

- Money market mutual funds = ? p?



FIM NOTES from Studist

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS AND MARKETS THEORY NOTES

YEAR: 2022-2023

ISCEB X STUDIST



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Chapter 1: Why study financial markets and institutions?

Financial markets: Financial markets refer to platforms where financial assets, such as stocks, bonds, and derivatives, are bought and sold.

- Financial markets are crucial in our economy:

1. Channeling funds from savers to investors, promoting economic efficiency
2. Market activity affects: personal wealth, business firms, and economy

Debt Markets: Segments of the financial market that allow governments, corporations, and individuals to borrow.

Some borrowers issue a **security**, called a **bond**, offering **interest** and principal over time.

- Security:** Financial instrument which is a claim on the issuer's future income or asset
- Bond:** Debt security that promises to make payments periodically for a specified amount of time
- Interest:** Cost of borrowing

The Stock Market: The market where stocks are traded.

- Stocks:** Shares that represent ownership in a company. Initially sold on the primary market to raise money. Then traded amongst investors in the secondary market.

The Foreign Exchange Market: The market where international currencies are traded, and exchange rates are set.

SEO: Secondary Equity Offering

IPO = initial public offering

connecting ppl with £ & ideas

IPo = initial public offering

Dividend = payout split between investors

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

Chapter 2: Overview of the financial market

What is the function of financial markets?

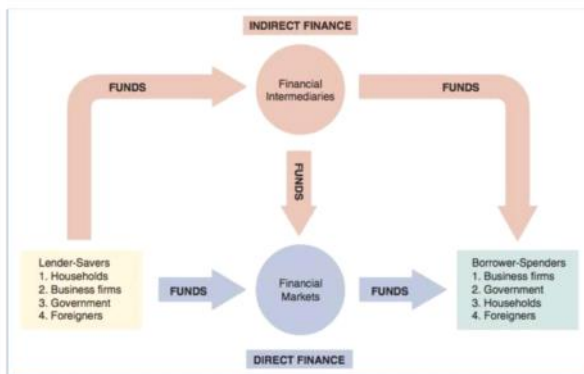
Financial Markets channel funds from person or businesses without investment opportunities, to others with investment opportunities.

This process allows for producing an efficient allocation of capital. Financial markets also improve the well-being of consumers, allowing them to time their purchases better.

What are the segments of Financial Markets?

- 1) **Direct Finance**
Borrowers borrow directly from lenders in the financial markets by selling financial instruments which are claims on borrower's future income or assets.
- 2) **Indirect Finance**
Borrowers borrow indirectly from lenders via **financial intermediaries** by issuing financial instruments which are claims on the borrower's future income or assets.

Financial intermediaries: Institutions or entities that act as middlemen between savers and borrows in the financial system.



Structure of Financial Markets?

€

€ *fin. interm.* *€*
f.e. banks
↳ risk ↓

efficient allocation of capital
= relocating cash into a place
where it's well-used.
⇒ investing

Structure fin. markets:**Debt Market:**

The debt market is divided in to two categories,
 -Short term (Maturity < 1 year) debt
 -Long-term debt

- Equity Market** *stock exchange*

Equity of firms are sold on the equity markets, which pays investors dividends and represent ownership claim in a firm.

- Primary market** *IPO*

New securities issues are sold to initial buyers. Typically involved an investment bank who underwrites the offerings.

- Secondary market** *you actually pay, 1-2 days after primary.*

Securities that have previously been issued are bought and sold. (e.g., *NYSE*)
New York Stock Exchange
 It involves **brokers** and **dealers**.

Brokers: Brokers help clients buy and sell securities while overseeing their accounts.

no risk, only connecting buyers & sellers. in stock market > 1y

Dealers: Dealers are individuals or firms that buy and sell securities for their own accounts and own good. *Debt market, maturity < 1y*

The secondary market serves two important functions:

- Provides liquidity for firms.
- Establishes a price for the securities, which could be useful for company valuation.

Furthermore, secondary markets can be categorizing as follows:

1. Exchanges: Dealers at central location buy and sell.
2. **Over-the-counter** *OTC* markets: Dealers at different location buy and sell.

classified by maturity date
Money market: Short-term (Maturity < 1 year) plus *forex*. *= foreign exchange market*
Capital Market: Long-Term (Maturity > 1 year) plus equities.

Internationalization of Financial Markets?

The Internationalization of Financial Markets is crucial to avoid that one country dominates the world stage.

- International Bond Market and Eurobonds
1. **Foreign bonds:** denominated in foreign currency and targeted at foreign market
 2. **Eurobonds:** denominated in one currency but sold in a different market
(80% + new bonds)

EXAM

is the secondary market of big importance to firms? Usually no, but if firm needs €, then the higher the stock price, the better.

3. Domestic bonds: denominated in local currency and targeted at the local market

- Eurocurrency Market: Foreign currency deposited outside of the home country. Note that such transactions are not possible with every currency. *e.g. a USD account in London*
- World Stock Market - *US isn't always the largest anymore*

Foreign Stock Market Indexes:

- **Bel20**: 20 most important Belgian companies listed in Euronext Brussels
- Dow Jones Industrial Average (**DJIA**): 30 largest US companies
- **S&P 500**: 500 largest companies trading in the US
- **NASDAQ Composite**: all stocks trading on Nasdaq stock market - *Nasdaq has no physical location/ Headquarters.*
- **FTSE100**: 100 largest UK companies trading in London *Financial Times Stock Exchange.*
- **DAX**: 30 largest German companies trading in Frankfurt
- **CAC40**: 40 largest French companies trading in Paris
- **Hang Seng**: largest companies trading in Hong Kong
- **Strait Times**: 30 largest companies trading in Singapore

EXAM!

The decline of US Capital Markets:

The US has lost its dominance in many industries. This is due to:

- New technologies *in foreign exchanges: you can set up your stock anywhere*
- 9-11 making regulation tighter: *too much regulation kills deals*
- Big risk of lawsuit: *see Karen's l.d. requires lawyers + time.*
- High costs: *being a listed company is expensive.*

EXAM!

Financial Intermediation: "The middleman"

It is a primary way of transferring funds from lenders to borrowers. The intermediary acts as a middleman and obtains funds from savers and makes loans/investments with borrowers. Banks are considered the most important financial intermediaries.

a lot of US companies issue bonds instead of taking out a loan.

Financial Intermediaries are needed to:

1. Reduce Transaction costs:

Financial intermediaries make profits by reducing transaction costs. This can be done by developing an expertise and taking advantage of **economies of scale**.

Low transaction costs provide customers with **liquidity services**, that make it easier for them to conduct transactions.

- Banks create checking accounts that enable depositors to easily pay their bills
- Depositors can earn an interest on these accounts

2. Risk sharing:

→ profit on £ being lent indirectly through fin. institutions.

EXAM econ. of scale

vs
econ. of scope?

Focuses on the average total cost of production of a variety of goods

Focuses on cost advantage from higher level of production for 1 good.

Low transaction costs help reduce the risk exposure. Intermediaries create and sell assets with lower risk to one party in order to buy assets with greater risk from another party. We call this process **asset transformation**. *risky assets become safer for investors*. Financial Intermediaries are also a mean to help customers **diversify** their assets holding. They are allowed to buy, pool and sell assets to a diversified pool of individuals due to lower transaction costs.

3. **Asymmetric information:**

The latter occurs when one party lacks crucial information about another, thereby interfering with the decision-making process.

We differentiate between 3 types:

A. **Adverse selection**

Happens before the transaction occurs. People most likely to produce an adverse outcome are the ones who are most likely to seek a loan.

B. **Moral Hazard**

Happens after the transaction occurs. Risk that the borrower has incentives to engage in immoral activities and won't repay the loan.

C. **Conflict of Interest**

Economies of Scope: Fls lower production costs of information by using the information for a diverse range of services *e.g. bank loans, insurances*

Economies of scope may lead to conflict of interest. This is the case when one area hides or conceals information from another area. Conflicts of interests create inefficiencies.

Types of Financial Intermediaries

1. **Finance companies:** raise funds by selling commercial paper and issue bonds and stocks to lend to consumers to buy durable goods/for small operations *short term bonds*
2. **Mutual Funds:** raise funds by selling shares to single investors and use them to purchase large diversified portfolios of stocks and bonds *money spread, less risk.* *€ 500 p.c.*
3. **Money Market Mutual Funds:** raise funds by selling checkable deposit-like shares and use them to purchase liquid and safe short-term money market instruments *cash*
4. **Investment Banks:** advise companies on securities, mergers and acquisitions, act as dealers. Note that investment banks can not offer savings accounts, nor provide loans. *→ cannot provide savings accounts bcs their risks are too high.*

Regulatory Agencies

Prevent things from going wrong. They:

- Increase Information to investors
- Ensure soundness of the market

CSIs = Contractual Savings Institutions

to collect € from clients on regular basis, fairly predictable payouts in the future.

- life insurance companies
- fire & casualty insurance companies
- receive funds from policy premiums.

→ cannot provide savings accounts bcs their risks are too high.

commercial banks aren't allowed to invest since 1930 crisis.

Some of the most important Agencies are:

1. **Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC)**: requires companies to disclose information about sales, assets..., restricts insider trading
Information disclosure is a tool to increase efficiency and reduce asymmetric information

p.e. Elon Musk can't tweet about his company, he'll get a fine.
↳ CEO is allowed to trade their own shares but have to inform SEC about it.

FDIC

2. **Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation**: provides insurance of up to 250.000\$ for each depositor, imposes restrictions in Europe 100.000€
3. **Federal Reserve System**: examines the books of commercial banks, sets reserve requirements = US central bank.

Financial Panic: a situation where depositors start doubting the overall health of financial intermediaries and thereby start pulling out their funds. It leads to large losses and causes damage to the economy.

The government implemented different types of regulations to protect the public and the economy.

1. **Restrictions on the entry**: regulations on who is allowed to set up an intermediary. People must obtain a charter from the government, this only if they are upstanding citizen and have a large amount of initial funds. in EU at least 5ml€.
2. **Disclosure**: principles on bookkeeping, period inspection, disclose info to the public
avoiding asymmetric info ↳ by authorities
3. **Restrictions on Assets and Activities**: restriction from engaging in risky activities f.e.g. Banks can't buy shares of other companies, except in case of mergers
4. **Deposit Insurance**: as a form of protection against the failure of a financial intermediary
5. **Limits on Competition**: between banks, gov. thinks this will cause crisis.
6. **Restrictions on Interest Rates**: instituted after the Great Depression due to the belief that unrestricted interest rates encouraged banking failure
↳ have now been dropped cause there's no correlation.

EXAM

NCUSIF = National Credit Union
Share Insurance Fund

↳ provides insurance for credit unions
(credit union ≠ bank, just not for profit)
purposes

Regulations intend to improve control over the **money supply**.

Reserve requirements: make it obligatory for all depository institutions to keep a fraction of their deposits in an account with the Federal Reserve System
around 3% is kept in cash

Chapter 3: What do Interest Rates mean and what is their role in Valuation?

Interest rates are among the most closely watched variables in the economy.

The most accurate measure of interest rates is a concept known as **yield to maturity**.

Cash flows: streams of cash payments to the holder

Debt instruments are evaluated against each other based on the amount and the timing of each cash flow.

Present value analysis: evaluation, where the amount and timing of a cash flow leads to its yield to maturity.

It is based on the principal that a dollar of cash flow paid to you one year from now is less valuable to you than a dollar paid to you today, due to the fact that you could invest and earn an interest on it, as long as the latter are positive.

Loan Principal: amount of funds provided by the lender to the borrower

"nominal amount"

Maturity Date: date of repayment of the loan

Loan Term: from initiation to maturity date

Interest payment: cash amount that the borrower must pay the lender for the use of the loan principal

Simple Interest Rate: interest payment divided by the loan principal; it is the percentage of the principal that must be paid as interest to the lender

- In Europe: expressed annually
- In the US: expressed semi-annually

The **Yield to maturity (YTM)** is the interest rate that equates today's value with the present value of all future payments. *→ most accurate measure*

During the life of a bond it will be traded several times.

Key-Insights Price-YTM

1. When a bond is at par, the yield equals the coupon rate
buying below par = under 100%
2. Price and yield are always negatively related: if the interest rate increases, the price decreases
3. The Yield is greater than the coupon rate when the bond price is below par value

if $P_{bond} < 100\%$ → coupon rate < yield (interest)

FRN = floating rate notes
(cfr. Bonds)

$PV < FV$

Coupon rate = the interest payment on the bond, which is a % of the bond's face value (aka bond principal / par value)

you buy bonds when you think their interest rates will drop.

Note that yields on some kind of bonds can be negative, meaning that investors are willing to pay more than what they would receive in the future.

A more accurate measure for the cost of borrowing is indicated by the **real interest rate**. It reflects the actual cost of borrowing as it indicates the interest rate adjusted for expected changes in price level. When the latter are low there are greater incentives to borrow and less to lend.

It is calculated as:

Interest rate (nominal rate) – Inflation

We make the distinction between:

1. **Ex ante real rate of interest**: adjusted to the expected level of inflation *in the future*
2. **Ex post real rate of interest**: based on observed level of inflation *after the fact*

Relationship between Rates and Returns: Key-Insights

1. If the **return = the yield**, the **maturity = the holding period**
2. If the maturity is **longer** than the holding period, the interest rates increase and the price decreases, meaning that the investor ~~incurs~~ ^{has} a capital loss
3. The **longer** the maturity, the **greater** the price change associated with the interest rate change
4. The longer the maturity, the more the return changes with the change in interest rate
5. Bonds with a high initial rate can still have a **negative return** if the interest rate rises

Prices and returns are **more volatile for long-term bonds**, due to the higher interest-rate risk.

Note that there is no interest-rate risk for any bond whose maturity equals the holding period.

Reinvestment risk: a scenario occurring if you have a series of short bonds over a long holding period, because the interest rate at which you reinvest is uncertain.

As an investor you gain from interest rates going up, and you lose from interest rates going down.

$\text{real interest rate} < \text{nominal interest rate}$
 what you get when you deduct inflation what you see

EXAM

if you buy short-term investment, but after a year you need to reinvest. risk → that there's a lower yield then.

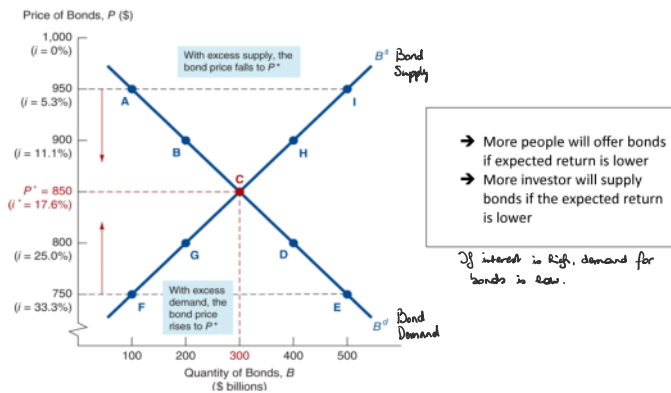
Chapter 4: Why do interest rates change

Asset: a piece of property that is a store of value

When considering how to deal with an asset, following factors must be taken into consideration:

1. **Wealth:** total resources owned by the individual: as wealth increases, demand for assets increases
2. **Expected return:** return expected over the next period on one asset: as expected return increases, demand increases
3. **Risk:** degree of uncertainty associated with the return: if risk increases, demand falls
Standard deviation: Differences to the average *Volatility = High or low fluctuation*
4. **Liquidity:** ease and speed with which an asset can be turned into cash: as liquidity increases, demand increases *the more liquid, the better.*

Supply and demand for Bonds:



We call the point where Supply and Demand curve intersect the **equilibrium**. In a healthy economy the equilibrium happens millions of times a day.
 In this point: **Bonds demanded = Bonds supplied**

Supply is defined as companies and governments issuing bonds in order to borrow money.

Market equilibrium: occurs when the amount that people are willing to buy (demand) equals the amount that people are willing to sell (supply) at a given price.

However, markets do not always reach an equilibrium. We can have 2 possible situations:

1. **Excess supply:** if amount that people are willing to sell is greater than what people are willing to buy at a given price
-> **supply > demand**
2. **Excess demand:** if the amount that people are willing to buy is greater than what people are willing to sell at a given price
-> **supply < demand**

Changes in Equilibrium:

Factors that shift the **demand curve** (shift to the right for increase, shift to the left for decrease):

1. **Wealth:** demand rises in business cycle expansion, falls in recession
2. **Expected returns:**

-> if interest rates are expected to rise in the future, the demand for long-term bonds decreases
-> if interest rates are expected to fall in the future, the demand for long-term bonds increases

3. **Risk:** if risk increases, the demand for a bond falls

Note however, that if the risk of an alternative asset increases, the demand increases

4. **Liquidity:**

-> an increased liquidity of the bond market leads to an increased demand for bonds
-> an increased liquidity of the stock market leads to an increased demand for stocks

...

5. **Expected inflation:** if inflation ↑, Demand for bonds ↓

Factors that shift the **supply curve:**

1. **Expected profitability of investment opportunities:** supply increases in a business cycle expansion, falls in recession as there are fewer expected business opportunities
2. **Expected inflation:** increase in expected inflation increases the supply of bonds
3. **Government activities:** higher deficits increase the supply of bonds, *gov. surplus → \$↓*
deficits

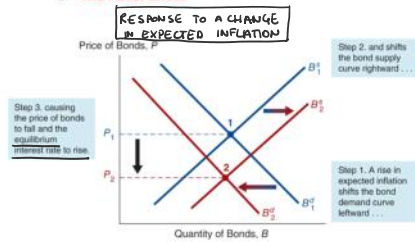
} all 3 have positive relation to supply of bonds

in general, shares have higher returns than bonds.

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Case studies:

1. The Fisher effect



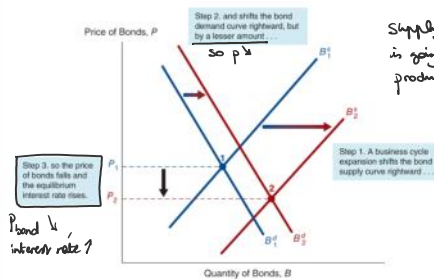
The Fisher effect explains that a high expected inflation rate leads to high interest rates and a price decrease.

This is due to the fact, that a rise in expected inflation leads to a decrease in expected return of bonds relative to other assets, thereby leading to a decrease in demand for bonds.

In addition the real cost of borrowing declines due to the rise of expected inflation, causing an increase in supply of bonds. Combined, the 2 lead to a fall in the equilibrium price of bonds.

As price and interest rates are negatively related, the interest rate increases as a consequence of the price decrease.

2. Business Cycle Expansion: a situation in which the amount of goods and services for the country is increasing => national income is increasing



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rates are composed of:

a real rate, inflation premium & various risk premiums

=> when there's more inflation, the interest rate will go up.

IF expected inflation ↑
price of bonds ↓
interest rate ↑

supply of bonds ↑ because cost borrowing ↓

wealth ↑ => more savings, more demand for bonds

=> when the economy is doing well, interest rates will be higher.

As national income increases, demand for bonds also increases due to the fact that companies need more money in order to keep up with the increasing demand for goods and services.

In a Business cycle expansion **interest rates rise** as a consequence of the **increase in demand, and the price falls**.

3. **Low Japanese Interest Rates:** in 1998 Japanese Interest rates on Treasury bills turned negative: How?

The country suffered from **deflation**, causing the demand of bonds to increase. In addition, real rates increased, which led to the real cost of borrowing being higher and the supply of bonds to fall.

After a long period of wealth, the bubble burst. There was a recession leading to a decrease in interest rates. Both curves shifted to the left, whereas the net effect finally led to an **increase in bond price** & **a drop in interest rates**.

⇒ **dropping business cycle**

Many firms hire economists or consultants to forecast interest rates. Methods used are:

- **Supply and demand for bonds:** use Flow of Funds accounts and personal judgement
- **Econometric Models:** use past financial relationships and assume that they will hold in the future

Economists and consultants make forecasts over:

1. Make decisions about assets to hold:
 - If interest rates are expected to **decrease: buy long bonds**
 - If interest rates are expected to **increase: buy short bonds**
2. Make decisions about how to borrow:
 - If interest rates are expected to **decrease: borrow short**
 - If interest rates are expected to **increase: borrow long**

Predictions made by financial economists are also useful to help forecast the strength of the economy, profitability of investments, and expected inflation.

investing with deflation:

because money gains value, you gain € even if you invest at 0% interest

if you borrow, you need to pay back more than what you borrowed + interest.

(↳ deflation) ⇒ Supply of bonds ↓

You postpone consumption cause it'll be cheaper in the future ⇒ demand ↓ (bad for economy)

not really discussed

Chapter 5: How do risk and term structure affect interest rates

1. RISK STRUCTURE

Price differences on bonds are a consequence of the **risk structure** of the interest rates.

Spread/Margin: difference between 2 bonds at a given point in time; measured in basis points. 2,5% = 250 basispoints difference from 10% → 8% is -20% not 8% → 0 basispoints. *take this*
 If you say "Tesla has x basispoints credit spread" → we compare to the relevant gov., in this case US' benchmark.

1. Rates on different bond categories change from one year to the next.
2. Spreads on different bond categories change from one year to the next.

In general, three risk factors are taken into consideration: **Default risk, liquidity, income tax considerations**

1. **Default risk:** situation occurring when the issuer of the bond is unable/unwilling to make interest payments when promised

In many cases, default is considered to be the step before bankruptcy. It often leads to a cross-over effect meaning that it also affects all other bonds, checking accounts etc.

US-Treasury Bonds are generally considered to have no default risk, and are therefore called "default-free bonds". The reason behind it, is that the government can simply print new money, increase taxes etc. to pay off its obligations. History although has shown that these bonds are not truly default-free.

The spread between interest rates on bonds with and without default risk is called **risk premium**. It is a measure indicating how much additional interest people must earn in order to be willing to hold that risky bond. *also reflects liquidity*
 Note that a bond with default risk will always have a positive risk premium.

Increase in Default risk on Corporate Bonds:

1. Increase in risk shifts demand curve for Corporate Bonds to the left.
2. The demand curve for Treasury Bonds shifts to the right, due to an increase in demand, considering that the default risk on government bonds is low/zero.
3. As a consequence:

→ the price of Treasury Bonds increases → interest rates decrease

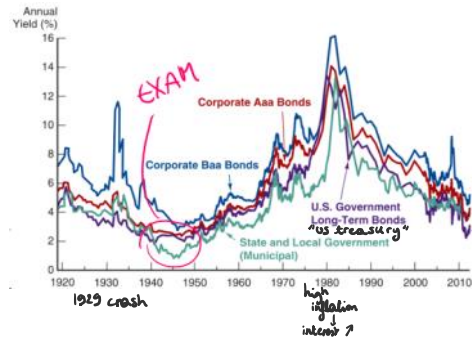
→ the price of Corporate Bonds decreases → interest rates increase

The spread between the interest rates on corporate versus Treasury Bonds grows.

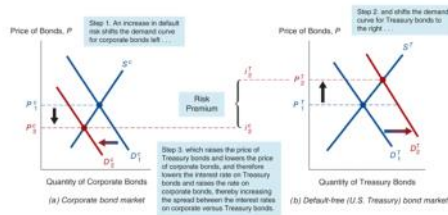
- Corporate AAA bonds: Microsoft, Apple, ... companies that are unlikely to go bankrupt.

↳ lower risk than Baa → interest ↑

- US gov. long term bonds: "safe haven", ppl take € out of shares and put it here (low risk)



if a company can't pay back 1 bond, it's in default for all their bonds.



Investors aim at knowing as much as possible about the default probability of a bond. This can be done through credit-rating agencies. The most important agencies in this field are:

Moody's, Fitch and S&P. **risk of conflict of interest** (paying them more to get better rating) usually 2 same rating.

CASE STUDY: The global Financial Crisis and the Baa-Treasury Spread

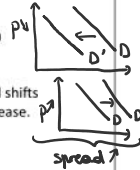
The Financial crisis of 2007, which started with the collapse of the subprime mortgage market shows that credit-rating agencies can be wrong. The latter gave very good ratings to bonds of companies, which ended up not being able to repay their debts.

Questions on the quality of Baa bonds started to arise, the demand fell, whereas the demand for Treasury securities increased. **As a consequence the spread Baa-Treasury increased from 185 to 545 basis points.**

2. **Liquidity:** a liquid asset is one that can be quickly, easily and cheaply converted into cash; the more liquid an asset, the higher the demand *the more liquid, the wider spread*

Example: Corporate bonds becoming less liquid

- As liquidity for Corporate bonds decreases, the demand shifts to the left. As a consequence price decreases and interest rates increase.
- At the same time the Treasury Market becomes more liquid, and the demand shifts to the right. As a consequence the price increases and the interest rates decrease.
- Again the spread Corporate-Treasury grows.



NOTE: The risk premium reflects not only the default risk but also lower liquidity. That is why it is often referred to as **risk and liquidity premium**.

3. **Income tax considerations:**

issued by US gov., practically no risk, long term maturity

NOTE: Municipal bonds have a **lower rate than Treasuries**, as municipalities can default. The possibility of Munis going into default is perfectly illustrated by the **Orange County** (California) example in the early 1990s. *Munis also less liquid.*

AAA → best rating

BaB → medium grade

D → highly speculative
e.g. American Airlines

However, municipal bonds are **exempted from federal income taxes**, a factor having the same effect on the demand for municipal bonds as an increase in their expected return.

Treasury bonds on the other hand are exempted from state and local income taxes, whereas corporate bonds are fully taxable.

The tax advantage of municipal bonds over Treasury Bonds is **higher, the bigger the tax**.

1. Tax-free status shifts demand for municipal bonds to the right.
2. At the same time the demand for Treasury bonds shifts to the left.
3. Municipal bonds end up with a higher price and lower interest rate than on Treasury Bonds.

CASE STUDY: Bush tax cut and Obama repeal on bond interest rates

The 2001 tax cut under Bush reduced the advantage of municipal debt over T-securities, since interest rates on T-securities were taxed at a lower rate.

The Bush tax cuts were finally repealed under President Obama. The advantage of municipal debt increased again, since T-securities were taxed at a higher rate.

2. TERM STRUCTURE

Besides the risk factor, another influence on interest rates is **maturity**.

Yield curve: a curve representing rates at different maturities, used to analyze the behavior of interest rates

Various theories have been developed in order to analyze the term structure of a bond. A good theory must explain why:

EXAM

1. Interest rates for different maturities move together.
2. Yield curves tend to have a steep upward slope when short rates are low and a downward slope when short rates are high.
3. Yield curves are typically upward sloping.



Theories:

1. **Expectations Theory** explains 1 and 2, but not 3

It is assumed that bonds of different maturities are **perfect substitutes**. The expected return on bonds of different maturities is therefore assumed to be equal.

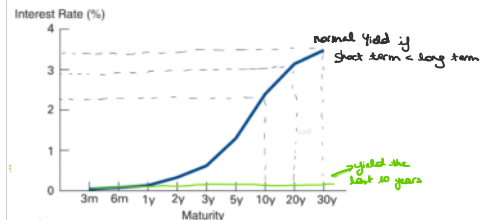
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"lottery bonds" in UK:
return depends on luck, can be exempted from taxes, therefore interesting to investors.

if fed. tax ↑ ⇒ advantage for Muni's ↑
(bcs of tax exemption)

Yield Curve



Central banks were buying bonds → yield ↓

- usually yield on short term < yield on long term
- "rate-cut" = decision by Central Bank to ↓ its main interest value to influence interest rates charged by other institutions.

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

If the theory is correct the expected wealth is the same at the start for two random chosen strategies. Of course in reality the rates may unexpectedly change and the wealth differ.

General formula used: **the interest rate on a long term bond equals the average of short rates expected to occur over life of the long-term bond**

The theory illustrates, that if short rates are **expected to rise** in future, the average of future short rates is above today's short rate, therefore the yield curve is **upward sloping**. On the other hand, if the rates are **expected to fall** the curve will be **downward sloping**, or **flat** if the rates are expected to **stay the same**. (explanation for fact 1)

Furthermore, it shows that when the short rates are low they are expected to rise and the long rate will therefore be above today's short rate: **the curve will have a steep upward slope**.

On the other hand, when the short rates are high they are expected to fall in the future, and the long rate will be below the current short rate: **the curve will have downward slope**. (explanation for fact 2)

no explanation for fact 3: rates are as likely to rise as they are to fall.
→ yield curve won't slope upward.

2. Market Segmentation Theory: explain 3, but not 1 and 2

It is assumed that bonds of different maturities are **not substitutes at all**. The markets are seen as segmented, and interest rates at each maturity are determined **separately**.

The theory explains that **people typically prefer short holding periods**. The demand for short-term bonds is therefore higher, ~~therefore~~ higher prices and lower interest rates. (explanation for fact 3)

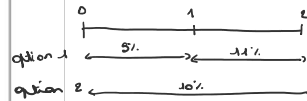
It can not explain fact 1 and 2 as it assumes that various rates are determined independently.

3. Liquidity Premium Theory: combines features of both Expectations and Market Segmentation theory

It is assumed that bonds of different maturities are **substitutes, but not perfect substitutes**.

The theory explains again that people prefer short-term rather than long-term bonds. This therefore implies that investors must be paid a positive **liquidity premium**, to hold long term bonds. The liquidity premium creates again an upward sloping yield curve (explanation for fact 3).

It explains fact 1 and 2 with the same reasoning as the Pure Expectations theory.



⇒ same result if you reinvest at a higher yield than the previous year.

if interest rates are expected to ↑, any future short rates > today's short rate.

if int. rates are expected to ↓,

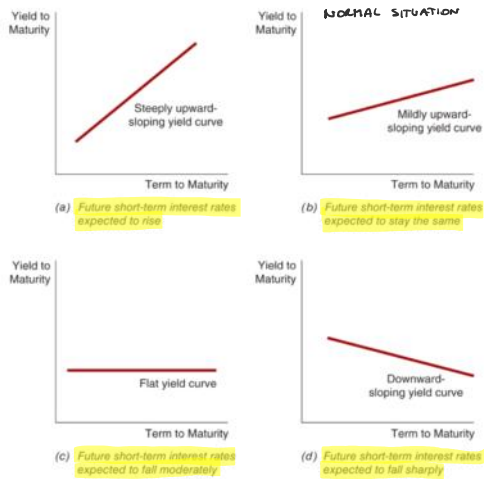
if int. rates are c, (flat)

liquidity premium:

the longer you hold bonds, the more liq. premium you get.
Investing long term → risk, cause interest can meanwhile go up and your € is stuck in the bond. So ⇒ yield is higher to reward

Exam: be able to explain these

Market predictions of future short rates:



Initial research did not find much useful information in the yield curve for predicting interest rates.

Nowadays it is considered a useful tool to analyze short-and long-term rates, but does not provide much information about medium-term rates.

Besides providing information about future interest rates, the yield curve should help forecast inflation and real output production:

- Rising rates are associated with economic booms
- Falling rates are associated with recessions

Junk bonds: Bonds with a rating below BBB; come with a high default risk rate.

Chapter 6: Are financial markets efficient

Expectations are crucial in our financial system.: return, risk, inflation, liquidity
=EMH

To better understand expectations we analyze the efficient market hypothesis. It is a framework to understand what information is useful and what is not.

Rate of return: sum of capital gains plus any cash payments

The EMH sees expectations as an optimal forecast when using all available information.

It predicts that:

$R^o_f = R^*$
optimal forecast equilibrium rate of return
⇒ A security's price fully reflects all available information in an efficient market

The hypothesis predicts that all available information are reflected in today's share price in and efficient market. all unexploited profit opportunities are eliminated

Furthermore it assumes that the market is always right.

The idea behind the EMH is that when an unexploited profit opportunity on a security arises, investors rush to buy until the price rises to the point that the returns are normal again. In an efficient market however, all unexploited profit opportunities will be eliminated.

NOTE: It is crucial to acknowledge that not every investor needs to be aware of the situation. A few suffice to eliminate the unexploited profit opportunities. By doing so, they make a profit themselves.

NOTE: The EMH holds even if there are uninformed, irrational participants in the market.

Favorable evidence for the EMH:

1. **Investment analysts and mutual funds do not beat the market:** approximately 90% of mutual funds underperform. Beating the market would only be possible through insider trading, which is illegal.
Mini-Case: Raj Rajaratnam: investor who ended up in jail due to insider trading
2. **Stock prices reflect publicly available information:** anticipated announcements do not affect the price: previously announced information does not bring about changes as it is already reflected in the price.
3. **Stock prices and exchange rates close to random walk are unpredictable:** if stock prices were fully predictable price changes would be near zero and this has never been the case.
4. **Technical analysis does not outperform the market:** although there are a few very good technical analysts, the EMH states that it is useless to set up rules trying to predict the behavior of stocks.

if $R^o_f < R^* \rightarrow p \downarrow \rightarrow R^* \downarrow \rightarrow R^o_f = R^*$
 $R^o_f > R^* \rightarrow p \uparrow \rightarrow R^* \uparrow \rightarrow R^o_f = R^*$

insider information → press release
→ analysis → immediate effect on price

→ cause if people knew stock
will go down → sell → $p \downarrow$
→ go up → buy → $p \uparrow$

Unfavorable evidence for the EMH:

1. **Small-firm effect**: small firms tend to have higher share prices than bigger firms; this is considered an anomaly as it should be harder to find buyers and seller for small firms due to a higher risk exposure etc. (can be due to low liquidity of small firm stocks)
2. **January effect**: tendency of stock prices to have an abnormal positive return in January due to taxation; investors sell shares in December in order to take capital losses on tax return and reduce the tax liability and buy the stocks again when then new year starts → meaning predictable behavior. Contradicts EMH theory.

Window-dressing: make your portfolio look better than what it is

3. **Market overreaction**: consequence of emotional investing; stock prices may overreact to news announcements investor could buy everything in Dec. and sell again when Jan. has driven the prices up → not all profit opportunities are eliminated → Violates EMH
4. **Excessive volatility**: volatility = fluctuations in the stock prices
5. **Mean reversion**: stocks with low returns today tend to have higher returns in the future and vice versa → indicates a predictable positive change in future price → stock prices are not random-walk.
6. **New info is not always immediately incorporated into stock prices**
Stock prices do not instantaneously adjust to new info. They still take some time.

Implications for investing:

- Be aware of how valuable reports are : they aren't.
- Be skeptical of hot tips : insider information is illegal.
- Remember that the market sometimes is slow to react, meaning that stock prices do not rise immediately. Stock prices only respond to new & unexpected info.
- Do not overestimate your own/someone else's judgement: the EMH is only a prescription
- Do not try to outguess the market by constantly buying and selling: especially as a small investor you incur very high commission costs.

A possible strategy is the "buy and hold" strategy, meaning that it is advised to buy stocks and hold them for longer periods of time. In average this leads to the same returns, but to higher net profits, considering that the brokerage commissions are reduced. John Bogle is an investor who followed this strategy and became very successful.

"buy everything & never sell"

It is also advised, especially for small investors to buy into **trackers or mutual funds**.

Back to the EMH, it states that:

1. **Expectations are rational**
2. **Prices are always correct** (*reflect all info*)
3. **Prices reflect the market**

Three implications result from these statements:

- One investment is as good as any other: **stock picking is useless**
- Prices reflect **all information**
- **The cost of capital can be determined from security prices**

Bubble: situation in which the price of an asset differs from its fundamental market value.

Behavioral finance: try to find a human behavior on financial markets

psychology, sociology
"loss aversion"

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

Chapter 7: Why do Financial Institutions exist

A vibrant economy requires a good financial system that moves funds from savers to borrowers.

Facts of Financial Structure:

1. Stocks are not the most important source of external financing for businesses. Bonds are popular in the US, Bank loans in Europe / Japan.
2. Issuing marketable debt and equity securities is not the primary way in which businesses finance their operations.
3. Indirect finance, which involves the activities of financial intermediaries, is many times more important than direct finance.
4. Financial intermediaries, are the most important source of external funds used to finance businesses.
5. The financial system is among the most heavily regulated sectors of economy.
6. Only large, well-established corporations have easy access to securities markets to finance their activities. They have a lot of published & well-documented info. → more transparent towards investors.
7. Collateral is a prevalent feature of debt contracts for both households and businesses. → all assets the bank can get their hands on in case of fin. trouble.
8. Debt contracts are typically extremely complicated legal documents.

• Transaction costs:

Transaction costs can hinder the flow of funds to people with productive investment opportunities. providing a loan is much quicker than a bond.

Financial intermediaries make profits by taking advantage of economies of scale and thereby reducing transaction costs. f.e. mutual funds

• Agency theory:

→ company knows more info than the bank. Bank however has the right to find out if they're providing a loan.

Lemons: bad, used cars

The Lemons Problem: How adverse selection influences financial structure

1. If we can't distinguish between good and bad securities, we are willing to pay only average of good and bad securities' value
2. Result: Good securities are undervalued and firms won't issue them, bad securities

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Asymmetric Information Problem	Tools to Solve It	Explains Fact Number
Adverse selection	Private production and sale of information	1, 2
	Government regulation to increase information	5
	Financial intermediation	3, 4, 6
Moral hazard in equity contracts (principal-agent problem)	Collateral and net worth	7
	Production of information: monitoring	1
	Government regulation to increase information	5
Moral hazard in debt contracts	Financial intermediation	3
	Debt contracts	1
	Collateral and net worth	6, 7
	Monitoring and enforcement of restrictive covenants	8
	Financial intermediation	3, 4

Due Diligence: the steps an organization takes to investigate another before initiating a business agreement.

Moral hazard → after transaction occurs

Adverse selection → before a transaction occurs

↳ one party is better informed than the other

↳ people who are more in fin. trouble are more likely to seek loans → produce adverse outcome.

"if my company is going bankrupt anyway, might as well let the bank take over & try and save the company"

mispriced products & taking advantage of unwary customers who get high price

↓
reputation of the market ↓

price go ↓

people selling fairly priced (good) products don't sell them anymore

↓
REGULATIONS ARE CREATED TO PROTECT THESE MARKETS

ADVERSE SELECTION
MORAL HAZARD

Explain → 1, 2, 6

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

are overvalued so too many issue leading to an inefficient market. *to avoid free-riders (= ppl who don't pay for the info, use research produced by others)*

Possible solutions to problems of Adverse selection can be a **private production and sale of information or government intervention** (annual audits f.eg).

The Enron Case: *proves why this doesn't eliminate the problem.* *↳ makes info accessible.*

Enron used to be a very successful firm engaged in energy trading. In 2001 however, the firm entered into severe financial difficulties, but did not report the latter. Its auditor Arthur Andersen even plead guilty to obstruction of justice charges. The Enron Case was one of the biggest scandals of the past decades.

Collateral: the most famous form of collateral is mortgage. It's a scenario where the borrower gives an object as a kind of "security" to the lender, meaning that he does not own it directly anymore. In case the borrower is not able to repay the loan, the lender can sell the object.

Moral hazard in equity contracts: The Principal-Agent problem

The principal-agent problem is a conflict in **priorities between a person or group and the representative authorized to act on their behalf.**

An example of the Principal-Agent problem is the conflict between Principal (owner/shareholder) and CEO.

It can result in:

1. Separation of ownership from control
2. Managers acting in own interest

The Principal-Agent problem can be solved by:

1. Production on Information : Monitoring
2. Government regulation to increase information
3. Financial intermediation
4. Debt contracts

Explains

Especially listed companies' info needs to be checked thoroughly - otherwise you risk f.e. Wallstreet becoming a lemon market. Small investors need to be protected: they don't have the means to do all the research.

The more intermediaries are investigating, the better.
F.e. venture capital = form of private equity that investors provide to startup companies & small businesses that have high potential in the long run. (risky though)

Moral hazard in debt contracts:

NOTE that debt will always be subject to moral hazard, as it creates the incentive to take on very risky projects.

Net worth plays a role in borrowing: it's easier to get a loan when you're rich.

Moral Hazard:

↳ occurs when one party has an incentive to behave differently once an agreement is made between the parties.

↳ after the transaction occurs

↳ danger that borrower has reasons to engage in immoral activities.

Amoral → you don't care if I have got it's money back (Trump f.e.)

Moral hazard in debt contracts can be solved by:

1. **Net worth and collateral**
2. **Monitoring, Enforcement of restrictive Covenants**
 - Covenants are f.e. Discourage undesirable behavior, encourage desirable behavior, keep collateral valuable, provide information..
 - f.e. company wants to sell money making departments, but will discourage it.*
 - f.e. mandatory fire insurance to keep moral hazard limited.*
3. **Financial Intermediation**
 - banks f.e. have special advantages in monitoring*

Explains

Financial repression:

Financial repression includes government regulations, laws etc. that prevent financial intermediaries to work at full capacity. It is proven to lead to low growth.

Reasons causing financial repression are:

1. **Poor legal systems**
Political instability f.e.
2. **Weak accounting standards**
If f.e. you don't use the global accounting standards
3. **Government directs credit**
State-owned banks → bad! The gov. then decides who gets money & who doesn't.
4. **Financial institutions which have been nationalized**
Not based on research, but rather connections.
"as 3, the companies that the gov. likes most will survive → problematic"
5. **Inadequate government regulation**

Note that financial repression can lead to a **financial crisis**. A financial crisis is a major disruption in financial markets. It results in the inability to channel funds from savers to productive investment opportunities.

China can be seen as a Counter-example for this. The country has a booming economy, whereas the financial developments are in its early stages. This is due to the fact, that people's **savings are very high**. To continue its growth, China needs to start allocating capital more efficiently or it will end up in a crisis. *They believe more into assets, cause less regulation → more fraud.*

Mini-Case: Should we kill all the lawyers

Legal work in financial relationships is mostly about contract enforcement. It is used to establish and maintain important property rights, without which investment opportunities would be limited.

Conflict of interest:

It is a type of moral hazard that occurs when a person or institution has multiple interests, and serving one interest is detrimental to the other. *mostly you'll chase what's best for you.*

In financial institutions we generally consider 3 types of conflicts:

1. **Underwriting and research in Investment Banking:**
Investment Banks can research companies and underwrite securities for sale.
Research should be unbiased and accurate. Considering that Underwriters have it easier if research is positive, if a company acts as both it may lead to a conflict of interest between the interests of the firm and the public. *Solution: no report allowed for 90 days to avoid forcing the reporter to write a (falsely) positive report.*
It may lead to **spinning**: underpriced equity is allocated to executives who will promise future business to the investment bank, shareprice goes through the roof
2. **Auditing and Consulting in Accounting firms:**
Auditors: check the books of a firm and assess their quality and accuracy: the goal is an unbiased opinion of the firm's financial health
Consultants: for a fee, help firms with managerial, strategic and operational decisions
hires someone who
Again, if a firm acts as both, the opinions are clearly not objective, especially when the consulting fees are high and it leads to a conflict of interest.
3. **Credit assessment and Consulting in Rating Agencies:**
Rating agencies: assign credit rating to a security issuance of a firm. The ratings are used to assess the riskiness of a security.
Consultants: for a fee, help firms with managerial, strategic and operational decisions
hires someone who
Again, if a firm acts as both it leads to a conflict of interest, especially if the

VOC: - spinning
- agency theory
- lemons problem
- adverse selection maybe
- due diligence
- Sarbanes-Oxley Act *look it up*

*The bank helped the company get €,
so the analyst will write a positive report.
(otherwise trust in investment bank is)
↓
forcing the reporter to write a (falsely) positive report.
against ENH
→ investment bank offers under-priced*

*shares of a company's IPO to executives
of a 3rd party, in exchange for future
business with the bank.*

used to assess the riskiness of a security.

Consultants: for a fee, help firms with managerial, strategic and operational decisions

~~hires someone who~~
Again, if a firm acts as both it leads to a conflict of interest, especially if the consulting fees are high.

Remedies against Conflict of interest:

1. **Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002**

EXAM

- Establishment of oversight board supervising accounting firms
- Increased SEC's budget SEC = securities & exchange commission
- Limited consulting relationships auditors-firms
- Enhanced criminal charges for obstruction
- Higher quality of financial statements and boards
- US has very strict regulation to avoid another "Enron-case".

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

2. **Global Legal Settlement of 2002**

- Severe link between research and underwriting in investment banks
- Spinning is banned
- Additional requirements on independence of research reports

Chapter 8: Financial Crisis

Financial crises are major disruptions in financial markets characterized by a sharp decline in asset prices and firm failures.

The basis for understanding of a financial crisis is the study of moral hazard and adverse selection. There will always be risk → moral hazard & adverse selection will always be there. Although there are many regulations trying to eliminate both, they are still present.

Sequence of events in a financial crisis:

1. **Initiation of Financial Crisis:** Deterioration in Financial Institutions' Balance Sheets, Asset-Price decline, Increase in uncertainty
2. **Banking Crisis:** Economic activity declines, Banking Crisis, Adverse Selection and Moral Hazard problems worsen and lending contracts, economic activity declines
3. **Debt Deflation:** unanticipated decline in price level, adverse selection and moral hazard problems worsen and lending contracts, economic activity declines

A financial crisis can begin in several ways:

- **bank in trouble**
- **Credit boom and bust:** due to mismanagement of financial liberalization or innovation. The government safety nets weaken incentives for risk management, depositor ignore risk-taking and eventually losses accrue. Deleveraging starts.
- **real estate / stock trouble**
- **Asset-price boom and bust:** a pricing bubble starts, where asset values exceed their fundamental value. When the bubble bursts and prices fall, net worth falls as well. Moral hazard increases, deleveraging starts.
- **Increase in uncertainty:** caused by f.e.g. a stock market crash, the failure of a major financial institution

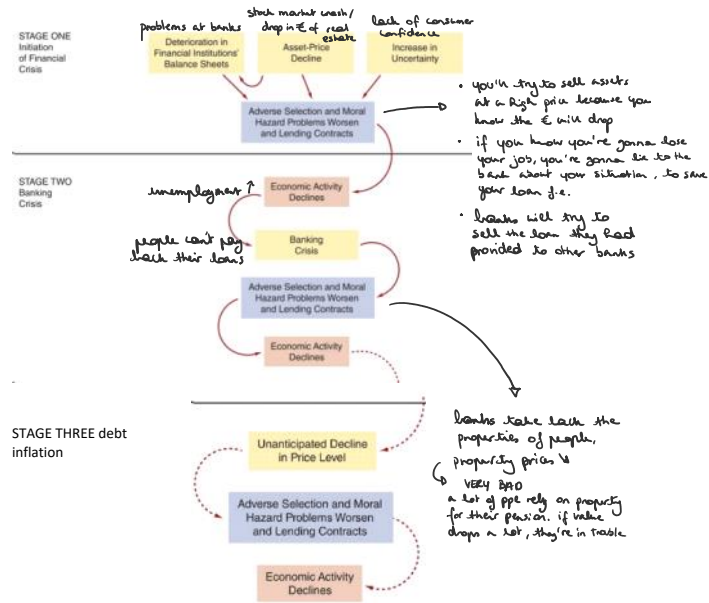
Deleveraging: financial institutions cut back in lending, there's less money to be found.

As a consequence of deleveraging, **no one is left to evaluate firms**. The financial system loses its primary institutions to address adverse selection and moral hazard. Furthermore loans become scarce.

Financial institutions start deteriorating balance sheets and are caused into **insolvency**. If severe enough, this can lead to a bank panic and bank run.

The institutions must sell assets quickly, as cash balances fall, further deteriorating their balance sheets.

This can lead to a sharp decline in prices and debt deflation.



STAGE ONE: "credit boom": banks forget about crisis, they give everyone a loan & say go ahead. even to people who shouldn't be getting a loan.

⇒ more loan - losses ⇒ capital loss

first shareholders lose the value of the capital they invested. then the owners who gave their ϵ to the bank. → very bad, that's why there's regulation.

⇒ deleveraging

(SVB = Silicon Valley Bank) → SVB got into trouble here. they needed to sell gov. bonds because people were losing trust & taking their ϵ back. SVB had to sell those gov. bonds at lower levels (interest rates \uparrow a lot) ⇒ collapse SVB.

"Asset-price boom": you'll lie to save your money → moral hazard

STAGE TWO: if you're worried about your ϵ , you'll take it out of the bank. if a lot of ppl do this → bank bankrupt.

⇒ bad balance sheets ⇒ bank sell assets (mostly good ones, bad ones no one buys) ⇒ balance sheet is even worse

STAGE THREE: "debt deflation": deflation = value ϵ is \downarrow

⇒ nominal value of your debt \uparrow

real value of your debt \uparrow !

↳ in real terms: assets \downarrow , debt \uparrow is

1920' → Econ was great, banks invested ϵ no banks went bankrupt after stock collapse.

bad climate ⇒ bad agriculture

farmers couldn't pay back loans ⇒ fin. crisis

Credit spread went from 2% → 8%.

(= difference in yield between 2 debt securities of the same maturity, but diff quality)

unemployment was 25% 0-0

Central Bank also didn't take responsibility: interest rates were too low, they claimed they weren't.

banks didn't care because the risk wasn't theirs. they would just sell to SPV's.

new financial products

rating agencies: typically gave CDO's AAA rating.

↳ believed that it was a safe investment in real estate

Debt deflation: asset prices fall, but debt levels do not adjust, thereby increasing debt burdens

CASES:

1. The Great Depression

no extreme poverty

Starting from 1928/29 stock prices doubled in the US until the stock market collapsed by the end of 1929. A normal recession turned into a disaster, when severe droughts in the Midwest led to a sharp decline in agricultural production. In the following years many banks went out of business. Firms with productive uses were unable to get financing, credit spreads and unemployment increased.

Bank panics in the US spread to the rest of the world, decreasing the demand for foreign goods. Results were a rising discontent which led to the rise of fascism and WWII.

2. The Global Financial Crisis of 2007-2009

Financial innovation in mortgage markets:

risky

→ less-than-credit worthy borrowers found the ability to purchase homes through subprime lending

Subprime lending: mortgage likely to get into trouble

↳ junk mortgages

Agency problems in mortgage markets:

→ banks didn't care if customers got into trouble: Mortgage originators did not hold the actual mortgage, but sold the note in the secondary market.

The role of asymmetric information in the credit rating process:

→ agencies didn't wanna lose clients

actual mortgage, but sold the note in the secondary market.

- **The role of asymmetric information in the credit rating process:**

- > agencies didn't wanna lose clients
- > debt design was not addressable for rating system, which resulted in meaningless ratings which investors relied on

new fin. products which got AAA rating

CDO: Collateralized Debt Obligations: bad lending taken out of BS of the bank and sold to an SPV "repackaged loans"

In a CDO securities/tranches are created based on default priorities, whereas the highest rated tranches suffer defaults last.

The tranches are divided into:

1. Super senior: highest ranked
2. Senior
3. Mezzanine \pm like a bond, with extra return if the company does well
4. Equity worthless, you only get € if 100% of people pay back all their loans.

Note that in real life it is often difficult to determine what a cash flow is worth.

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new financial products

rating agencies: typically gave CDO's AAA rating.

↳ believed that if there was trouble in real estate market, some ppl wouldn't be able to pay back their loan but most would be. → they based this on old statistics tho!

+ conflict of interest: banks paid rating agencies to assess companies, if r.a. gave bad score, bank would pay another r.a. for a better score.

SPV = Special purpose vehicle = a company that was set up

Specifically to buy assets from the bank, bank gets €, can give out loans again

⇒ risk of bank's

SPV got € from issuing a CDO to investors

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

SPV (special purpose vehicle): created to buy assets, create securities from those assets and sell those to investors → company with special purpose; a kind of financial intermediary between investors and financial intermediary.

Many suffered during the financial crisis of 2007-2009. We specifically consider:

1. **US residential housing:** the underwriting standard fell, people were buying houses they could not afford. The lending standards allowed for nearly 100% financing, so owners had little to lose by defaulting when the housing bubble burst.

Note: some experts argue that the low interest rates from 2003 to 2006 further fueled the housing bubble

→ Central Bank's fault

2. **Fis balance sheet:** banks and other FI saw the value of their assets fall and the deleveraging process began. Banks started selling their assets and restrict the credit. A further fall in the stock market and rise in credit spread weakened the BS, finally causing a contraction.

3. **Shadow banking system:**

Shadow bank: company with often a hedge or money market fund that provides loans

4. **Global financial markets**

5. **Failure of major financial firms**

Sep 2007: **Northern Rock:** a bank relying on other FIs for funding, which was therefore left without funding. they were rescued by the gov.

Mar 2008: **Bear Stearns:** failed and was sold to JP Morgan

Sep 2008: **Freddie Mac and Fannie May:** both were semi US-government organizations which were listed on the NYSE

Sep 2008: **Lehman Brothers:** filed for bankruptcy. This event took all the confidence in the Markets away. they weren't rescued.

Sep 2008: **Merrill Lynch:** sold to Bank of America

Sep 2008: **AIG:** liquidity crisis

The Financial Crisis of 2007 caused the worst economic contraction since WW2.

It peaked in 2008. Eventually in March 2009, a bull market started, having the credit spreads fall and stock prices rising again.

3 biggest BE banks needed to be rescued as well.

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3. The European Sovereign Debt Crisis: The Eurocrisis

Up until 2007, all countries that had adopted the euro found **their interest rates converging to very low levels**.

At the same time, many countries were hit very hard, due to:

- Lower tax revenue from economic contraction
- High outlays for FI bailouts
- Fear of default causing rates to surge

Greece was the first domino to fall. It was heavily affected by **fraud in previous governments**. As soon as the real numbers were published, the interest rates and the debt started rising due to fear of default. The country needed to be **saved by the IMF, the EU, and the ECB**. Yet unemployment rates climbed and the country was left with huge bailouts to deal with.

Other countries, such as Ireland, Portugal, Spain, and Italy followed putting doubts on the survival of the EURO project.

↳ Panic. But it was saved. certainty ↑
trust ↑

↳ they tried about how well they were doing in order to join Eurozone.

Chapter 9: Central Banks

The actions of a Central Bank affect:

→ Interest rates

The amount of credit

→ And the money supply

All these actions directly impact the financial markets, but also the aggregate demand and inflation.

Federal Reserve: Central Bank of the US

Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC): meets and takes decisions about open market operations, interest rates, tightens monetary policies or eases them

Ease or tighten?

Depend on:

The Economy: period of growth or recession?

→ Inflation: too high or too low

Central banker: Hawk or dove:

A (monetary) hawk: someone who advocates keeping inflation low as the top priority in monetary policy

A (monetary) dove: someone who pays more attention to other aspects of the economy such as low unemployment

Central banks mainly deal with 3 research documents:

1. **Green book:** detailed national forecast for the next 3 years
2. **Blue book:** projections of the monetary aggregates with three alternative scenarios for monetary policy decisions
3. **Beige book:** state of the economy in each of the Federal Reserve districts is distributed publicly.

Paul Volcker: Important Fed chair, who was 2 times to fight inflation of almost 15%

Volcker rule: proposes to restrict speculation and prop positions in Central Banks. According to Volcker greed is often a motive for trouble, which may lead to crisis.

Proposition: workers' bank who can invest the money of Central Banks on a financial market.

Often a question on the independence of central banks arises. A bank is independent if it not depends on a country. Although research has proven that independent central banks lead to lower inflation.

The European Central Bank:

- Based in Frankfurt, controlling 19 countries. Germany is one of the largest European economies.
- It was set up after the introduction of the digital euro in 1999.
- It is independent

Chapter 10: Monetary Policy

Goals of Central Bank:

1. Price stability
2. Currency stability
3. Interest rate stability
4. Financial stability
5. Sustainable growth
6. Low unemployment
7. Stability of the financial markets
8. Confidence
9. Lender of last resort

What does a balance sheet of Central Bank look like?

ASSETS: government securities, discount loans

LIABILITIES: currency in circulation

Repo Repurchase Agreement:

A repurchase agreement is an open market transaction. It includes Central banks creating opportunities for banks to borrow money. Participants of a Repo are commercial banks that borrow money from central banks on a regular basis.

Quantitative Easing:

Quantitative easing on the other hand is a nonconventional monetary policy tool that Central Banks create money by using reserves but by buying a lot of government bonds from the financial market.

Central banks should also prevent asset price bubbles that can cause a crash. This can sometimes be costly or ineffective.

Stocks:

1. Represent ownership in a firm
2. Earn a return

Note that a return on stocks is earned in two ways:

- As the price of the stock rises over time
- When dividends are paid to the stockholder (not done by every company) usually share price is a bit because company loses £ by paying out dividends

Dividends: part of the profit of a company

3. Stockholders have claim on all assets
4. Holders of stocks have the right to vote for directors and on certain issues
5. Two types:
 - Common stock: with right to vote and to receive dividends
 - Preferred stock: no right to vote, but receive a fixed dividend usually become common stock after a while

How stocks are sold:

Stocks are traded on organized exchanges. Such as:

- New York Stock Exchange
- Euronext
- ~~Nikkei~~ index
- LSE London stock exchange
- ~~FTSE~~ index

3 organized platforms

- OTC
- ECNs = electronic communication network
- organized exchanges f.e. NYSE

The word organized is used to imply a specific trading location. In recent times computer systems (ECNs) have replaced this idea.

Electronic communication networks (ECNs):

official, traditional stock exchange → therefore cheaper

allow brokers and traders to deal without the need of a middleman, thereby providing transparency, cost reduction, faster execution, and after-hours trading.

now official stock exchanges are a lot more than bcs of competition ECNs
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Shares don't pay interest
bond = tradeable debt
shares = tradeable equity

ECN's

- PROS :
- transparency
 - cost reduction
 - faster execution
 - after-hours trading (however it's big spread)

- CONS :
- only work with big amounts
 - regulation : small investors are supposed to be protected, ECN's are competing for volume → confusing ?
 - major exchanges are fighting ECN's
 - ↳ prof says Amazon / Facebook / ... might be used for stock exchange in the future O-O

Listing requirements generally exclude small firms due to **tough regulations and high costs**. → only large sums of € are traded on EUN's

On the other hand, stocks can also be traded in **Over-the-counter markets**. The best example for such a market is **NASDAQ**.

In such markets, dealers stand **ready to make a market**, meaning that multiple dealers set bids and ask prices.

Thinly-traded securities, are generally traded on such platforms.

Exchange Traded Funds (ETF): f.e. S&P 500

Recent innovation to help keep **transaction costs down while offering diversification**.

ETFs represent a basket of securities or an index, whereas the exact content of the basket is known. They are traded on a major exchange, with very low management fees.

Stocks are valued by determining the cash flow and discounting them to the present.

4 different methods can be used to facilitate the process:

1. **One-period valuation model:** expected dividend and price over the next year
2. **Generalized dividend valuation model:** most general model, but the infinite sum may not converge
3. **Gordon growth model:** similar to the One-period valuation model but we assume that the dividend grows at a constant rate, g
4. **Price Earnings Valuation model:** analysis of how much the market is willing to pay for 1 dollar of earnings from the firms

All these models provide very useful information, but they encounter problems: **errors in valuation**

- **With estimating growth**
Just because you / an analyst calculated a probable drop/rise in the growth, doesn't mean it'll actually happen. You use numbers the company itself provides → not always reliable, too optimistic / pessimistic
- **With estimating risk**
black swans
- **With forecasting dividends**
very hard to predict

In general, prices are set in **competitive markets**.

The price is set by the buyer who is willing to pay the most, as he is considered the one who can make the best use of an asset.

Case: The 2007-2009 Financial Crisis and the stock market:
the credit crisis

The financial crisis of 2007-2009 was the start of one of the worst bear markets. It lowered the growth factor, g in the Gordon Growth model, thereby driving down stock prices. Furthermore, the high uncertainty further weakened the prices.

index fund = tracker

most ETF's are trackers

traditional fund vs ETF

you can trade almost anytime during the day, fast transactions
you can trade a while

PE = price earnings ratio

conservatively pessimistic

"black swans" → unpredictable, rare events that influence the economy (f.e. war)



separate

"Mr Market" = imaginary investor who is prone to erratic swings of optimism/pessimism

Case: 9/11 and Enron

Again, both events had a negative impact on the stock prices. *↳ made regulation improve*

Stock market Indexes:

The latter are often used to **monitor the behavior of a group of stocks**.
The most famous indexes include the Dow Jones Industrial average, the S&P 500 and the Nasdaq composite.

Buying Foreign Stocks

Buying foreign stocks is useful from a **diversification** point of view.

American depository receipts (ADR):

ADRs allow foreign firms to trade on US exchanges, facilitating their purchases. US banks buy foreign shares and issue receipts against these in US markets. *↳ you don't actually buy a share, but a representation of the share*

Regulation:

The SEC (security and exchange commission) plays a primary role in regulating the financial markets. **The primary mission is to protect investors and maintain the integrity of security markets.**

Divisions of the SEC:

1. **Division of Corporate finance:** responsible for collecting, reviewing and making available all of the documents
2. **Division of Market regulation:** establishes and maintains rules for efficient markets *↳ e.g. Elon Musk posting on X about his company*
3. **Division of investment management:** oversees and regulates the investment management industry
4. **Division of enforcement:** investigates violations of the rules and regulations established by other divisions *↳ you get serious fines*

1 ADR = 1 share, can be more less

Chapter 12: Bonds

Capital Market:

Maturity greater than one year, typically used for long-term financing or investments

Participants:

Purchaser: You and Me

Issuers: federal and local governments: debt issuer

Corporations: equity and debt issuers

Trading:

1. Primary market for initial sale
have been issued, company hasn't received € yet.
2. Secondary market:
settlement date
 - Over-the-counter (bonds)
in trading rooms in banks.
 - Organized exchanges (stocks)

Types:

Bonds are securities that represent debt owed by the issuer to the investor, and typically have specified payments on specific dates.

1. **Treasury Notes:** the US Treasury issues notes and bonds to finance its operations

- **Treasury Bill:** less than 1 year
- **Treasury Note:** 1 to 10 years
- **Treasury Bond:** 10 to 30 years

Treasury Bonds have no default risk, since the Treasury can print money to payoff the debt. Furthermore, they have very low interest rates which are often referred to as "risk-free rates". Gov. can just print more € → less risk.

Treasury Inflation-Indexed Securities: principal amount is tied to the current rate of inflation to protect investor purchasing power. he calls these "TIPS" you can't be sure about the rate of inflation in 10 years

Treasury STRIPS: coupon and principal payments are "stripped" from a T-bond and sold as individual zero-coupon bonds

Agency debt:

to help poor people with mortgages

Bonds issued by government-sponsored entities, such as **GNMA** (Ginny May) or **FNMA** (Fannie May).

This entities suffered a hard draw-back during the crisis of 2007-2009.

↳ went bankrupt

money market < 1y
capital market > 1y → bonds

"when-issued" / "grey market": trading when the fin. instrument hasn't been created yet. If the share never makes it to the primary market → all transactions get cancelled

bonds issued by gov.
if $\pi = 12\%$, it must also be 12% .
interest is $x\% + \text{inflation } \%$

the interest you're supposed to receive
all coupons on a bond, which you usually collect (some) annually you cut them off the bond in 1 go and sell all of them as separate zero-bonds.

only after a specific amount of time, you'll get the €

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

Exempted from taxes, rel. high return.

2. **Municipal Bonds:** issued by local, county, and state governments and used to finance public interest projects

→ can go bankrupt!
they can't print more €

Tax-free municipal interest rate = taxable interest rate * (1 - Marginal tax rate)

Two types:

- General obligation bonds: e.g. Build a bridge
General purpose
- Revenue bonds: linked to a specific project, financing something that's gonna bring revenue

Municipal bonds are not default-free.

3. **Corporate Bonds:** typically with a face value of 1000 dollars, pay interest semi-annually in the US and annually in Europe

Corporate bonds can not be redeemed anytime the issuer wishes, unless a specific clause exists (call option).

The degree of risk varies with each bond. As a consequence also the required interest rate varies. → *subordinate bonds*

Restrictive Covenants: different credit rating on the bonds (compared to the company issuing them) depending on the risk level.

Restrictive covenants describe things that a company may or may not do. They are used to mitigate conflicts with shareholder interests and may limit dividends. Usually they include a **cross-default clause**.

Conversion:

The process of converting bonds into shares.
Note that not all debt can be converted into equity.

Secured bonds: mortgage bonds

Some kind of guarantee is given to bondholders.

Unsecured bonds: debentures, subordinated debentures, variable-rate bonds (no fixed interest rate)

floating-rate =

you take a lot of risk, if company goes bankrupt, you're the last to receive €.

Junk bonds: debt that is rated below BBB, issued by companies likely to go bankrupt

Financial guarantees for bonds:

Some debt issuers purchase financial guarantees to lower the risk of their debt. The guarantee provides for timely payment of interest and principal and are often backed up by large insurance companies.

Credit Default Swap: insurance that you get your money back in case of default of the issuer

CDS

price of the CDS = credit spread.

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EXAM

Call option → gives the company the option of paying back the debt earlier

put option → gives investor the possibility to get his € back earlier (on the put option date)

→ f.e. you can't sell certain money-generating parts of your company.

• **Mortgage bond:** issued by banks. they have a mortgage linked to them. f.e. there's no bank who has a mortgage on your office building, your issued bond will be linked to the building so that if you go bankrupt, you still have the building to pay back debt.
→ to help companies have extra guarantee

• **second use:** if bank who issued bond goes bankrupt, you have the right to get the property of the people who couldn't pay back their mortgage.

BOND YIELD CALCULATIONS:

Coupon yield current yield yield to maturity
WORST ————— BEST

- Coupon yield takes coupon into account
- Current yield takes into account the € of the bond and the coupon.
- YTM takes those + maturity into account when calc. your return.

FIM THEORY SUMMARY

Bond Yield calculations:

Cash flows are identified and discounted to the present.

Coupon interest rate:

The stated annual interest rate on the bond; usually fixed for the life of a bond

Current yield:

The coupon interest payment divided by the current market price of the bond

Face amount:

The maturity value of the bond.

~~Indemnity~~

The contract that accompanies a bond and specifies the terms of the loan agreement

Market rate:

The interest rate currently in effect in the market for securities of like risk and maturity

Maturity:

The number of years or periods until the bond matures and the holder is paid for the face amount

Par value:

The number of years or periods until the bond matures and the holder is paid for the face amount

Par value:

The same as face amount

Yield to maturity:

The yield an investor will earn if the bond is purchased at the current market price and held until maturity

Investing:

- Bonds are typically less risky than equity, even though they still include a price risk and interest rate risk