Chapter 3: Financial Decision Making and the Law of One Price

Fundamental question: What are assets worth?

=> starting point: any two assets that always pay the same cash flows should have the same price

=> if not the case, whoever notices it can make a lot of money very quickly.
=> all mispriced assets will disappear almost immediately as bought (if price too low) or sold (if price too high)

3.1 Valuing Decisions

Key issues:

=> good decision:

=> role of other disciplines in financial decisions: marketing, accounting, economics, organizational behavior, strategy, operations

A. Analyzing Costs and Benefits

Key issues:

=> quantify costs and benefits
=> equivalent cash today

B. Using Market Prices to Determine Cash Values

a. Definitions and example

b. Competitive market:

Q: Do such markets exist?

=>

Bid price: highest price at which anyone is willing to buy

Ask price: lowest price at which anyone is willing to sell

Notes:

1) anyone can submit their own bid or ask price
=> called a limit order

2) anyone submitting a market order takes whatever price exists in the market now

=> if buying, they'll pay the ask price (the lowest price that anyone is willing to sell for)
=> if selling, they'll get the bid price (the highest price that anyone is willing to pay).

b. Equivalent value today if competitive market:

Note:

Ex. Assume your uncle gives your 100 shares of Ford. What is the gift worth?
Ex. Would you trade your shares for $1000?
Ex. Would you trade your shares for 100 shares of Honda?

2. When a competitive market does not exist

Note: This is when finance gets more interesting

Ex. Ford dealership on Hwy 84 in Waco (Bird Kultgen)

a. Equivalent value today:

Notes:

1)

=>

2) interest rate:

=>

3) interpretation:

3.2 Interest rates and the Time Value of Money

Key issues:

=>think of borrowing and lending to convert money between future and today
=> will start with known cash flows and a risk-free interest rate

Comment: Discussing the time value of money in terms of exchange rates (as the textbook does) is excellent. Another slightly different way to think about the time value of money follows. Think about the issue whichever way makes the most sense to you.

A. Future values

Note:

Ex. How much will you have one year from today if you invest $100 today at an interest rate of 1% per year? (What is the future value of $100?)

Interest = $1

Amount have in one year = $101 =

General Equation:

Let:

C_t = cash "t" years from today

Notes:

1) cash inflows are positive and cash outflows are negative
2) C_0 = cash today
3) C_1 = cash a year from today

I_t = interest earned over year t
Note: I_1 = interest earned between today and a year from today
r = interest rate

V_t = value "t" years from today

Notes:

1) V_0 = value today
2) PV = present value = V_0
3) V_1 = value a year from today

$$V_1 = C_0 + I_1 = C_0 + C_0 \times r = C_0(1+r)$$

$$V_1 = C_0(1+r) \tag{3.A}$$

Ex.

$V_1 = 100(1.01) = \$101$

B. Present values

=>

Ex. How much must you deposit today to have $101 a year from today if the interest rate is 1%? (What is the present value of $101?)

Note: From previous example, we know the answer has to be $100!

$PV = V_0 = 101 – I_1$

=> $V_0 = 101 – V_0(.01)$
=> $V_0 + V_0(.01) = 101$
=> $V_0(1.01) = 101$
=> $V_0 = \frac{101}{1.01} = 100$

General Equation:

$$V_0 = C – I = C_1 – r \times V_0$$

=> $V_0 + r \times V_0 = C_1$

=> $V_0(1+r) = C_1$

$$V_0 = \frac{C_1}{(1+r)} \tag{3.B}$$

Ex.

$V_0 = \frac{C_1}{(1+r)} =$

3.3 Present Value and the NPV Decision Rule

1) NPV = present value of all cash flows (inflows and outflows)

2) Interpretation of NPV:

3)

4) Another way to think about it:

5) Decision doesn't depend on preference for cash today vs. cash in the future

Ex. Assume you have an opportunity to buy land for \$110,000 that you will be able to sell for \$120,000 a year from today. Further assume that all cash flows are known for sure and that you can borrow or lend at a risk-free interest rate of 4%.

a. Should you buy the land if you have \$110,000?

NPV =

Q: How much would you have to invest at 4% to end up with \$120,000 a year from today?

=>

Q: How much better off are you if you buy the land?

b. Should you buy the land if you have no money?

=> yes

Q: How?

=>

=>

=>

Q: Is it realistic to assume that a firm or individual could borrow more than a project costs and to keep the difference?

A: Not really. Rules implemented after the global financial crisis of 2007 – 2008 prevent borrowing more than the value of an asset. Before the financial crisis, some people borrowed more than the value of a house, but most of that involved fraud. But the idea is theoretically sound.

3.4 Arbitrage and the Law of One Price

A. Key issues:

=> equivalent assets:

=> arbitrage:

=> key: buy low-priced asset and simultaneously sell the high-priced-asset

Notes:

1) requires no investment and creates riskless payoff today
2) as arbitrage occurs, all mispriced assets get bought and sold very quickly

Ex. Assume GE trades for $14 on the New York Stock Exchange and for $13 on the CBOE exchange

=> arbitrage:

=> trade as many sets of shares (buy and sell) as possible

Ex. Assume the following prices for HMC stock are available on the CBOE and the New York Stock exchange:

Note: HMC stock traded on CBOE and NYSE are equivalent since same exact asset

CBOE				NYSE			
Bid		Ask		Bid		Ask	
Price	Size	Price	Size	Price	Size	Price	Size
25.73	7000	25.76	6000	25.88	26,000	25.89	35,000

Q: What transactions create arbitrage? What is the profit?

Arbitrage:

Note: Arbitrage profit =
Q: Why do we use $25.88 and $25.76?
Q: Why not trade more than 6000 shares?
Q: How long will these conditions last?
=> exploiting arbitrage eliminates arbitrage opportunities

=> law of one price:

=> normal market: competitive market in which there are no arbitrage opportunities

B. Short-selling

Note: There is no problem if arbitrage requires selling an asset you don't own

=> short-sell the asset

1) today:

2) later:

Notes:

1)

2)

3)

4)

Ex. Assume you want to short-sell 100 shares of GE today for the market price of $12.50 per share

1)

Q: Where stand?

=>

=>

2) assume price falls from $12.50 to $10

3) Q: How close out short position?

=>

4) assume that while you were short GE paid a dividend of $0.15 per share
=>

5) Profit =$235 =

3.5 No-Arbitrage and Security Prices

A. Valuing a security with the law of one price

Key:

Ex. Assume you can borrow or lend at the risk-free rate of 7% and that a risk-free bond pays $1000 a year from today

$PV =$

a) Assume price of bond is $920 (rather than its present value)
=> arbitrage is possible

Goal in arbitrage: positive cash flow today, no possible net cash flow after today

Basic questions to ask when setting up an arbitrage:

1) What transaction (or set of transactions) is equivalent to the security?
2) Do you want to buy or sell the security?
3) What cash flows does this create?
4) What transaction today offsets the security's cash flows in the future and creates a profit today?

Q: What are equivalent transactions?

Equivalent Transaction	Transaction	$ in one year
Equivalent to buying bond		
Equivalent to short-selling bond		

Q: Buy or sell the bond if the price is $920 rather than $934.58?
Q: What are cash flows if trade the bond?
Q: How end up with no cash flow next year?

Transaction(t=0)	$ today	$ in one year	Transaction(t=1)
Total			

Arbitrage profit = $14.58

b) Assume price of bond is $950 rather than $934.58
Q: Buy or sell the bond?
Q: What are cash flows if trade the bond?
Q: How end up with no cash flow next year?

Transaction (t=0)	$ today	$ in one year	Transaction (t=1)
Total			

Arbitrage profit = $15.42

=> only way there is no arbitrage:

Notes:

1) investors rushing to take advantage of the arbitrage opportunity will quickly drive the price to $934.58

2) interest rates are usually extracted from security prices rather than the other way around

Ex. What is usually known: CF_1 = \$1000, Price = \$934.58

$$=> 934.58 = \frac{1000}{1+r} => r = .07 = 7\%$$

B. In a normal market, buying and selling securities has zero NPV

Keys:

a) NPV(buying security) =

=> in normal market, price = PV(CF)

b) NPV(selling security) =

=> in normal market, price = PV(CF)

=> otherwise arbitrage possible

C. Valuing a Portfolio

Portfolio: collection of securities

Key:

=> otherwise arbitrage is possible

1. ETF: exchange traded fund

=>

2. Value Additivity: the price of a portfolio must equal the combined values of the securities in the portfolio

=> Price(A+B) = Price(A) + Price(B) (3.5)

Ex. Assume the following:

ETF1 has one share of security A and one share of security B.
ETF2 has one share of security C and one share of security D.
Security A pays $100 a year from today and has a market price of $95.24.
Security B pays $150 a year from today and has a market price of $142.86.
Security C pays $200 a year from today and Security D pays $50 a year from today.

Q: What portfolio is equivalent to ETF1?

Transaction	$ in one year
Buy ETF1	

Equivalent portfolio:

=>

Q: What is the no-arbitrage price be for ETF1?

=>

Reason:

Key to arbitrage with equivalent portfolios with different prices:

Assume price of ETF1 is $220 instead of $238.10

Transaction (t=0)	$ today	$ in one year	Transaction (t=1)
Total			

Assume price of ETF1 is $245 instead of $238.10

Transaction (t=0)	$ today	$ in one year	Transaction (t=1)
Total			

=> only way no arbitrage: price of ETF1 = 238.10
=> arbitrage will quickly drive the price of ETF1 to $238.10

Q: What does the market price for ETF2 have to be?

Note: payoff on ETF2 next year: 200 + 50 = 250

Q: What portfolio is equivalent to ETF2?

=>

=>

Reason:

2. Value Additivity and Firm Value

Key issues:

=> value of firm = sum of value of individual assets
=> change in value of firm from decision = NPV of decision

Appendix to Chapter 3: The Price of Risk

A. Risky Verses Risk-Free Cash Flows
1. Key ideas

1)

Reason: for most people a $1 loss is a bigger deal than a $1 gain

2) Risk premium: extra return demanded by investors for holding risky assets instead of the risk-free asset (generally assumed to be U.S. Treasuries for investors in the U.S.)

=> compensates investors for taking any risk

2. Risk premium on the market

=>

Note: the market risk premium will increase if:

1)

2)

3. Risk premium on a security

Key => Depends on two things:

1)

2)

=>

Ex. Assume the following:

– risk-free interest rate = 2%
– a strong or weak economy is equally likely
– price of the market index: $100
– payoff on stock market index depends on the economy as follows:
  weak economy = $75
  strong economy = $139

– payoff on Orange Inc. depends on the economy as follows:
  weak economy = $95
  strong economy = $159

Q: What are the expected cash flow next year, the possible returns, the expected return, and the risk premium on the market?

=> expected cash flow for the market index = 107 =
=> return on the market depends on the economy as follows:

Strong: 39% =

Weak: −25% =
=> expected return on the market index: = 7% =

=> risk premium on the market index = **5% =**

Q: What is the no-arbitrage price of Orange Inc.?

=>

	$ in one year	
Transaction	Weak	Strong
Buy Orange		
Equivalent Portfolio:		
Total		

Cost to build portfolio that is equivalent to buying Orange:

=> Cost of equivalent portfolio =119.61 =

=> arbitrage unless

Q: What is arbitrage profit if the price of Orange is $125 instead of $119.61? How do you create this profit?

Transaction (t = 0)	$ today	$ in one year Weak	 Strong	Transaction (t = 1)
Total				

Q: What is the arbitrage profit if the price of Orange is $110 instead of $119.61?

Transaction (t = 0)	$ today	$ in one year Weak	 Strong	Transaction (t = 1)
Total				

Q: What are the possible returns, expected return, and risk premium on Orange if it is correctly priced at $119.61?

Return on Orange if strong economy = 32.9% =

Return on Orange if weak economy = -20.6% =

Note:

Q: How should the risk premium on Orange compare to the market (5%)?

=>

Expected cash flow for Orange = 127 =

Expected return on Orange = 6.2% = .062 =

Risk premium on Orange = 4.2% = .042 =

Note: Risk premium less than 5% on market.

Ex. Assume that all of the information in the Orange example still holds (Market index trades for $100 today and pays, $75 or $139 a year from today. Risk-free rate equals 2%). Assume also that we can invest in Pineapple which pays $65 when the economy is weak and $129 when the economy is strong?

Q1: What is the no-arbitrage price for Pineapple?
Q2: What is the arbitrage profit if Pineapple's price is $95 or $80?
Q3: If Pineapple is correctly priced, what are the possible returns, expected return, and risk premium on the stock?

Note:

Equivalent portfolio:

	$ in one year	
Transaction	Weak	Strong
Total		

Cost of equivalent portfolio =

A1: no-arbitrage price of Pineapple = $90.20

A2 ($95): Arbitrage profit if the price of Pineapple is $95 instead of the no-arbitrage price of $90.20.

Table 7

		$ in one year		
Transaction (t = 0)	$ today	Weak	Strong	Transaction (t = 1)
Total				

A2 ($80): Arbitrage profit if the price of Pineapple is $80 instead of the no-arbitrage price of $90.20.

Table 8

		$ in one year		
Transaction (t = 0)	$ today	Weak	Strong	Transaction (t = 1)
Total				

A3: Possible returns, expected return, and risk premium on Pineapple if it is correctly priced at $90.20

Return on Pineapple if strong economy = 43% =

Return on Pineapple if weak economy = -27.9% =

Note: return on Pineapple is more volatile than the market (+39% or -25%)

Expected return on Pineapple =.0755 = 7.55% =

Risk premium on Pineapple = .055 =

Note: Risk premium on Pineapple larger than 5% on market.

B. Arbitrage with Transaction Costs

Transaction costs: costs to trade securities

Note: transaction costs include:

1. commission to broker
2. bid-ask spread: difference between bid price and ask price
3. fees to borrow stock (varies with demand for shares to short)

Key: Transaction costs lead to the following modifications of earlier definitions:

Normal market => no arbitrage after transaction costs covered

Law of one price => difference in prices for equivalent securities must be less than transaction costs of engaging in arbitrage

No arbitrage price => differences between price and the PV(CF) must be less than transaction costs

Portfolio prices => Difference between the price of a portfolio and the sum of the prices of assets in the portfolio must be less than the transaction costs to build or break apart the portfolio