

The Financial System

ECON201 - Winter, '24

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9 January 2024

This Lecture

- First, we will talk about two determinants of interest rates: time and risk.
- Then, a closer look at how savings and investment are connected.
- In Lecture E, investment policy → more capital → economic growth.
- Financial markets funnel funds from those who have excess income (savers) to those with funding needs (borrowers).
- Financial intermediaries help diversify risk.
- We end with a model of a financial market, to study the effects of policy.

Outline

1. Financial Basics

2. Financial Markets

3. Financial Intermediaries

4. Public and Private Saving

5. The Market for Loanable Funds

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1. Present Value

2. Risk and Return

3. Asset Valuation

Discounting

- Previously, we compared prices across time. But, even when prices are the same, it matters when you receive a good or an amount of money.
- We compare cashflows received at different points in time by calculating their *present value*, V .
- The *present value* of a cash flow of $\$X$ in N years is the amount which, given an interest rate r , we would need save now to receive $\$X$ in N years:

$$(1 + r)^N V = X.$$

- Therefore, $\$X$ in N years is worth

$$V = \frac{X}{(1 + r)^N}$$

today.

- This process is called *discounting*.

Example I

What is worth more? \$100 today or \$110 in...

i. 1 year with $r = 5\%$?

$$V = \frac{\$110}{1 + 0.05} = \frac{\$110}{1.05} = \$104.76$$

ii. 2 years with $r = 5\%$?

$$V = \frac{\$110}{(1 + 0.05)^2} = \frac{\$110}{1.1025} = \$99.77$$

Example II

What is worth more? \$100 today or \$110 in...

i. 1 year with $r = 5\%$?

$$V = \frac{\$110}{1 + 0.05} = \frac{\$110}{1.05} = \$104.76$$

ii. 1 year with $r = 12\%$?

$$V = \frac{\$110}{1 + 0.12} = \frac{\$110}{1.12} = \$98.21$$

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Risk Aversion

- Most people dislike risk, i.e. they are risk adverse.
- Risk aversion means that you will avoid the possibility of bad outcomes, even if that behaviour makes you worse off on average.
- A risk-averse person experienced more “pain” from the loss of \$1,000 than “pleasure” from gaining \$1,000.
- This is because of *diminishing marginal utility of wealth*. Having an additional \$1,000 is worth more if you are poorer (lost \$1,000) than if you are wealthier (won \$1,000).
- Generally, trade-off between average return and risk.

Insurance

- Insurance is a way to reduce risk against payment of a *premium/fee*.
- **Examples:** Car insurance, fire insurance, health insurance, life insurance,....
- Insurance buys you a conditional cashflow. It only paid if a “bad” outcome realizes.
- Insurances cause the following two problems:
 - i. adverse selection (only high-risk people buy it), and
 - ii. moral hazard (less incentive to avoid risk).

Diversification

- Diversification is another way to reduce risk.
- Insurance companies reduce their risk by selling insurance to many people, each with (independent) risk.
- Individual stocks are very volatile, easily moving by several percentage point each day. Indices will move less.
- Diversification only reduces *idiosyncratic risk*. *Aggregate risk* or *market risk* remains (e.g. flood insurance).
- Risk is often measured by *standard deviation*. The higher the standard deviation of asset's return, the riskier the asset.

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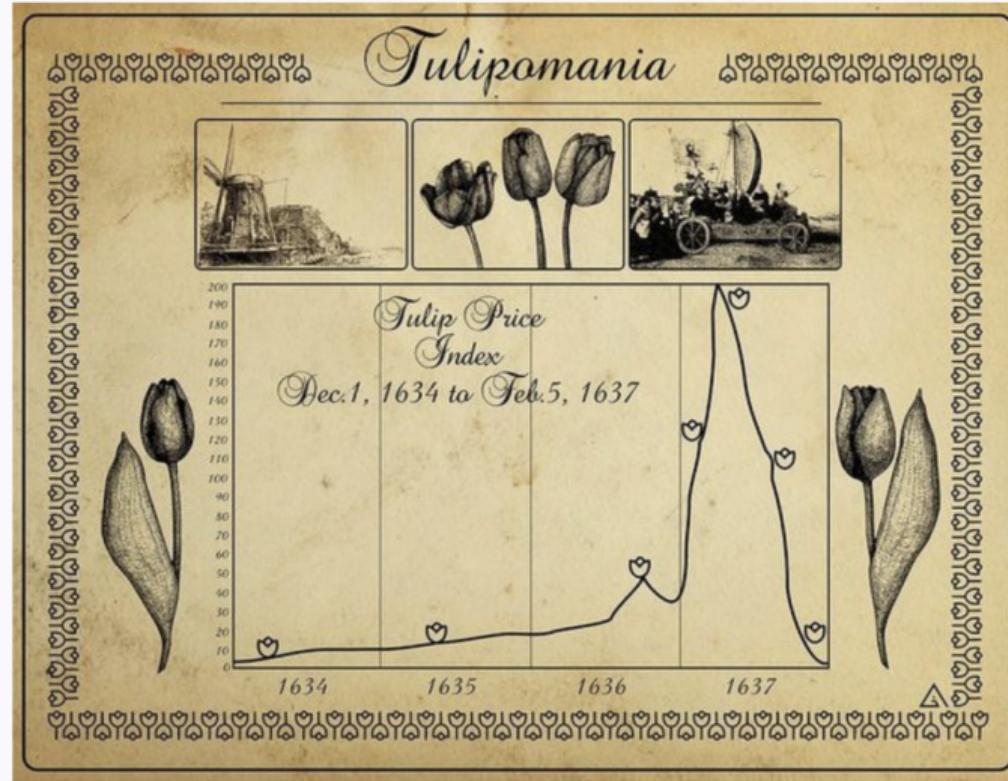
Fundamentals

- Price and value of an asset are *not* the same.
- The value of a stock depends on the expected profits/*dividends* of the company. Requires *fundamental analysis* (e.g. demand, competition, regulation, taxes, technology, ...).
- *Price-earnings ratio*: Price of one share divided by corporation's earnings per share from previous reporting year. High → potentially overvalued.

Efficient Market Hypothesis

- *Efficient markets hypothesis*: The price of an asset reflects all available information about the value of an asset.
- Conditions:
 - i. Many sellers and buyers are analyzing the asset closely.
 - ii. The price of the asset is the market equilibrium, that is, the number/size of buyers equals the number/size of sellers.
- Intuition behind *informational efficiency*: Each seller and each buyer may be wrong but, on average, their errors cancel out.
- **Implication:** Stock prices cannot be predicted with publicly available data.

Tulip Mania



Bubbles

- Financial markets occasionally experience *speculative bubbles*.
- In bubbles, the price of an asset rises well above its fundamental value.
- Speculation about future high resale prices, independent of future profits, drive bubbles (e.g. tulips).
- The existence and origin of bubbles is still debated.

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Financial Markets

- Financial markets are markets which trade in money, i.e. (contingent) cash flows.
- Some of these markets directly provide money to those firms which need funds for capital investment.
- The two biggest markets are
 - i. the bond market, and
 - ii. the stock market.

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1. The Bond Market

2. The Stock Market

The Bond Market I

- Bonds are IOUs.
- The buyer gives the borrower an amount (*principal*) at issuance.
- The borrower promises to repay an amount (*face value*) at *date of maturity*.
- Price/interest rate is determined by *default risk*. High interest rate = high default risk = “junk bond”.

The Bond Market II

- Another factor which affects interest rates on bonds is taxation.
- Interest income is normally taxed.
- **Exception:** Local and state government bonds.
- Some bonds offer inflation protection but most are nominal.

Example

- In Year 1, bondholder pays issuer a principal of \$100. The one-year bond has a face value of \$110.
- Thus, the interest rate is 10%.
- In Year 2, when the term of the bond ends, either:
 - i. The issuer pays the bondholder \$110, or
 - ii. The issuer defaults on the bond and does not pay \$110.

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1. The Bond Market

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The Stock Market

- In stock markets, shares (ownership stakes) in companies are traded.
- *Equity finance*: Return is a share of future profits, rather than a fixed amount. Firms raise money by selling their shares.
- Stock exchanges (e.g. NYSE, LSE).
- Stock indices: Averages which track a large number of stock prices (e.g. Dow Jones Industrial Average, S&P 500).
- Stock prices are determined by supply and demand, reflecting expectations of future profits.

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Financial Intermediaries

- Financial intermediaries allow savers' funds to be given to borrowers without the two parties ever meeting directly.
- Financial intermediaries add cost but can overcome certain frictions. This is especially important for small savers and small borrowers.
- There are many types of intermediaries: banks, mutual funds, pension funds, credit unions, insurance companies, “loan sharks,” ...
- We will focus on banks and mutual funds.

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1. Banks

2. Mutual Funds

Banks

- Banks are the most important source of funding for small businesses and households.
- Banks take deposits (from households) and pays an interest rate on them.
- These deposits are then lend (to firms) at a higher interest rate.
- Banks' profit margin: The difference between interest paid on deposits and the interest received from loans.
- Banks also help create money (more on this in Lecture H).

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1. Banks

2. Mutual Funds

Mutual Funds

- Mutual funds buy a *portfolio* of bonds and stocks with savers' money.
- Allows small savers to *diversify*, reducing risk.
- Mutual funds charge operating fees (0.1 to 1.5 p.p.a.)
- Fund managers are unlikely to “beat the market,” due to fierce competition.
- **Alternative:** Index funds track an (stock) index, smaller fees.

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Accounting Identities

For simplicity, assume we are in a *closed economy*. This means no exports or imports, $NX = 0$.

This implies

$$Y = C + I + G + NX = C + I + G$$

and

$$I = Y - C - G.$$

Note: $(Y - C - G) = S$.

→ Thus, investment equal national saving, $I = S$.

Public Saving

- If we add and subtract taxes, T , we can decompose national saving into *private saving* and *public saving*:

$$S = \underbrace{(Y - C - T)}_{\text{private saving}} + \underbrace{(T - G)}_{\text{public saving}} .$$

- If $(T - G) > 0$, there is a *budget surplus*.
- If $(T - G) < 0$, there is a *budget deficit*.
- If $(T - G) = 0$, we have a *balanced budget*.

A Word of Caution

- Be careful! Saving here is any income that is not spent.
- Putting money in the bank or a mutual fund is **not** investment.
- In macroeconomics, investment = purchase of new capital.

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Funds

1. Model Assumptions

2. Supply and Demand

3. Effects of Policy and
Government Spending

Assumptions

- Closed economy, $NX = 0$.
- Only one financial market.
- Only one interest rate for both savers and borrowers.

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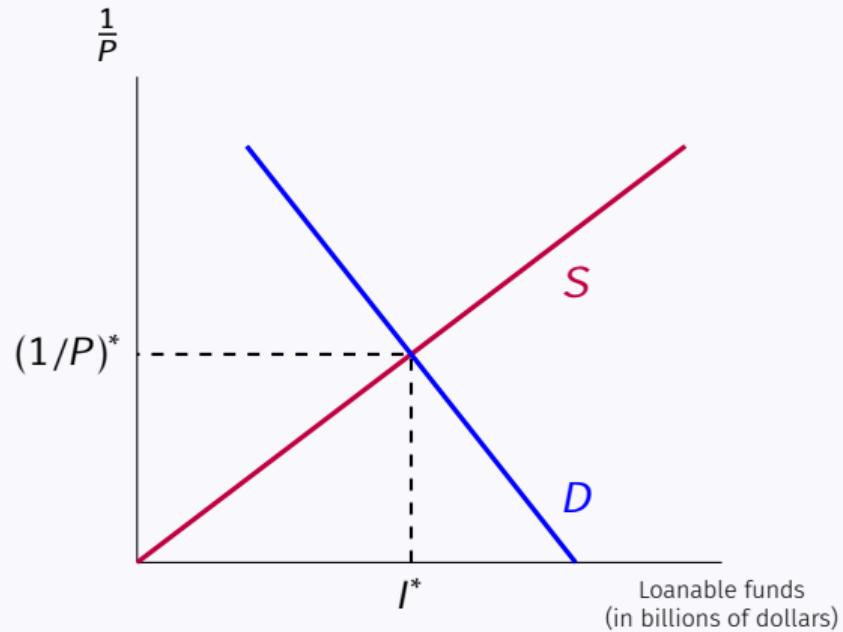
1. Model Assumptions

2. Supply and Demand

3. Effects of Policy and Government Spending

Supply and Demand

- National saving = Supply of loanable funds.
- Investment = Demand for loanable funds.
- Interest rate = Price of loanable funds.
- **Note:** Real interest rate.



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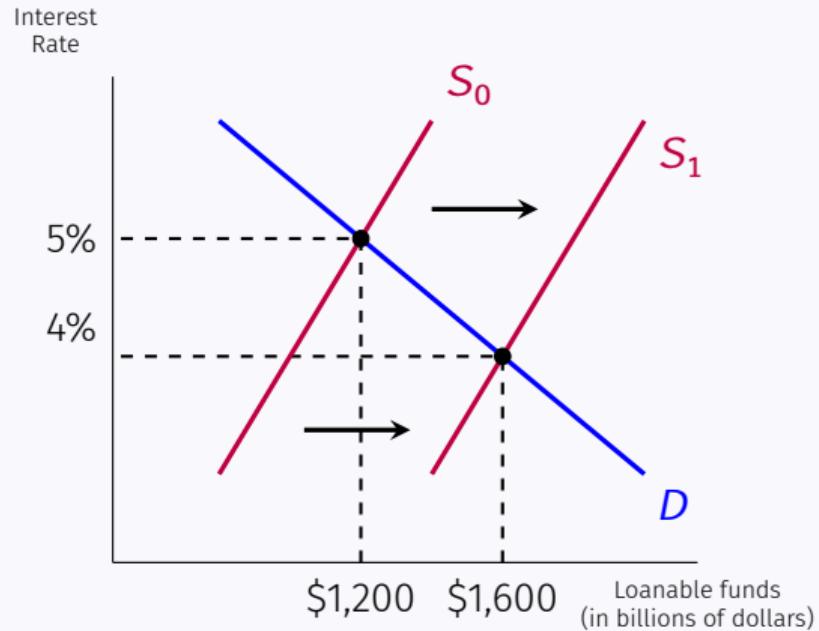
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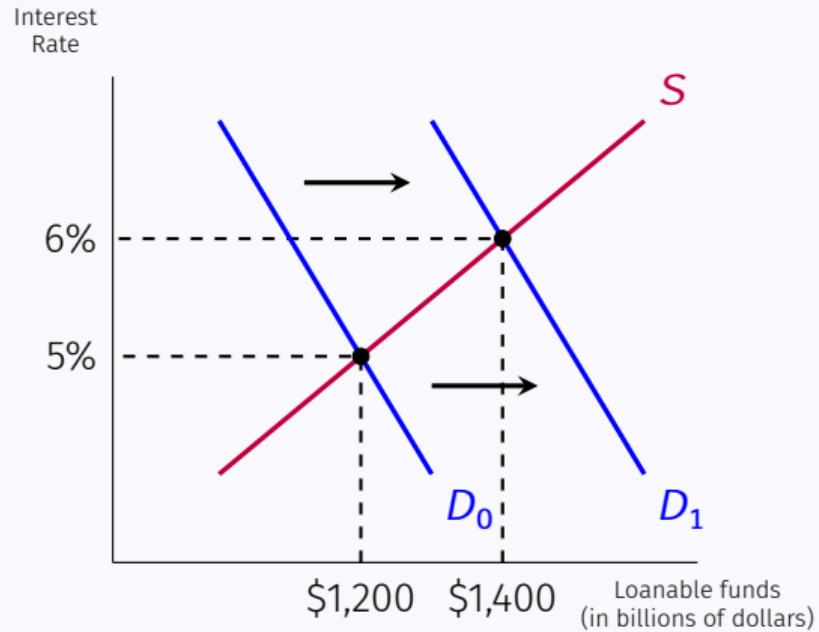
Saving Incentives

- Saving incentives (e.g. Individual Retirement Accounts) encourage more saving.
- Supply curve shifts right.
- Real interest rate \downarrow ; investment \uparrow .
- Thus, saving incentive create growth.



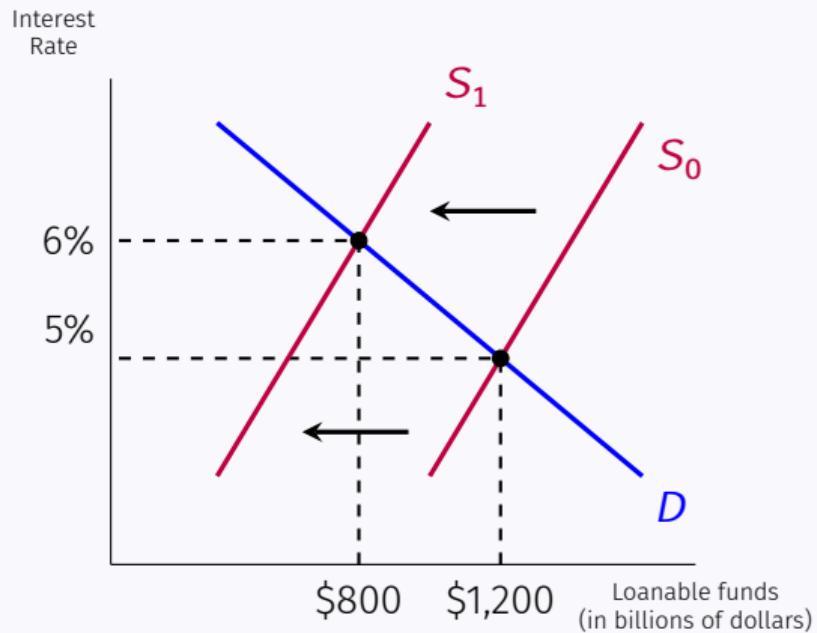
Investment Incentives

- Investment tax credit reduces cost of investment for firms.
- Demand shifts right.
- Real interest rate \uparrow ; investment \uparrow .
- Thus, investment incentives create growth

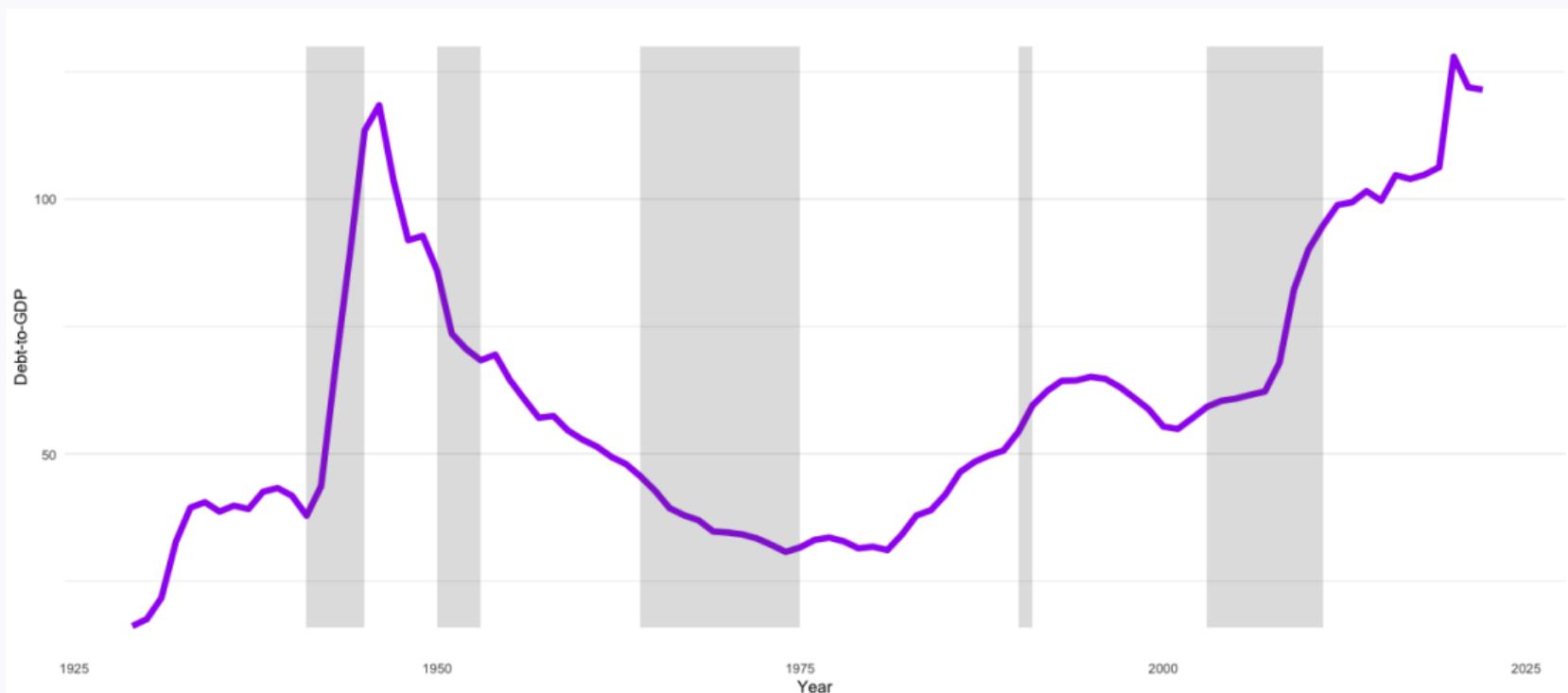


Crowding Out

- An increase in the budget deficit, $G - T$, reduces national saving.
- Supply shifts left.
- Real interest rate \uparrow ; investment \downarrow .
- Fall in investment here is called *crowding out*.
- **Reverse:** Budget surplus can create growth by supplying loanable funds.

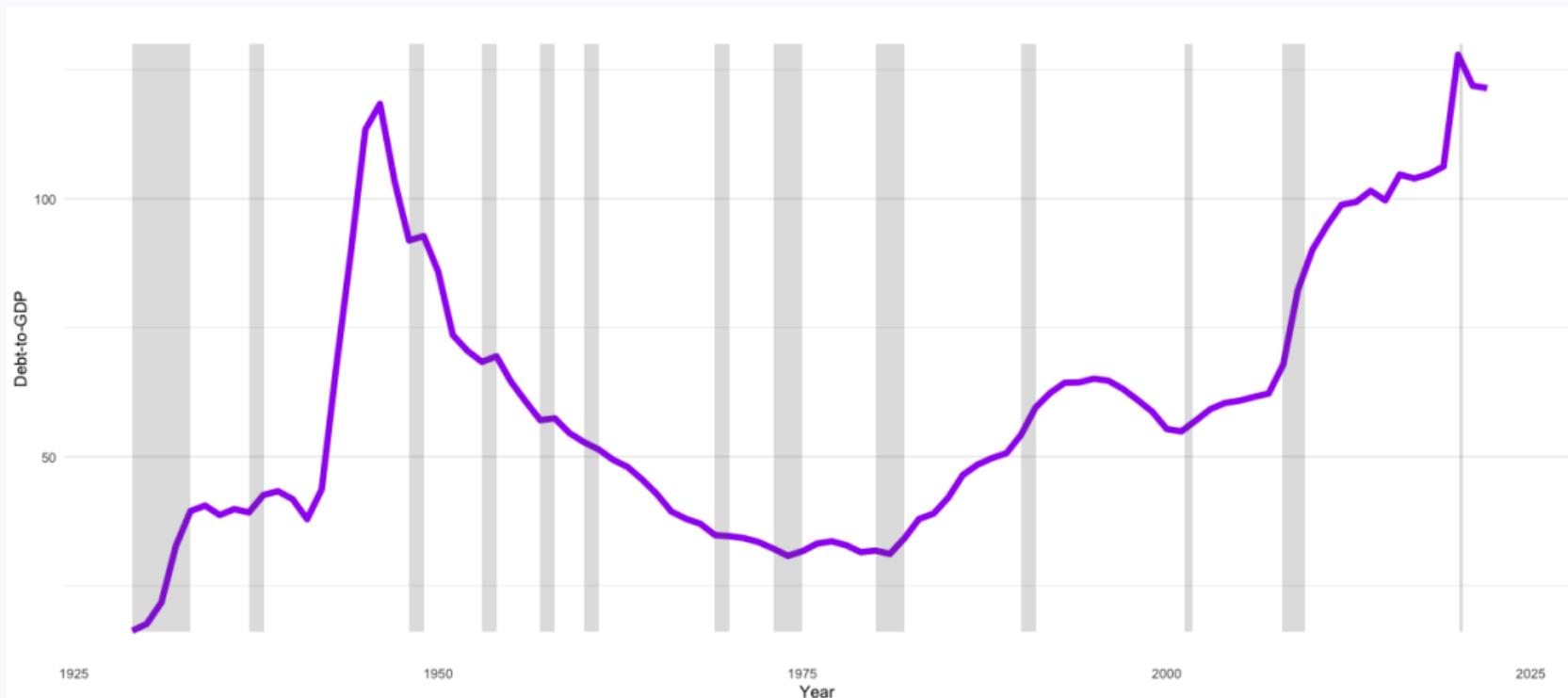


Government Debt in the USA: Wars



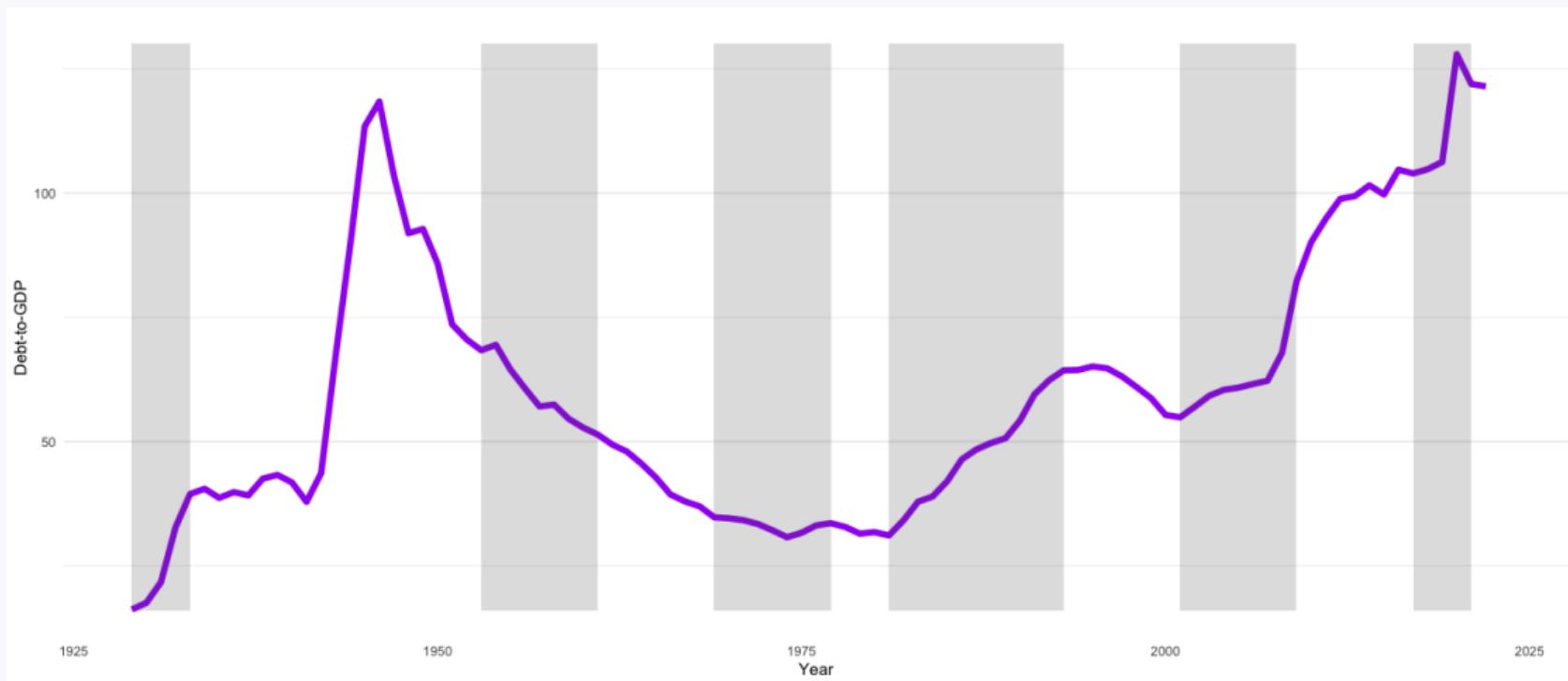
Debt data from the [U.S. Treasury](#). Annual GDP data from [FRED](#). Major wars underlaid in grey.

Government Debt in the USA: Recessions



Debt data from the [U.S. Treasury](#). Annual GDP data from [FRED](#). NBER recessions underlaid in grey.

Government Debt in the USA: Politics



Debt data from the [U.S. Treasury](#). Annual GDP data from [FRED](#). Republican administrations underlaid in grey.

Conclusion

- **Discounting** is another tool to compare cash flows over time. **Risk aversion** gives rise to insurance.
- In efficient financial markets, asset prices are unpredictable and reflect **expected cash flows**.
- Stocks are ownership stakes and bonds are IOUs.
- Banks and mutual funds are **financial intermediaries**.
- Tax policy may encourage saving and investment, supporting growth.
- Public deficits **crowd out** private investment.
- **Next:** The nature of money as well as the cost and benefits of inflation.