

EE432 Monetary Theory and Policy



Lecture 3 The Risk and Term Structure of Interest Rates

Dr. Chamadanai Marknual

Faculty of Economics, Thammasat University

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Outline

- Bond Price and Bond Yield
- Risk Structure of Interest Rates
- Bond Rating
- Term Structure of Interest Rates

Chapter 6



Bonds, Bond Prices, and the Determination of Interest Rates

Bond Price and Bond Yield

*Note: Basic concepts of bond pricing
and risk structure of interest rates are taken from Chapter 6*

Bond Prices

- A **standard bond** specifies the **fixed amounts to be paid** and the **exact dates of the payments**.

Bond price: *How much should you be willing to pay for a bond?*

- That *depends on the bond characteristics*.

Terminology for Bonds and Loans

- **Principal** *given to borrower* when *loan is made*
 - **Simple loan** = principal + interest repaid at one date
- **Fixed-payment loan:** *series of (often equal) repayments*
- **Bond** is *issued at some price*
- **Face Value** (aka **Par**) is *repayment at maturity date*
- **Zero coupon bond** *pays only face value at maturity*
- **Coupon bond** also *makes **periodic coupon payments**, equal to *coupon rate times face value**

Bonds and Loans

Zero-coupon or discount bond

- Promise a *single payment* on a future date

Fixed-payment loan

- Sequence of fixed payments

Coupon bond

- *Periodic interest payments + principal repayment* at maturity

Zero-Coupon Bonds

- **Treasury bills** are the most *straightforward type of bond*.
 - Each treasury bill represents a *promise* by the government *to pay \$100 on a fixed future date*.
 - *No coupon payments* - **zero-coupon bonds**
 - Also called pure **discount bonds** since the *price is less than face value* - they sell at a discount.
- **Price of \$100 face value** zero-coupon bond

$$= \frac{\$100}{(1+i)^n}$$

Zero-Coupon Bonds

Price of \$100 face value zero-coupon

Assume $i = 5\%$

Price of a **One-Year Treasury Bill**

$$= \frac{100}{(1 + 0.05)} = \$95.24$$

Price of a **Six-Month Treasury Bill**

$$= \frac{100}{(1 + 0.05)^{1/2}} = \$97.59$$

Zero-Coupon Bonds

- When the *price movement* is observed, the *interest rate moves* with it, in the *opposite direction*
- We can *compute* the *interest rate* from the price using the *present value formula*

The *price* of a one-year T-bill is \$95

$$i = (\$100/\$95) - 1 = 0.0526 = \underline{5.26\%}$$

Fixed-Payment Loans

Conventional *home mortgages* and *car loans* are **fixed-payment loans**.

- They *promise* a fixed number of ***equal payments*** at *regular intervals*.
- **Amortized loans** - the borrower **pays off part of the principal** along with the **interest** for the *life of the loan*.

- **Value of a Fixed Payment Loan**

$$\frac{\textit{FixedPayment}}{(1+i)} + \frac{\textit{FixedPayment}}{(1+i)^2} + \dots + \frac{\textit{FixedPayment}}{(1+i)^n}$$

- The ***sum of the present value*** of the payments.

Coupon Bonds

- The issuer of a **coupon bond** promises to make a ***series of periodic interest payments (coupon payments)***, plus a ***principal payment at maturity***.

Price of Coupon Bond =

$$P_{CB} = \left[\frac{\text{CouponPayment}}{(1+i)^1} + \frac{\text{CouponPayment}}{(1+i)^2} + \dots + \frac{\text{CouponPayment}}{(1+i)^n} \right] + \frac{\text{FaceValue}}{(1+i)^n}$$

Yield to Maturity

- The most useful measure of the **return on holding a bond** is called the **yield to maturity**:
 - The **yield** bondholders *receive if they hold the bond to its maturity* when the *final principal payment is made*.

Price of 1yr 5% Coupon Bond =
$$\frac{\$5}{(1+i)} + \frac{\$100}{(1+i)}$$

- The **value** of i that **solves the equation** is the **yield to maturity**.

Risk Structure of Interest Rates

*Note: Basic concepts of bond pricing
and risk structure of interest rates are taken from Chapter 6*

Why Bonds are Risky

- **Default risk** is the change that the *issuer may not make the **promised payment***
- **Inflation risk** occurs when investor *can't be sure* of what the *real value of the payments will be*, even if they are made
- **Interest rate risk** arises from a *bondholder's investment horizon, which may be shorter than the **maturity** of the bond*

Default Risk

- In **determining** what happens to **bond prices** when we consider default risk, we can look at an example of a ***corporate bond***.
- Assume the *one-year risk-free interest rate is 5 percent*.
- A company has issued a 5 percent coupon bond with a face value of \$100.

Default Risk

- If this **bond was risk-free**, the *price of the bond* would be the *present value of the \$105* payment

Price of risk free bond

$$= (\$100 + \$5)/\$1.05 = \$100$$

Default Risk

- Suppose, however, *there is a 10% probability that the **company will go bankrupt*** before paying back the loan
 - Assume the **outcome is either \$105 or \$0**
 - **Expected value equals \$94.50**

Price of bond

$$= \$94.50/1.05 = \$90$$

Default Risk

- If the *price of the bond is \$90*, what **yield to maturity** does this price imply?

$$\text{Promised yield on bond} = \$105/\$90 - 1 = 0.1667$$

- Since the **default risk premium** is the *promised yield to maturity minus the risk-free rate*:
= 16.67 percent - 5 percent = 11.67 percent.
- **Any risk premium will *drive the price below* \$90 and *push the yield to maturity above* 16.67 percent.**
- The **higher the default risk, the higher the yield.**

Inflation Risk

- With few exceptions, ***bonds promise to make fixed-dollar payments.***
- Remember that we care about the ***purchasing power of our money***, not the number of dollars.
 - This means bondholders *care about* the ***real interest rate.***

Inflation Risk

- Think of the **interest rate** having *three components*:
 1. The **real interest rate**
 2. **Expected inflation**, and
 3. ***Compensation*** for inflation risk.
- Example:
 - **Real interest rate is 3 percent.**
 - *Inflation could be either 1 percent or 3 percent.*
 - **Expected inflation is 2 percent**, with a standard deviation of 1.0 percent.

Inflation Risk

- **Nominal interest rate** should equal
 - 3 percent **real interest rate** +
 - 2 percent **expected inflation** +
 - **Compensation for inflation risk**
- The *greater the inflation risk, the larger the compensation for it.*

Interest-Rate Risk

- **Interest-rate risk** arises from the fact that *investors don't know the holding period return of a long-term bond.*
 - The **longer the term of the bond**, the larger the price change for a given change in the interest rate.
- For investors with *holding periods shorter than the maturity of the bond*, the potential for a *change in interest rates creates risk.*
 - The *more likely* the **interest rates are to change during the bondholder's investment horizon**, the **larger the risk of holding a bond.**

Chapter 7



The Risk and Term Structure of Interest Rates

Bond Rating

Ratings and the Risk Structure of Interest Rates

- **Default** is one of the *most important risks* a *bondholder faces*.
- **Independent companies (rating agencies)** have arisen to *evaluate the creditworthiness of potential borrowers*.

Bond Ratings

- The best known **bond rating services** are
 - Moody's
 - Standard & Poor's
- They *monitor the status of individual bond issuers* and assess the *likelihood a lender will be repaid* by the bond issuer.
- A **high rating** suggests that a bond issuer will have **little problem** meeting a ***bond's payment obligations.***

Bond Ratings

- Firms or governments with an *exceptionally strong financial position* carry the **highest ratings** and are able to issue the highest-rated bonds, **Triple A**.
- The **top four categories** are considered **investment-grade bonds**.
 - These bonds have a *very low risk of default*.
 - **Reserved for** most government issuers and corporations that are *among the most financially sound*.

Bond Ratings

- The distinction between **investment-grade** and **speculative, noninvestment-grade** is important.
 - A number of regulated institutional investors are **not allowed to invest** in bonds rated *below investment grade*, which is **Baa** on *Moody's scale* or **BBB** on *Standard and Poor's scale*.

Table 7.1

A Guide to Bond Ratings

| | Moody's | Standard & Poor's | Description | Examples of Issuers with Bonds Outstanding in 2016 |
|----------------------------------|---------|-------------------|---|--|
| Investment Grade | Aaa | AAA | Bonds of the best quality with the smallest risk of default. Issuers are exceptionally stable and dependable. | Johnson & Johnson Microsoft Canada |
| | Aa | AA | Highest quality with slightly higher degree of long-term risk. | Google/Alphabet Procter & Gamble South Korea |
| | A | A | High-medium quality, with many strong attributes but somewhat vulnerable to changing economic conditions. | JPMorgan Chase Wells Fargo China |
| | Baa | BBB | Medium quality, currently adequate but perhaps unreliable over the long term. | Hewlett Packard Italy Portugal |
| Noninvestment, Speculative Grade | Ba | BB | Some speculative element, with moderate security but not well safeguarded. | Goodyear Tire Nokia Brazil |
| | B | B | Able to pay now but at risk of default in the future. | Hertz Greece Kenya |
| Highly Speculative | Caa | CCC | Poor quality, clear danger of default. | Ferrellgas Partners Sable Permian Resources |
| | Ca | CC | Highly speculative quality, often in default. | |
| | C | C | Lowest-rated, poor prospects of repayment though may still be paying. | Venezuela* |
| | D | D | In default. | |

*While the Moodys rating for Venezuela is C, the Standard and Poor's rating is SD for "selective default."

For a more detailed definition of ratings see Moody's website, www.moodys.com, or Standard and Poor's website, www.standardandpoors.com.

Bond Ratings

- **Speculative grade bonds** are bonds issued by companies and countries that may have *difficulty* meeting their *bond payments* but are *not at risk of immediate default*.
- **Highly speculative bonds** consist of *debts* that are in *serious risk of default*.
- All bonds with grades *below investment grade* are often referred to as **junk bonds** or *high-yield bonds*.

Bond Ratings

- Types of **junk bonds**:
 - **Fallen angels** are bonds that were *once investment-grade*, but their *issuers fell on hard times*.
 - Bonds issued by *issuers* about which *there is little known*.
- Material changes in a *firm's or government's financial conditions* precipitate changes in its debt ratings.
 - **Ratings downgrade** - *lower* an issuer's bond *rating*.
 - **Ratings upgrade** - *upgrade* an issuer's bond *rating*.

Commercial Paper

- **Commercial paper** is a short-term version of a bond.
 - The borrower offers **no collateral** so the **debt is *unsecured***.
 - Commercial paper is
 - **Issued on a discount basis**, as a zero-coupon bond specifying a ***single future payment*** with ***no associated coupon payments***.
 - Has maturity of less than 270 days.
 - Roughly ***one-third*** is held by ***money-market mutual funds***.

Commercial Paper

- Most **commercial paper** is *issued* with a *maturity of 5 to 45 days* and is *used exclusively for short-term financing*.
- The **rating agencies** *rate* the **creditworthiness** of *commercial paper* issuers *in the same way they do bond issuers*.

Commercial Paper

Table 7.2

Commercial Paper Ratings

| | Moody's | Standard & Poor's | Description | Examples of Issuers with Commercial Paper Outstanding in 2016 |
|--------------------------------|---------|-------------------|---|---|
| Investment or Prime Grade | P-1 | A-1+, A-1 | Strong likelihood of timely repayment. | Coca-Cola ExxonMobil Yale University |
| | P-2 | A-2 | Satisfactory degree of safety for timely repayment. | General Electric General Mills Harley-Davidson |
| | P-3 | A-3 | Adequate degree of safety for timely repayment. | |
| Speculative, below Prime Grade | | B, C | Capacity for repayment is small relative to higher-rated issuers. | |
| Defaulted | | D | | |

SOURCE: Thomas K. Hahn, "Commercial Paper," *Instruments of the Money Market*, Chapter 9, Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond, 1998; www.moodys.com; and www.standardandpoors.com.

The Impact of Ratings on Yields

- **Bond ratings** are designed to *reflect default risk*.
- The **lower the rating**
 - The *higher the risk of default*.
 - The lower its price and the higher its yield.
- To understand quantitative ratings, it is easier to **compare them to a benchmark**.

The Impact of Ratings on Yields

- **U.S. Treasury issues** are viewed as having *little default risk*, so they are used as **benchmark bonds**.
- **Yields** on other bonds are *measured* in terms of the **spread over Treasuries**.
- **Bond yield** is the sum of two parts:
= **U.S. Treasury yield + Default risk premium**

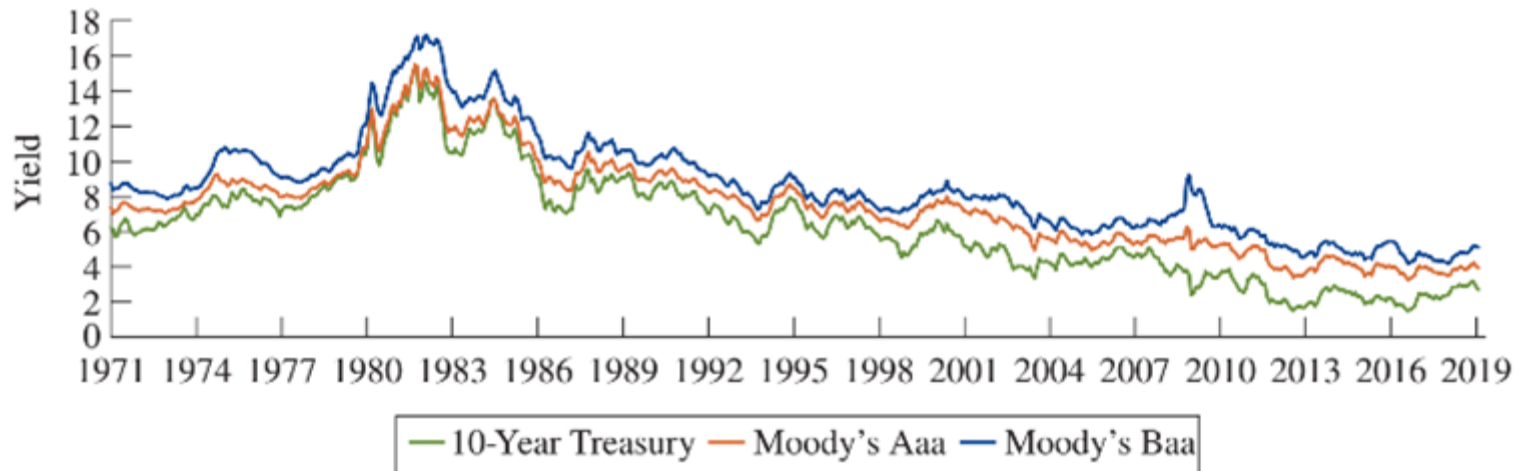
The Impact of Ratings on Yields

- If bond ratings properly reflect risk, then the **lower the rating, *the higher the default-risk premium.***
- *When Treasury yields move, all other yields move with them.*

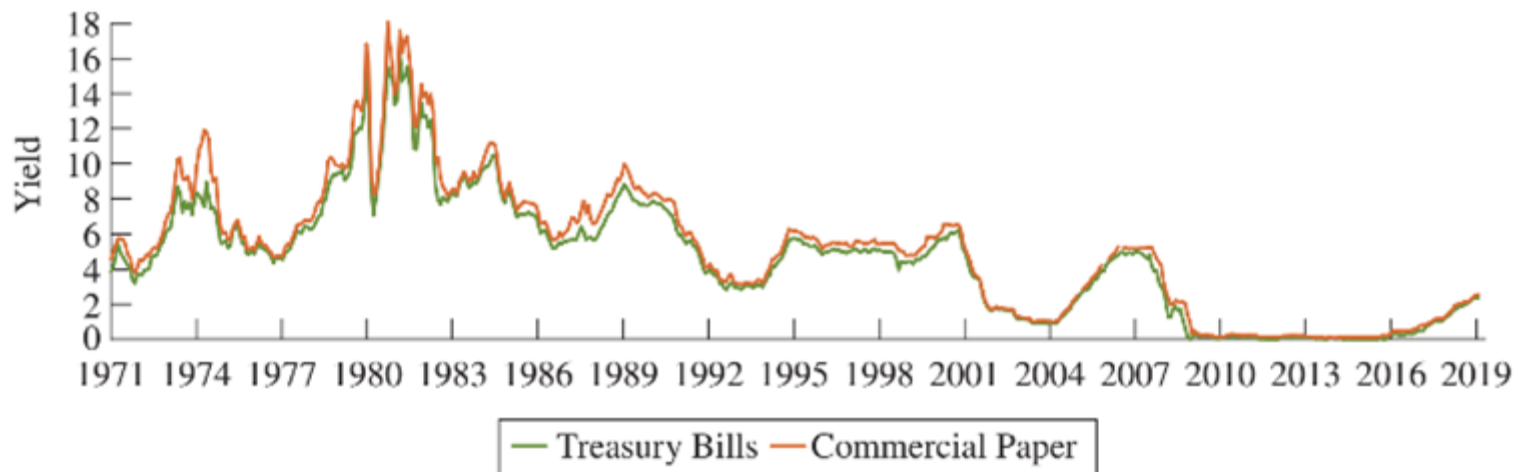
Figure 7.2

The Risk Structure of Interest Rates

A. Comparing Long-Term Interest Rates



B. Comparing Short-Term Interest Rates



SOURCE: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, [FRED data codes: GS10, AAA, BAA, CPN3M (since 1997), and TB3MS].

The Impact of Ratings on Yields

- ***Changes in the U.S. Treasury yields account for most of the movement in the Aaa and Baa bond yields.***
- From 1979-2016, the ***10-year U.S. Treasury bond yield*** has averaged almost a full percentage point ***below the average yield on Aaa bonds*** and two percentage points ***below the average yield on Baa bonds.***
- Clearly ratings are **crucial to corporations' ability to raise financing.**
 - A ***lower rating*** increases the ***costs of funds.***
- **Investors** clearly must be **compensated for** assuming risk.

Term Structure of Interest Rates

Term Structure of Interest Rates

- Why do **bonds** with the *same default rate* but *different maturity dates* have **different yields**?
 - **Long-term bonds** are like a *composite of a series of short-term bonds*.
 - Their **yield** depends on *what people expect to happen in the future*.

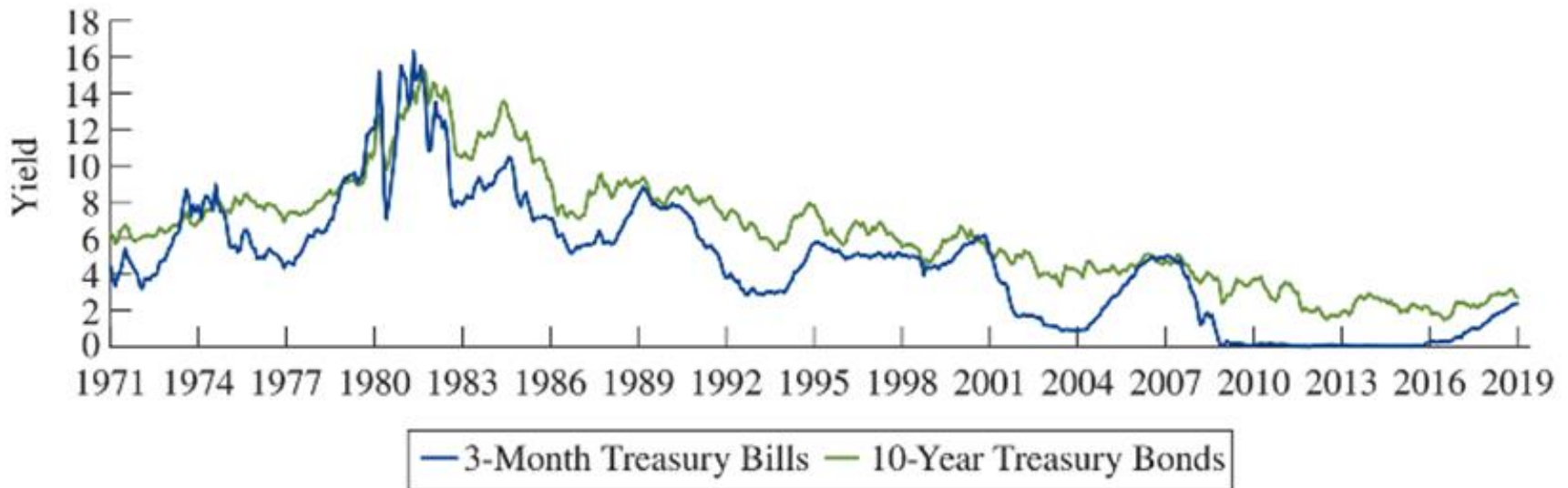
Term Structure of Interest Rates

- The *relationship among bonds with the same risk characteristics but different maturities* is called the **term structure of interest rates**.
- Comparing 3-month and 10-year Treasury yields we can see:
 1. *Interest rates of different maturities* tend to *move together*.
 2. *Yields on short-term bonds* are more volatile than yields on long-term bonds.
 3. *Long-term yields* tend to be higher than short-term yields.

Term Structure of Interest Rates

Figure 7.3

The Term Structure of Treasury Interest Rates



SOURCE: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System. [FRED data codes: TB3MS and GS10]

The Expectations Hypothesis

- The expectations hypothesis of the *term structure* focuses on the *risk-free interest rate*.
- The *risk-free interest rate* *can be computed*, assuming *there is no uncertainty about the future*.

The Expectations Hypothesis

- If *there is no uncertainty*, then an investor will be indifferent between **holding a two-year bond** or a **series of two one-year bonds**.
 - Certainty means that the **bonds of different maturities** are **perfect substitutes** *for each other*.
- The **expectations hypothesis** implied that the *current two-year interest rate should equal the average of current one-year rate and the one-year interest rate one year in the future.*

The Expectations Hypothesis

- When *interest rates are expected to rise*, **long-term interest rate will be higher than short-term interest rates.**
 - The **yield curve** which **plots *the yield to maturity*** on the *vertical axis* and the ***time to maturity*** on the *horizontal axis*, will ***slope up***.
- This also means:
 - If **interest rates are expected to fall**, the *yield curve will slope down*.
 - If **expected to stay the same**, the *yield curve will be flat*.

The Expectations Hypothesis

Figure 7.5

The Expectations Hypothesis and Expectations of Future Short-term Interest Rates



The Expectations Hypothesis

- If *bonds of different maturities* are **perfect substitutes for each other**, then we can construct *investment strategies* that must have the *same yields*.
 1. Invest in a **two-year bond** and *hold it to maturity*
 2. Invest in two **one-year bonds**, *one today and one when the first matures*.

The Expectations Hypothesis

- The **expectations hypothesis** tells us investors will be indifferent between the two options.
- This means they must have the same return:

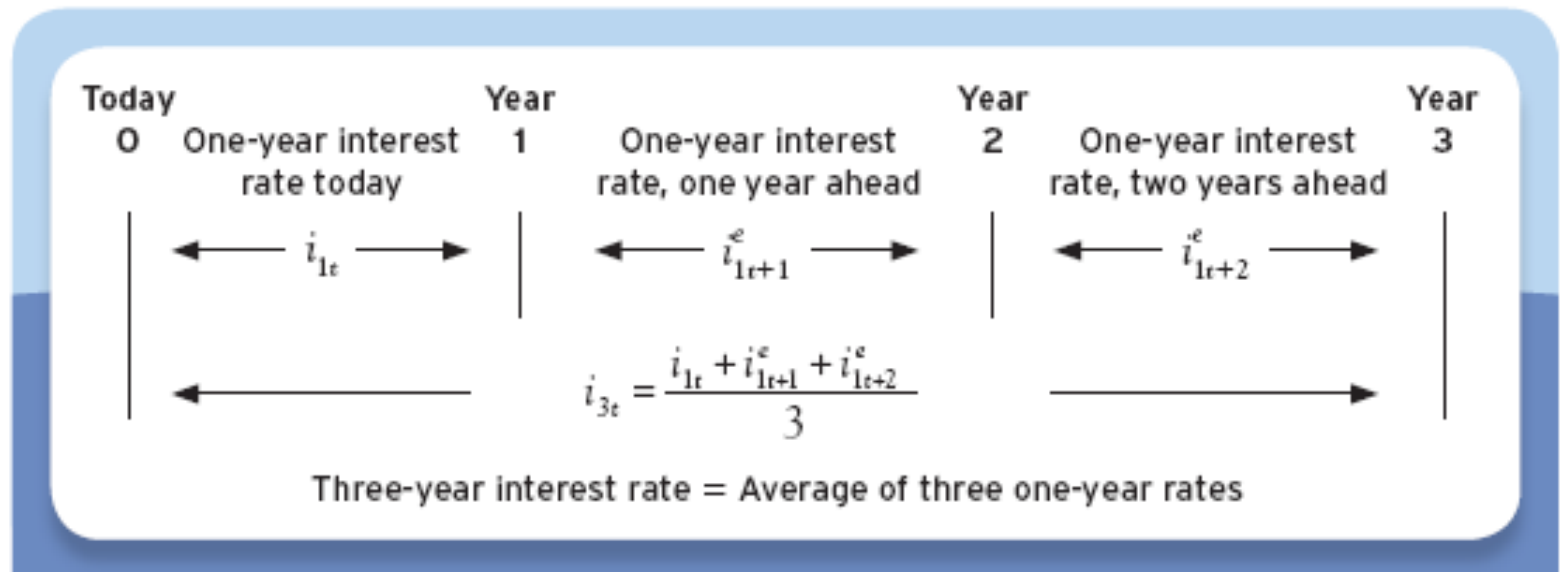
$$(1 + i_{2t})(1 + i_{2t}) = (1 + i_{1t})(1 + i^e_{1t+1})$$

- We can now write the ***two-year interest rate*** as the ***average of the current and future expected one-year interest rates***:

$$i_{2t} = \frac{i_{1t} + i^e_{1t+1}}{2}$$

The Expectations Hypothesis

The Expectations Hypothesis of the Term Structure:



The Expectations Hypothesis

- We can *generalize* this: a **bond with n years to maturity** is the **average** of n expected future one-year interest rates:

$$i_{nt} = \frac{i_{1t} + i_{1t+1}^e + i_{1t+2}^e + \dots + i_{1t+n-1}^e}{n}$$

The Expectations Hypothesis

Does this **hypothesis** *explain* the *three observations* we started with?

- 1. Interest rates of different maturities will *move together*.**
 - We can see *this holds from the previous equation*.
- 2. Yields on short-term bonds will be more **volatile** than yields on long-term bonds.**
 - **Long-term rates** are ***averages of short-term rates***, so *changing one short-term rate* has little effect on the *long term rate*.

The Liquidity Premium Theory

- **Risk** is the key to understanding the *upward slope of the yield curve*.
- *Bondholders face both **inflation** and **interest-rate risk**.*
 - The *longer the term of the bond*, the *greater both types of risk*.
- Computing **real return** from nominal return requires a **forecast of expected future inflation**.
 - A bond's *inflation risk increases with its time to maturity*.

The Liquidity Premium Theory

- **Interest-rate risk** arises from the **mismatch** between the *investor's investment horizon* and a *bond's time to maturity*.
 - If a bondholder plans to *sell a bond prior to maturity*, changes in the interest rate generate *capital gains or losses*.
 - The **longer the term of the bond**, *the greater the price changes for a given change in interest rates* and the **larger the potential for capital losses**.
- Investors require *compensation for the increase in risk* they take for buying longer term bonds.

The Liquidity Premium Theory

- We can think about **bond yields** as having two parts:
 - One that is **risk free**: explained by the *expectations hypothesis*.
 - One that is a **risk premium**: explained by *inflation and interest-rate risk*.
- Together this forms the **liquidity premium theory of the term structure** of interest rates.

$$i_{nt} = rp_n + \frac{i_{1t} + i_{1t+1}^e + i_{1t+2}^e + \dots + i_{1t+n-1}^e}{n}$$

End of lecture