

# Lecture 1: Introduction and Mathematical Methods

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Advanced Financial Economics 2019

# Roadmap

- 1 Introduction
- 2 The Objective of a Firm
- 3 Net Present Value (NPV) Analysis
- 4 Constrained Optimisation
- 5 Kuhn-Tucker Complementarity Slackness
- 6 Stochastic Models
- 7 Elementary Game Theory
- 8 Summary

# Instructor

- Adam Spencer
  - No need for formalities: call me either Adam or Spencer.
- Assistant Professor of Economics (started here September 2018).
- Ph.D. in Economics, Ph.D. in Finance, M.S. Economics.
  - University of Wisconsin-Madison (USA).
- M.Econ. (Hons), B.Comm. (Hons) Economics.
  - The University of Melbourne (Australia).

# Course Overview

- The course is split into four parts.
  - (1) Corporate finance.
  - (2) Asset pricing.
  - (3) Financial intermediation.
  - (4) Macro-finance.

# (1) Corporate finance

- Say a firm wants to take a new project.
- Corporate finance asks the question of how they best finance the new project?
- In this part of the course, we seek to answer two questions:
  - (A) What does theory predict the optimal financing mix should be?
  - (B) Which factors matter most quantitatively (in the data)?

## (2) Asset pricing

- Here we consider
  - (A) How do we characterise asset prices using microfoundations?
  - (B) When, in the real world, can we say that there is an asset price bubble?

## (3) Financial intermediation

- Here we ask the question
  - (A) Why are there financial intermediaries? What purpose do they serve?  
What value do they create?

## (4) Macro-Finance

- Here we ask the question
  - (A) What are the problems and potential remedies associated with a financial intermediation system?



# Tools

- This course covers a lot of ground and thus requires a lot of different tools.
- We'll make theoretical predictions, test them with data and leverage both simultaneously using **structural models**.

# Summary

- The material covered in this course will be tough!
- It will be **MATHEMATICAL IN NATURE**.
- You'll get exposure to lots of new things: may seem intimidating.
- Look through all the math to see the intuition of models and solutions.
- This is not a math course!

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# Shareholders

- A firm has many stakeholders.
- E.g. creditors, shareholders, managers, workers, etc.
- In this course, we'll assume that a firm is run by a manager.
- Sometimes the manager will be **self-interested** (we refer to these as agency conflicts).
- But generally, we'll assume that a firm's objective is to **maximise the expected discounted value of cash flows that it pays to its shareholders.**
- Shareholders are the owners of the firm.

## Creditors v.s. Shareholders

- If a firm borrows money, the agent who loans the money is called a creditor or a debtholder.
- The firm is obliged to repay the amount it owes its creditors always.
- If cashflows are insufficient to do so, the firm defaults/goes bankrupt.
- The firm's shareholders invest some initial funds in the firm and then receive dividends in the future.
- Shareholders are protected by limited liability: means that if the firm goes bankrupt, **nobody** can ask the shareholders for more money.

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# NPV Analysis

- When evaluating a project, we use NPV analysis.
- Takes the cash flows associated with the project, discounts them and adds them together.
- Why is discounting necessary?
- Opportunity cost of time: instead of investing in this project, I could take the funds and stick them into a riskless bank account and get interest earnings.
- Interest earnings are the opportunity cost.

## Discount rate and discount factor

- What's the appropriate opportunity cost to use?
- Depends on our **investors**.
- What is their opportunity cost? What is their discount factor?
- Assume that time in the world is discrete  $t \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .
- If their net opportunity cost is  $r > 0$  per period ( $1 + r$  gross return), then how do we discount cash flows for them?



## Discount rate and discount factor

- I.e. what is £1 received at  $t + 1$  worth in terms of time  $t$  money?
- Invest £1 in this bank account at  $t \Rightarrow$  get back  $\pounds(1+r)$  at  $t + 1$ . We seek  $x$  in the following

$$1 \text{ at } t \Rightarrow (1 + r) \text{ at } t + 1$$

$$x \text{ at } t \Rightarrow 1 \text{ at } t + 1$$

which yields  $x = \frac{1}{1+r}$ .

- I.e. £1 received at  $t + 1$  is worth  $\frac{1}{1+r}$  at time  $t$ .
- The sooner we get money, the better! We can do more with it!
- Object  $r$  is referred to as the discount **rate**.
- An object defined as  $\beta = \frac{1}{1+r}$  is referred to as the discount **factor**.

## Example

- E.g. consider a project that Firm A is contemplating taking. The project has an upfront cost of  $c_0 > 0$  and then generates  $c > 0$  in positive cash flows in perpetuity from  $t = 0$  onwards. The investors in the firm can invest in a riskless bank account that offers  $r > 0$  of net interest per period. What is the NPV of this project?

$$\begin{aligned} NPV &= -c_0 + c + \frac{1}{1+r}c + \left(\frac{1}{1+r}\right)^2 c + \left(\frac{1}{1+r}\right)^3 c + \dots \\ &= -c_0 + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{1+r}\right)^t c \\ &= -c_0 + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t c \\ &= -c_0 + \frac{c}{1-\beta} \end{aligned}$$

where the penultimate line follows from the definition of the discount factor and the last line comes from geometric series.

## Example

- E.g. when will the example on the previous slide constitute a good project from the perspective of the investors? When the NPV is positive!

$$\begin{aligned} -c_0 + \frac{c}{1-\beta} &\geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow c_0 &\leq \frac{c}{1-\beta} \\ \Rightarrow \beta &\geq \frac{c}{c_0} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

what does this mean?

- Says that the project is good only if the investors are sufficiently **patient**. Make sense?
- Notice that this evaluates the project **relative** to our next best alternative.

## NPV versus utility

- This symbol  $\beta$  hopefully looks somewhat familiar in this context.
- Recall lifetime utility is often given as

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t)$$

where  $u(c_t)$  is referred to as the period utility function and  $c_t$  is consumption for period  $t$ .

- A risk averse household has  $u(c_t)$  **concave** in consumption, (i.e.  $u' > 0$  and  $u'' < 0$ ).
- A risk neutral household has  $u(c_t)$  as being **linear** in consumption.

## NPV versus utility

- Say there is no upfront cost for a project.
- And that it pays out a sequence  $\{c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$

$$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t c_t$$

which says that NPV is the utility associated with consuming the cash flows for a **risk-neutral** investor.

- In corporate finance, we'll typically assume risk neutral investors.
- Not the case in asset pricing though (more on this later in the semester).

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# Constrained Optimisation

- “Economics is the study of how society manages its scarce resources” (Mankiw, 2007, *Principles of Economics*).
- Constrained optimisation!

# Discrete Time Deterministic Program

- Consider a problem of the form

$$\max_{\vec{x}_t} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} f(\vec{x}_t, p, t) \text{ s.t. } g(\vec{x}_t, p, t) = \gamma_t \quad \forall t \geq 0$$

- Has the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} f(\vec{x}_t, p, t) + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \lambda_t [\gamma_t - g(\vec{x}_t, p, t)]$$

where  $\lambda_t \geq 0$  are the Lagrange multipliers.



## Dynamic Optimisation Example

- Solve the following program for a risk averse household

$$\max_{\{c_t, b_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{c_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}$$

for  $\beta \in [0, 1]$  subject to the constraint

$$c_t + q_t b_{t+1} = b_t + y_t$$

and with  $b_0$  given. See that  $b_t$  are discount bonds,  $y_t$  is their income endowment,  $q_t < 1$  is the bond price and the price sequence  $\{q_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$  is taken as given.

- Notice that the dynamics have an effect through savings,  $b_t$ .
- What are the control variables here?

# Dynamic Optimisation Example Solution (1)

- Lagrangian given by

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{c_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \lambda_t [b_t + y_t - c_t - q_t b_{t+1}]$$

which comes with first order conditions

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial c_t} = 0 \Rightarrow \beta^t c_t^{-\sigma} - \lambda_t = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b_t} = 0 \Rightarrow -q_t \lambda_t + \lambda_{t+1} = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda_t} = 0 \Rightarrow c_t + q_t b_{t+1} = b_t + y_t, \quad (3)$$

## Discrete Time Optimisation Example Solution (2)

- Combining (1) and (2) yields

$$\beta \left( \frac{c_{t+1}}{c_t} \right)^{-\sigma} = q_t \quad (4)$$

which is referred to as a consumption Euler equation.

- Equations (3) and (4) together summarise the solution to the program.

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# Constraints

- Probably for most problems you've seen so far using Lagrangians, we always have the constraint binding.
- E.g. the budget constraint always binds due to always positive marginal utility of consumption.
- Not always the case though.
- E.g. a credit card limit is a constraint.
- You don't necessarily want to borrow right-up to your limit as this can make your financial situation worse next month.

# Complementarity Slackness

- Come back to the problem of the form

$$\max_{\vec{x}_t} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} f(\vec{x}_t, p, t) \text{ s.t. } g(\vec{x}_t, p, t) = \gamma_t \quad \forall t \geq 0$$

- Has the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} f(\vec{x}_t, p, t) + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \lambda_t [\gamma_t - g(\vec{x}_t, p, t)]$$

where  $\lambda_t \geq 0$  are the Lagrange multipliers.

# Complementarity Slackness

- With the constraints, we're used to having  $\lambda_t > 0$ , meaning that  $\gamma_t = g(\vec{x}_t, p, t)$ .
- In general though, it's the case that

$$\lambda_t[\gamma_t - g(\vec{x}_t, p, t)] = 0$$

meaning that if  $\gamma_t > g(\vec{x}_t, p, t)$ , then  $\lambda_t = 0$ .

- That's all Kuhn-Tucker says.

# Complementarity Slackness

- To re-iterate, if a constraint is slack then the Lagrange multiplier equals zero.
- If the constraint binds, then the multiplier is positive, (the case we're used to with budget constraints).



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# Shocks

- The examples we've looked at so far were all deterministic.
- What happens when we add random shocks to the model?
- Control variables will be a function of realised state of the world.

# Randomness and States of Nature

- In this course, we'll assume that there is an information set that evolves over time denoted by  $\mathcal{I}_t$ .
- In the future, there is some set of possible outcomes  $\omega_j \in \Omega$ .
- All the agents in the model know the set  $\Omega$  for the future, they just don't know what  $\omega_j$  will come up.
- Take expectations over the states and form state-contingent plans for control variables.
- $\mathbb{E}_t[x]$  is shorthand for  $\mathbb{E}[x|\mathcal{I}_t]$

## Two Period Stochastic Model Example

- Consider an optimal savings problem for a consumer over two periods  $t \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- The consumer receives endowment of income  $y_t$  in period  $t$  where  $y_t = \bar{y} + \epsilon_t$  where  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_t] = 0$ .
- Consumer maximises NPV of expected lifetime utility where period utility function is  $\frac{c_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}$ .
- Assume that price of consumption in each period is unity and bond price is fixed at  $q_0$ .
- Variables will all be functions of the state realised at decision time  $\omega_t \in \Omega$ .

## Two Period Stochastic Model Example

- The consumer is faced with the problem:

$$\max_{c_0(\omega_0), c_1(\omega_1), b_0(\omega_0)} \mathbb{E}_0 \left[ \frac{c_0((\omega_0))^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \beta \frac{c_1((\omega_1))^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} \right]$$

subject to

$$c_0(\omega_0) + q_0 b_0(\omega_0) = y_0(\omega_0)$$

$$c_1(\omega_1) = b_0(\omega_0) + y_1(\omega_1)$$

## Two Period Stochastic Model Example Solution

- Objective given by,

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_0 \left[ \frac{(y_0(\omega_0) - q_0 b_0(\omega_0))^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \beta \frac{(b_0(\omega_0) + y_1(\omega_1))^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} \right]$$

which is a function of only one control  $b_0$  from substituting out  $c_0$  and  $c_1$ .

- Optimality condition given by

$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{db_0} = 0 \Rightarrow q_0 c_0(\omega_0)^{-\sigma} = \beta \mathbb{E}_0[c_1^{-\sigma}(\omega_1)]$$

which is a stochastic consumption Euler equation.

- See that the optimal decision depends on the state realised at  $t = 0$  and what's expected at  $t = 1$ .

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# Games

- In the most basic of economic models, we assume that agents are all taking market behaviour as given.
- E.g. perfect competition.
- What if we have a small number of people interacting with each other?
- It will often make sense to think that they take others' behaviour into account.



# Nash Equilibrium

- The solution concept we'll use for strategic games is Nash equilibrium.
- We're in a Nash equilibrium if no player in a game can improve their payoff through changing their actions.

## Nash equilibrium example

- E.g. find the Nash equilibrium of the following strategic game of two players.

P1/P2	I	II
A	1, -1	2, 1
B	0, 1	4, 2

where the row player is denoted as P1 and the column player is named P2. P1 has strategy set  $\{A, B\}$  and P2 has  $\{I, II\}$ .

- The payoffs (think of these as utils) of P1 are written first and that for P2 are written second.
- What is each player's best response given **fixed behaviour** of the other player?

## Nash equilibrium example solution

- If P2 chooses I  $\Rightarrow$  P1 should play A.
- If P2 chooses II  $\Rightarrow$  P1 should play B.
- If P1 chooses A  $\Rightarrow$  P2 should play II.
- If P1 chooses B  $\Rightarrow$  P2 should play II.
- Where is there overlap? (B, II) is the unique pure strategy Nash equilibrium since neither player can do better by changing their strategy.

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# Topics Covered

- These mathematical techniques are just tools.
- If you understand how to implement all these methods today, you'll be good for the basic techniques needed for this module.