## So Many Interest Rates...

- The various interest rates differ in
- Term. (long-term interest rates are usually higher)
- Credit risk. (the higher the perceived probability of default, the higher the interest rate. i.e. junk bonds)
- Tax treatment. (interest rate is higher if taxed by the government. i.e. municipal bonds).
- We consider the interest rate because the various interest rates tend to move up and down together.
- Chapter 25, we discuss how capital and labor are among the primary determinants of output and growth. investment in capital goods.
- In Chapter 27, we will show some of the tools people invest.
- Because both capital and labor are among the primary determinants of output, Chapter 28 will address the market for labor.
- In Chapter 26, we addressed how saving converted into and firms use when choosing capital projects in which to


## Financial System

- Financial system links the present to the future:
- They enable savers to convert current income into future purchasing power;
- and borrowers to acquire capital to produce goods and services in the future.


## Often the timing is everything!

- Often we have to make a timing decision.
- What is the best way to allocate my life-time consumption? How much to consume when I am young, and how much when I am old?
- When is the best time to produce? When the demand is high or when it is low?
- To answer these questions, we have to compare the present with the future.


## In this chapter, look for the answers to these questions:

- What is "present value"? How can we use it to compare sums of money from different times?
- Why are people risk averse? How can risk-averse people use insurance and diversification to manage risk?
- What determines the value of an asset? What is the "efficient markets hypothesis"? Why is beating the market nearly impossible?


## Introduction

- The financial system coordinates saving and investment.

- Participants in the financial system make decisions regarding the allocation of resources over time and the handling of risk.
- Finance is the field that studies such decision making.


## An important fact of economic life

- A dollar in the future is less valuable than a dollar today.
- Why?
- Because a dollar today can be deposited in an interest-bearing bank account and produce more in the future.

Related concept.
The future value of a sum: the amount the sum will be worth at a given future date, when allowed to earn interest at the prevailing rate.

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## EXAMPLE 1: A Simple Deposit

- Deposit $\$ 100$ in the bank at $5 \%$ interest. What is the future value (FV) of this amount?
- In N years, FV = \$100(1 + 0.05) ${ }^{N}$
- In three years, FV = $\$ 100(1+0.05)^{3}=\$ 115.76$
- In two years, FV = \$100(1+0.05) ${ }^{2}=\$ 110.25$
- In one year, FV = \$100(1 + 0.05) = \$105.00


## EXAMPLE 1: A Simple Deposit

- Deposit \$100 in the bank at 5\% interest. What is the future value (FV) of this amount?
- In $\boldsymbol{N}$ years, $\mathrm{FV}=\$ 100(1+0.05)^{\boldsymbol{N}}$
- In this example, \$100 is the present value (PV).
- In general, $\mathrm{FV}=\mathrm{PV}(1+\boldsymbol{r})^{N}$ where $\boldsymbol{r}$ denotes the interest rate (in decimal form).
- Solve for PV to get: $\quad P V=F V /(1+r)^{N}$


## A million-dollar "baby"?



## EXAMPLE 2: I nvestment Decision

Present value formula: $\mathrm{PV}=\mathrm{FV} /(1+\boldsymbol{r})^{N}$

- Suppose $r=0.06$.

Should General Motors spend $\$ 100$ million to build a factory that will yield $\$ 200$ million in ten years?
Solution:
Find present value of $\$ 200$ million in 10 years:
$\mathrm{PV}=(\$ 200$ million $) /(1.06)^{10}=\$ 112$ million
Since PV > cost of factory, GM should build it.

How high interest rates reduce mortgage eligibility and housing demand

- Instead, suppose $\boldsymbol{r}=0.09$.

Should General Motors spend $\$ 100$ million to build a factory that will yield $\$ 200$ million in ten years?
Solution:
Find present value of $\$ 200$ million in 10 years:
PV $=(\$ 200$ million $) /(1.09)^{10}=\$ 84$ million
Since PV < cost of factory, GM should not build it.
present value helps explain why investment falls when the interest rate rises

[^0]30-year mortgage, \$30,000 annual income, 28\% limit on mortgage payment.

| Interest rate | Maximum Possible Loan |
| :--- | ---: |
| $5 \%$ | $\$ 130,397$ |
| $6 \%$ | 116,754 |
| $7 \%$ | 105,215 |
| $8 \%$ | 95,398 |
| $9 \%$ | 86,997 |
| $10 \%$ | 79,766 |
| $11 \%$ | 73,504 |
| $12 \%$ | 68,053 |
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## Now, question

- Will saving rise or fall if interest rate goes up?
- Rise? Perhaps. Now saving earns higher interest, we have stronger incentives to save.
- Fall? Perhaps. If I used to save for retirement, now higher interest rate gives me higher return so I do not have to save that much.
- Substitution effect v.s. wealth effect.
- Theoretically the impact of interest rate on saving is ambiguous.


## ACTIVE LEARNING 1:

## Answers

You are thinking of buying a six-acre lot for $\$ 70,000$. The lot will be worth $\$ 100,000$ in 5 years.
A. Should you buy the lot if $r=0.05$ ?
$P V=\$ 100,000 /(1.05)^{5}=\$ 78,350$.
PV of lot > price of lot.
Yes, buy it.
B. Should you buy it if $r=0.10$ ?
$P V=\$ 100,000 /(1.1)^{5}=\$ 62,090$.
PV of lot < price of lot.
No, do not buy it.

## The Rule of 70

- The Rule of 70 :

If a variable grows at a rate of $\boldsymbol{x}$ percent per year, that variable will double in about $70 / x$ years.

- Example:
- If interest rate is $5 \%$, a deposit will double in about 14 years.
- If interest rate is $7 \%$, a deposit will double in about 10 years.

So far, there is no risk/ uncertainty

## Now, let's introduce risk.

## Risk Aversion

- Most people are risk averse - they dislike uncertainty.
- Example: You are offered the following gamble. Toss a fair coin.
- If heads, you win $\$ 1000$.
- If tails, you lose $\$ 1000$.

Should you take this gamble?

- If you are risk averse, the pain of losing $\$ 1000$ would exceed the pleasure of winning $\$ 1000$, so you should not take this gamble.

The Utility Function


## The Utility Function and Risk Aversion



## Two Problems in Insurance Markets

1. Adverse selection: A high-risk person benefits more from insurance, so is more likely to purchase it.
2. Moral hazard: People with insurance have less incentive to avoid risky behavior.

Insurance companies cannot fully guard against these problems, so they must charge higher prices.

As a result, low-risk people sometimes forego insurance and lose the benefits of risk-pooling.

## ACTIVE LEARNING 2: <br> Adverse selection or moral hazard?

Identify whether each of the following is an example of adverse selection or moral hazard.
A. Joe begins smoking in bed after buying fire insurance.
B. Both of Susan's parents lost their teeth to gum disease, so Susan buys dental insurance.
C. When David parks his convertible, he doesn't bother putting the top up, because his insurance covers theft of any items left in the car.

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## Case Study: the American Uninsured



## ACTIVE LEARNING 2: <br> Answers

Identify whether each of the following is an example of adverse selection or moral hazard.
A. Joe begins smoking in bed after buying fire insurance. moral hazard
B. Both of Susan's parents lost their teeth to gum disease, so Susan buys dental insurance. adverse selection
C. When Gertrude parks her Corvette convertible, she doesn't bother putting the top up, because her insurance covers theft of any items left in the car. moral hazard

## Case Study: Uninsured in America

- The leading cause of personal bankruptcy in the United States is unpaid medical bills.
- Americans spend $\$ 5,267$ per capita on health care every year, almost two and half times the industrialized world's median of $\$ 2,193$; the extra spending comes to hundreds of billions of dollars a year.
- What does that extra spending buy us?
- We go to the doctor less than people in other Western countries.
- We get admitted to the hospital less frequently than people in other Western countries.
- We are less satisfied with our health care than our counterparts in other countries.
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## Unsuccessful efforts have been made...

- Six times in the past century-during the First World War, during the Depression, during the Truman and Johnson Administrations, in the Senate in the nineteen-seventies, and during the Clinton years-efforts have been made to introduce some kind of universal health insurance, and each time the efforts have been rejected.


## Moral Hazard?

- Nyman, an economist at the University of Minnesota, says that the fear of moral hazard lies behind the thicket of co-payments and deductibles and utilization reviews which characterizes the American health-insurance system.
- What Nyman is saying is that when your insurance company requires that you make a twenty-dollar copayment for a visit to the doctor, or when your plan includes an annual five-hundred-dollar or thousanddollar deductible, it's not simply an attempt to get you to pick up a larger share of your health costs. It is an attempt to make your use of the health-care system more efficient. Making you responsible for a share of the costs, the argument runs, will reduce moral hazard.


## Do you buy the argument?

I do not!

## Reducing Risk Through Diversification

- Diversification reduces risk by replacing a single risk with a large number of smaller, unrelated risks.
- A diversified portfolio contains assets whose returns are not strongly related:
- Some assets will realize high returns, others low returns.
- The high and low returns average out, so the portfolio is likely to earn an intermediate return more consistently than any of the assets it contains.


## Measuring Risk

- We can measure risk of an asset with the standard deviation, a statistic that measures a variable's volatility - how likely it is to fluctuate.
- The higher the standard deviation of the asset's return, the greater the risk.


## Reducing Risk Through Diversification

- Diversification can reduce firm-specific risk, which affects only a single company.
- Diversification cannot reduce market risk, which affects all companies in the stock market.


## The Tradeoff Between Risk and Return

- One of the Ten Principles from Chapter 1: People face tradeoffs.
- A tradeoff between risk and return:

Riskier assets pay a higher return, on average, to compensate for the extra risk of holding them.

- E.g., over past 200 years, average real return on stocks, 8\%. On short-term govt bonds, 3\%.


## The Tradeoff Between Risk and Return

- Example:

Suppose you are dividing your portfolio between two asset classes.

- A diversified group of risky stocks: average return $=8 \%$, standard dev. $=20 \%$
- A safe asset: return $=3 \%$, standard dev. $=0 \%$
- The risk and return on the portfolio depends on the percentage of each asset class in the portfolio...

The Tradeoff Between Risk and Return


## ACTIVE LEARNING 3: <br> Valuing a share of stock

If you buy a share of AT\&T stock today,

- you will be able to sell it in 3 years for $\$ 30$
- you will receive a $\$ 1$ dividend at the end of each of those 3 years

If the prevailing interest rate is $10 \%$, what is the value of a share of AT\&T stock today?

- It's easy to look up the price. But how does one determine the stock's value?

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## ACTIVELEARNING 3:

Answers

| amount <br> you will <br> receive | when you <br> will receive it | present value of <br> the amount |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| $\$ 1$ | in 1 year | $\$ 1 /(1.1)=\$ \quad .91$ |
| $\$ 1$ | in 2 years | $\$ 1 /(1.1)^{2}=\$ \quad .83$ |
| $\$ 1$ | in 3 years | $\$ 1 /(1.1)^{3}=\$ \quad .75$ |
| $\$ 30$ | in 3 years | $\$ 30 /(1.1)^{3}=\$ 22.54$ |

The value of a share of AT\&T stock equals the sum of the numbers in the last column: $\mathbf{\$ 2 5 . 0 3}$

## Asset Valuation

- Value of a share
= PV of any dividends the stock will pay
+ PV of the price you get when you sell the share
- Problem: When you buy the share, you don't know what future dividends or prices will be.
- One way to value a stock: fundamental analysis, the study of a company's accounting statements and future prospects to determine its value



## The Efficient Markets Hypothesis

- Efficient Markets Hypothesis: the theory that each asset price reflects all publicly available information about the value of the asset
- Mutual fund managers
- use fundamental analysis to assess value of all publicly traded companies
- buy shares when price < value, sell shares when price > value
- continuously monitor and act on any news that affects the valuation of any stock


## The Efficient Markets Hypothesis

- Stock prices determined by supply \& demand. In equilibrium,
- the number of people who believe a stock is overvalued exactly balances the number who believe it to be undervalued
- the typical person perceives all stocks fairly valued


## I nformational Efficiency

- According to the Efficient Markets Hypothesis, the stock market is informationally efficient: each stock price reflects all available information about the value of the company.
- When good news about a company's prospects becomes public, the value of the company rises, so money managers buy lots of shares until the price rises to the new, higher value.
- When bad news becomes public, the value of the company falls, so money managers sell the shares until their price falls by the same amount.


## I nformational Efficiency

- At any moment, a stock price is the market's best guess of the company's value based on all available information.


## Random Walk

- Random walk: the path of a variable whose changes are impossible to predict
- The efficient markets hypothesis implies that stock prices should follow a random walk.



## The efficient markets hypothesis

- According to this theory, the only thing that can move stock prices is news that can change the market's perception of the company's value.
- In other words, something that the entire market does not know but you do.
- Such news is impossible to predict. (Otherwise it wouldn't really be news, and would already be reflected in the stock price.)


## Evidence: Index Funds vs. Managed Funds

- An index fund is a mutual fund that buys all the stocks in a given stock index.
- An actively managed mutual fund aims to buy only the best stocks.
- The efficient markets hypothesis implies that it is impossible to consistently "beat the market."
- If true, the returns on actively managed funds should not consistently exceed the returns on index funds.
- In fact, most actively managed funds perform worse than index funds (and have higher fees).
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## Market I rrationality <br> - Economists have argued that stock price movements are partly psychological: <br> - 1930s: John Maynard Keynes said stock prices are driven by investors' "animal spirits" - irrational <br>  waves of pessimism and optimism

- 1990s: Fed Chair Alan Greenspan said the stock boom reflected "irrational exuberance".
- The bubble burst around early 2000.


## CONCLUSION

- This chapter has introduced some of the basic tools people use when they make financial decisions.
- The efficient markets hypothesis teaches that a stock price should reflect the company's expected future profitability.
- Fluctuations in the stock market have important macroeconomic implications, which we will study later in this course.


## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- The present value of any future sum is the amount that would be needed today, given prevailing interest rates, to produce that future sum.
- Because of diminishing marginal utility of wealth, most people are risk-averse. Risk-averse people can manage risk with insurance, through diversification, and by choosing a portfolio with a lower risk and lower return.


## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- The value of an asset equals the present value of all payments its owner will receive. For a share of stock, these payments include dividends plus the final sale price.
- According to the efficient markets hypothesis financial markets are informationally efficient, a stock price always equals the market's best guess of the firm's value, and stock prices follow a random walk as new information becomes available.


## CHAPTER SUMMARY <br> - Some economists question the efficient markets hypothesis, and believe that irrational psychological factors also influence asset prices.


[^0]:    CHAPTER 27 THE BASIC TOOLS OF FINANCE

