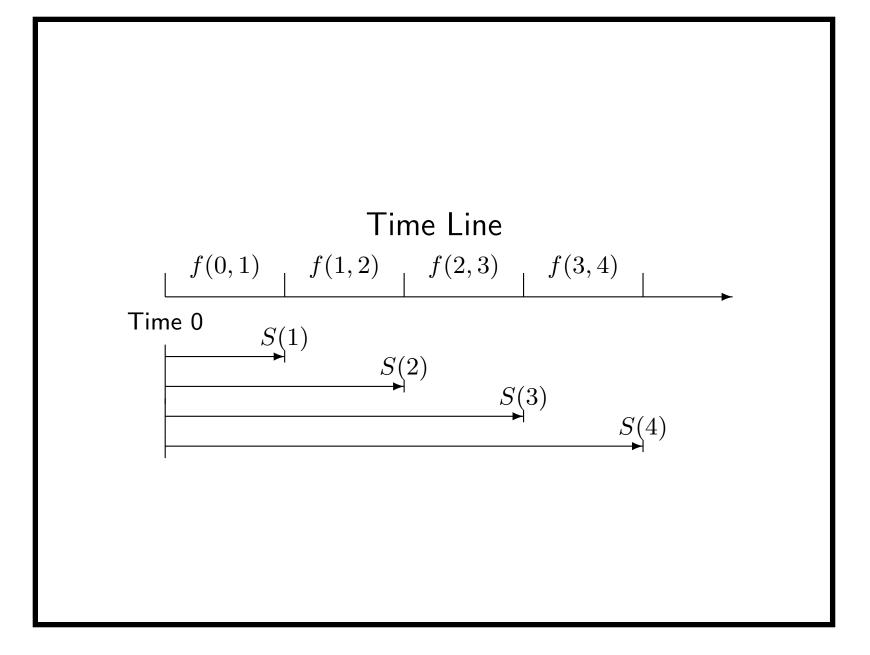
Forward Rates (concluded)

• When S(i, j) equals

$$f(i,j) \equiv \left[\frac{(1+S(j))^j}{(1+S(i))^i}\right]^{1/(j-i)} - 1, \quad (15)$$

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 the two investment strategies.
- f(i, i + 1) are called the instantaneous forward rates or one-period forward rates.

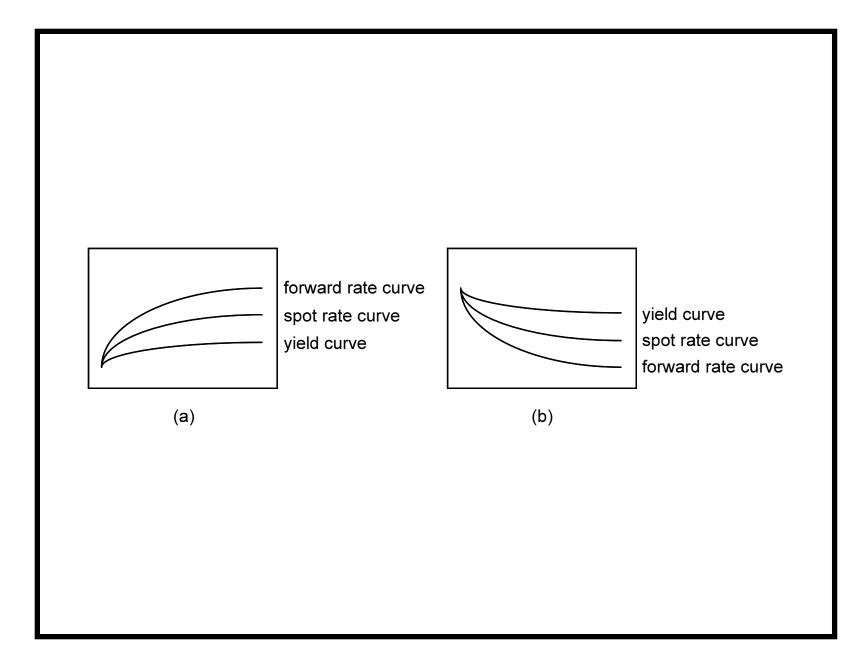
Spot Rates and Forward Rates

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

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

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

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



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,

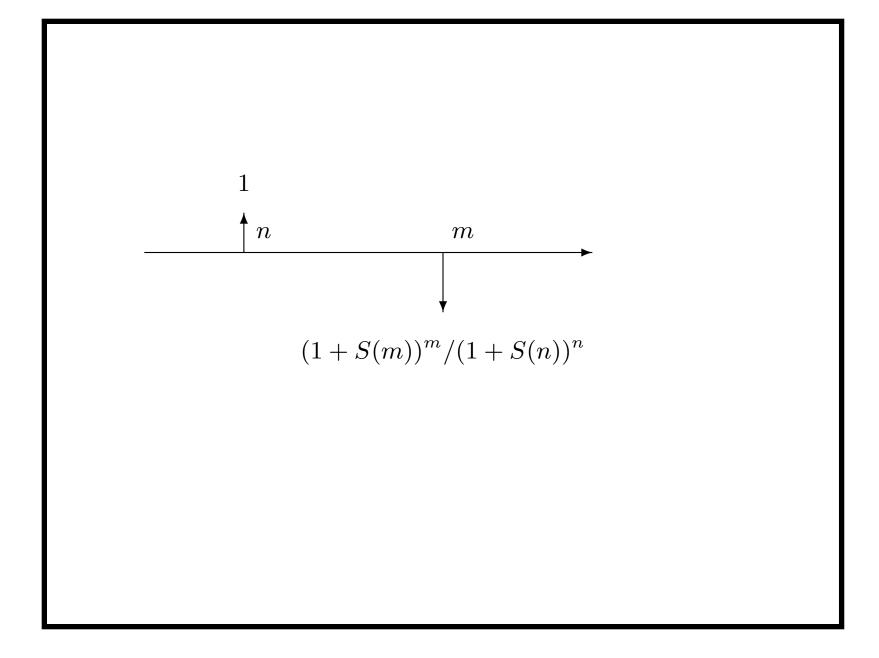
$$S(n) = \{ [1 + S(1)] [1 + f(1, 2)] \\ \cdots [1 + f(n - 1, n)] \}^{1/n} - 1.$$
 (16)

- 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.



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?^a

^aContributed by Mr. Dai, Tian-Shyr (**R86526008**, **D88526006**) in 1998.

Spot and Forward Rates under Continuous Compounding

• The pricing formula:

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Ce^{-iS(i)} + Fe^{-nS(n)}.$$

• The market discount function:

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

• The spot rate is an arithmetic average of forward rates,^a

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

^aCompare it with Eq. (16) on p. 127.

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:

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

- $f(T) \equiv \lim_{\Delta T \to 0} f(T, T + \Delta T) = S(T) + T \frac{\partial S}{\partial T}.$
- f(T) > S(T) if and only if $\partial S/\partial T > 0$.